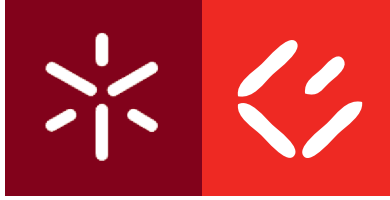


Universidade do Minho
Escola de Economia e Gestão

Hala Mansour Salman Al-Ayed

**Human Resources Management Practices
and Challenges: A Quantitative Study of HR
Managers' Perceptions of Jordanian
Workers and Syrian Refugees in Jordanian
Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs)**



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Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs)**

PhD. Thesis
PhD. Thesis in Business Administration

Work made under the supervision of
Professor Dr Regina Leite

January 2021

Declaration

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Title of the Thesis: Human Resources Management Practices and Challenges: A
Quantitative Study of HR Managers' Perceptions of Jordanian Workers and Syrian
Refugees in Jordanian Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs)

Doctoral program: PhD in Business Administration

Supervisor: Professor Regina Leite

ACCORDING TO THE CURRENT LEGISLATION, IT IS NOT ALLOWED TO REPRODUCE ANY
PART OF THIS THESIS.

University of Minho, January 2021

Signature

A handwritten signature in black ink, consisting of a stylized 'R' or 'L' shape with a horizontal line extending to the right.

STATEMENT OF INTEGRITY

I hereby declare having conducted this academic work with integrity. I confirm that I have not used plagiarism or any form of undue use of information or falsification of results along the process leading to its elaboration.

I further declare that I have fully acknowledged the Code of Ethical Conduct of the University of Minho.

University of Minho
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Acknowledgement

Thanks God, the merciful and the passionate, for providing me with the opportunity to take this step and be here today. To be able to step strong and smooth in this way, I have also been supported and supervised by many people to whom I would like to express my deepest gratitude.

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List of Abbreviations

APS	Automated Performance Support
BARS	Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scale
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
EM	Executive Manager
EPSS	Electronic Performance Support Systems
GM	General Manager
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HR	Human Resources
HRP	Human Resource Practices
HRM	Human Resource Management
HRM-P	Human Resource Management and Organization Performance
MD	Managing Director
OI&S	Organizational integration and socialization
OP	Organizational Performance
PAS	Performance Appraisal System
PM	Personnel Management
R&S	Recruitment and Selection
RBV	Resource-Based View
SHRM	Strategic Human Resources Management
SMEs	Small and Medium Enterprises
T&D	Training and development
TNA	Training Needs Assessment
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

Human Resources Management Practices and Challenges: A Quantitative Study of HR Managers' Perceptions of Jordanian Workers and Syrian Refugees in Jordanian Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs)

Abstract

The number of refugees has increased dramatically across the globe, but management research on this group of migrants is very scarce. This represents a unique opportunity for the field of HRM to contribute to a better understanding of refugees' integration in the workplace and their particular challenges. The study takes the influx of Syrian refugees to Jordan as a challenge to HR managers and explores the HR practices implemented in Jordanian organizations that employ Syrian refugees. The main research objectives are twofold: i) to analyze four HR practices applied to Jordanian and Syrian workers, uncovering the main similarities/differences and ii) to explore the main challenges associated with each practice facing HRM and refugees. To accomplish the objectives of this research, the study surveyed HR managers of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) in Jordan. Four major HR practices were studied: Recruitment and Selection (R&S), Organizational Integration and Socialization (OI&S), Training and Development (T&D), and Performance Appraisal System (PAS).

The study followed a quantitative research approach with a descriptive research design. A non-probability sampling technique (convenience) was used to collect data. A self-administered questionnaire was distributed among HR managers or in charge of HRM in SMEs, and a total of 134 usable questionnaires were returned. The study made use of SPSS for descriptive and inferential statistics to analyze data and draw conclusions.

Overall, the study findings suggest that respondents hold very positive perceptions of the current HR practices in their respective companies, which contradicts extant research in HRM conducted in Jordan. According to the surveyed HR managers, SMEs do not differentiate between Jordanian and Syrian employees. Nevertheless, some specific procedures and methodologies inherent to each HR practice are not applied (or applied to a lesser extent) to the latter. Results also indicate that participants did not perceive the identified situations as challenges in R&S, OI&S, T&D and PAS.

The implications of the study findings point out the importance of conducting more conceptual and empirical research to gain a better understanding about the HRM function in Jordan and provide country-specific recommendations to practitioners on how to tackle current and future challenges.

Keywords: Human Resources Management, Humanitarian crises, Refugees, Recruitment and Selection, Organizational Socialization and Integration, Training and Development, Performance Appraisal System.

**Práticas e Desafios da Gestão De Recursos Humanos: Um Estudo Quantitativo das
Percepções dos Gestores de RH sobre os Trabalhadores Jordanos e Refugiados Sírios
em Pequenas e Médias Empresas (PMEs) da Jordânia**

Resumo

O número de refugiados aumentou drasticamente em todo o mundo, mas as pesquisas de gestão sobre este grupo de migrantes são muito escassas. Isso representa uma oportunidade única para o campo da gestão de recursos humanos contribuir para uma melhor compreensão da integração dos refugiados no local de trabalho e seus desafios particulares. Considerando o afluxo massivo de refugiados sírios à Jordânia como um desafio para os gestores de RH, o estudo aborda as práticas de RH em organizações que empregam trabalhadores sírios. Os principais objetivos da pesquisa são: i) analisar quatro práticas de RH, no sentido de identificar as principais semelhanças/diferenças na sua aplicação a jordanos e refugiados sírios e ii) explorar os principais desafios associados a cada prática para a GRH e refugiados. Para tal, o estudo pesquisou gestores de RH de Pequenas e Médias Empresas (PMEs) na Jordânia. As quatro práticas de RH estudadas foram: Recrutamento e Seleção (R&S), Integração e Socialização Organizacional (I&SO), Formação e Desenvolvimento (F&D) e Sistema de Avaliação de Desempenho (SAD).

O estudo seguiu uma abordagem de pesquisa quantitativa de natureza descritiva. Foi usada a técnica de amostragem por conveniência para a recolha de dados. Um questionário de auto-preenchimento foi distribuído entre gestores de RH ou responsáveis pela GRH nas PMEs, tendo-se recebido e um total de 134 respostas válidas. Recorreu-se ao SPSS para a análise estatística dos dados e tirar conclusões.

Em termos globais, os resultados do estudo sugerem que os entrevistados têm percepções muito positivas das práticas de RH existentes nas respectivas empresas, o que contradiz a literatura no domínio da GRH realizada na Jordânia. De acordo com os gestores de RH alvo do estudo, as PMEs não diferenciam entre funcionários jordanos e sírios. No entanto, alguns procedimentos e metodologias específicas inerentes a cada prática de RH não se aplicam (ou aplicam-se em menor escala) aos sírios. Os resultados

revelam ainda que os participantes não perceberam as situações apresentadas como desafios no âmbito das práticas estudadas.

As implicações do estudo sublinham a importância de realizar investigação concetual e empírica mais aprofundada para obter uma melhor compreensão sobre a função de GRH na Jordânia e fornecer recomendações específicas dirigidas aos profissionais do país sobre como enfrentar os desafios atuais e futuros.

Palavras-chave: Gestão de Recursos Humanos, Crise Humanitária, Refugiados, Recrutamento e Seleção, Socialização e Integração Organizacional, Formação e Desenvolvimento, Sistema de Avaliação de Desempenho.

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This introductory chapter presents the rationale for this research that addresses the current Human Resource Management (HRM) practices and challenges in Jordanian small and medium-sized organizations (SMEs) in a context of humanitarian crisis from the Human Resources Managers' point of view. Firstly, it contextualizes the study and discusses the relevance of the chosen research topic and the scope of the research. The research objectives and the research questions are presented. The expected contribution to the body of knowledge and practice is summarized. The final section provides an overview of the whole structure of the thesis, with a summary of each chapter.

1.2 Background, Relevance and Scope of the Study

Over the years, humanitarian crises have forced thousands of refugees to leave their own countries and face various challenges in the host countries. A recent UNHCR report indicates that at the end of 2019 the number of refugees worldwide was 26 million (UNHCR, 2019). More recently, the civil war in Syria has led to one of the largest exoduses in modern history (Newman, Bimrose, Nielsen and Zacher, 2018). Refugees have not chosen to migrate for professional or career reasons, and therefore face countless challenges and barriers when entering the host countries and into the workforce. According to extant research, besides societal challenges and obstacles, refugees experience discrimination in the labour market, namely during the recruitment process, when applying for jobs (Lundborg and Skedinger, 2016).

Despite the relevance of workforce integration of refugees, research on this group of migrants is scarce, especially in the management field. Management scholars and practitioners have focused on various aspects of the international mobility of skilled professionals and expatriates (Caligiuri and Bonache, 2016) and systematically neglected those who move away from their countries due to forced displacement. As Lee, Szkudlarek, Nguyen and Nardon (2020) have recently recognized '*refugees are often left out of such discussions*' (p. 1). In light of this, some questions arise: What is the role of organizations in integrating and managing refugees? More specifically, how can HRM

policies and practices assist in the integration of refugees? In what ways are HRM processes (e.g., recruitment and selection, training and development) facilitating or inhibiting refugees' entry, adjustment and career advancement? These questions are the starting point of this thesis in the sense that they represent fundamental research lacunas in the HRM field and will be addressed in more detail in this introductory chapter.

The challenges of integration are faced, at an individual level, by refugees, who bear the paramount costs of being forced out of their homes and jobs but also impact on host countries' society and economy (Fakih & Ibrahim, 2016), entering the organizational and policy agendas. As Newman et al (2018) claim, re-integration of refugees in the receiving countries entails several challenges that *"exacerbate the traumas that triggered their flight from their country of origin"* (p. 4). In addition to the traumas of forced migration and resettlement (e.g., social, economic, emotional, and psychological traumas), refugees are often directed to jobs in the secondary labour market due to occupational segregation and relegated to the informal economy (Colic-Peisker and Tilbury, 2006). In light of the above, although refugees face several challenges and are one of the major challenges confronting organizations in the receiving countries, this remains an under-researched topic in the HRM field.

Syria humanitarian crisis has impacted mostly on the countries receiving the majority of Syrian refugees as Turkey, Lebanon and Jordan that have witnessed significant economic and social effects of Syrians forced migration (Fakih & Ibrahim, 2016). The integration of refugees into the labour market has become an issue of major concern for the governments and organizations of receiving countries, especially after Syria's refugee crisis and the exodus of 2011. The Syria crisis has increased the vulnerability of both Syrian refugees and Jordanian nationals and institutions, particularly in the host communities, who *"are paying a high price"* (Achilli, 2015, p. 1). Jordanian workers fear the detrimental consequences of Syrian influx, such as unemployment rates increase and higher competition for scarce job opportunities (Achilli, 2015), mirroring *"governmental and media discourses (that) have systematically portrayed Syrians as 'taking their jobs' and creating unmanageable burdens for Jordanian society"* (Lenner & Turner, 2019, p. 80).

The need to effectively integrate refugees in the workforce represents an opportunity for both scholars and practitioners to contribute to knowledge and suggest practical solutions. A better understanding of this group of migrants should be a priority for both organizations and the human resource management (HRM) professionals. Analyzing refugee integration from an HRM perspective is of utmost importance, especially in those countries that host the largest numbers of refugees. Existing literature shows that HRM plays a central role in times of crises (Vardarlier, 2016), besides acknowledging its importance for achieving a sustainable competitive advantage and organizational performance (Zikic, 2015). Therefore, conducting research on HRM practices of Jordanian organizations employing Syrian refugees can contribute to filling in some gaps in this field of research.

The Syrian crisis highlights the need for management researchers to examine how organizational practices, and specifically HR practices, are managing refugees effectively, and ultimately facilitating or imposing barriers in processes such as recruitment and selection, socialization, training and career advancement, and performance appraisal. Given that research on the HRM practices in Jordan is scarce (Aladwan, Bhanugopan and Fish, 2014) and studies on the interplay between HRM and refugee integration almost non-existent, this thesis aims to provide important insights into how HRM is managing local employees and refugees. How different are HRM processes (hiring, socializing, training and appraising) regarding Jordanian and Syrian refugees? What are the perceived challenges associated with those HRM practices for HR managers? By analyzing the existing HRM practices applied to Jordanian and refugees, it will be possible to uncover eventual differences in the way refugees are integrated and managed in Jordanian organizations. It might also identify HR practices that discourage refugees' hiring, their adjustment and socialization, as well as their permanency, performance and advancement in those organizations. Such analysis is expected to raise awareness of organizations employing Syrian refugees that some HR practices in place may not apply to refugees and make it more difficult for them to adjust to their new jobs and work environments.

The present study was conducted in small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) because they play a key role in the economic development of Jordan, contributing significantly to employment and gross domestic product (GDP). A survey questionnaire was sent to SMEs that employ Syrian refugees. It was addressed to the HR Manager or the person in charge of personnel.

1.3 Research Objectives

There is currently limited research in the HRM field in the Middle East/Arab countries, particularly in Jordanian organizations. This shortage of studies also applies to HRM under abnormal circumstances, such as the Syrian refugees' influx in the labour market (Afiouni, Karam and El-Hajj, 2013). Hence, research on HR practices applied to local (national) and refugee workers following the massive entry of refugees in the labour market is imperative.

In light of the above, this study aims to examine the nature of current HRM practices in Jordanian SMEs that employ Syrian refugees, from the perspective of HR managers. To further illuminate the overall aim of the thesis, the following objectives were set to be achieved:

1. To analyze the HRM practices in Jordanian SMEs, namely recruitment and selection, organizational integration and socialization, training and development, and performance appraisal system.
2. To identify the main methods used in each HRM practice regarding Jordanian and Syrian employees.
3. To examine the similarities or/and differences in the methods used in each practice concerning Jordanian and Syrian employees.
4. To determine the major challenges facing HR managers in each practice.

1.4 Research Questions

In order to meet the research objectives, and guided by the lacunae identified in the literature review, the following research questions were drawn up:

1. What is the status of HRM practices, namely recruitment and selection, organizational socialization and integration, training and development, and performance appraisal system in Jordanian SMEs?
2. What are the main methods used in each HR practice?
3. Are there differences in the methods used in each HRM practice regarding Jordanian and Syrian employees?
4. What are the main challenges faced by HR Managers and the main constraints affecting Syrian employees from HR managers perspective in each practice?

1.5 Contribution to Knowledge and Practice

This research will contribute to enrich the knowledge of HRM practices in a country where the available studies are scarce. Existing research on HRM is mainly conducted in the Western world and in “normal” circumstances. The analysis of HRM practices under severe humanitarian conditions (such as the massive entry of Syrian refugees in the Jordanian labour market) requires the attention of both the academic community and practitioners in the field. A better understanding of the current applications of HRM in those circumstances will allow for the identification of possible avenues for HRM development in Jordanian research and professional practice in the context of a humanitarian crisis.

This study addresses HRM processes in Jordanian SMEs and focuses specifically on four major HR practices: recruitment and selection (R&S), organizational integration and socialization (OI&S), training and development (T&D), and performance appraisal system (PAS). This is intended to shed light on a topic that has been considerably neglected by researchers and practitioners in Jordan and requiring urgent attention. The thesis responds to a recurrent claim in the HRM literature in Arab countries in general and Jordan in particular, which is the organizations’ *“need to devote more attention to their HRM practices”* (Aladwan, et al., 2014, p. 126). Given the circumstances following the influx of Syrian refugees, and the need to integrate those migrants in the labour market,

organizations and HRM are urged to (re)design HR practices that apply to both Jordanian and Syrian refugees.

1.6 Thesis Structure

This thesis comprises six chapters organized as follows:

Chapter One: Introduction. This chapter presents an overview of the background and relevance of the study, the research objectives and questions, the research methodology and scope and contributions to knowledge and practice.

Chapter Two: Literature Review. This chapter critically reviews seminal and more recent studies on the chosen research topics. The concept and historical development of HRM is firstly presented. It analyses literature on the link between HRM practices and organizational performance, and the main strategic HRM approaches. HRM in the Arab countries in general and in Jordan, in particular, is examined, with a special focus in one of the most important factors affecting HRM in those countries: Wasta. Diversity management and its impact on HRM practices and organizational performance are briefly reviewed. Furthermore, this chapter reviewed SMEs' most important characteristics compared to large organizations, in addition to discussing the impact of diversity in terms of homogeneous and heterogonous in the workforce. The final sections are devoted to the four HRM practices examined in this study: recruitment and selection, organizational integration and socialization, training and development, and performance appraisal systems, with a look at the specificities of those practices in Jordanian SMEs, especially under exceptional circumstances.

Chapter Three: Contextual Background of the Study. This chapter presents a wide discussion of the Jordanian context in which this research has been carried out. It highlights the scarcity of empirical studies in the HRM field in the Arab countries in general and in Jordan in particular. Consequently, this chapter focuses on HRM in Jordan and illustrates the background of this country concerning the geographical, social and economic status. It also introduces the Jordanian experience with the multiple asylum waves, investigating the challenges that Jordanian labour markets face due to the influx of Syrian refugees, and the way this affects the labour market structure. This chapter

shows how the humanitarian crisis strongly affects the recipient's markets, as well as the demand and supply of employees for different jobs, specifically on the high technical skills' jobs.

Chapter Four: Methodology. This chapter discusses the research approach used and the reasons underlying methodological choices. It also presents the method of data collection, the sampling process, validity and reliability of the questionnaire, and the data analysis procedures.

Chapter Five: Results Presentation and Discussion. This chapter presents data along with the main findings of the research. The chapter describes the demographic characteristics of the sample, and the main empirical results regarding each HR practice. The study findings are interpreted and discussed in light of extant literature.

Chapter Six: Conclusions, Limitations, and Suggestions for Future Research. This chapter presents the major conclusions drawn from the results of the study. The chapter discusses the limitations of the study and ends with the presentation of avenues for future research.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Human Resources Management (HRM) is considered a complex and rapidly changing field both in practice and academia (Nankervis, Compton, Baird and Coffey, 2011). Due to external influence of the economic, legislative, demographic, social changes and political factors (Zehir, Üzmez and Yıldız, 2016) the strategic human resources management (SHRM) approach has been emerging as an effective system in identifying the principles, philosophies, practices and contributions of people to organizational effectiveness (Chen and Huang, 2009; Rotich, 2015). SHRM initiatives, such as mergers and acquisitions, talent management, ethical considerations regarding diversity and inclusion, etc. can help to explain the sustained evolutionary nature of human resource management as a contemporary issue (Nankervis *et al.*, 2011).

Globalization and increasing diversity in the labour force have attracted the attention of many researchers and prompted various studies on the impact of workforce diversity on organizational performance (Van Knippenberg and Schippers, 2007; Ravazzani, 2016). They argued that diversity per se does not lead to direct financial performance but adopting specific (HRM) practices could help organizations to cope with diversity aspects. If employees work as a team, doing their tasks with a high investment of their abilities and skills it will increase in group-level outcomes and enhance innovation outcomes and improve organizational performance (Dwyer, Richard and Chadwick, 2003; Scott, Heathcote and Gruman, 2011; Lertxundi, Barrutia and Landeta, 2019).

In this regard, a large amount of academic research emphasized that a set of well-defined, clear, consistent, distinct, flexible and consensual HRM systems (policies and practices) play a significant role in achieving organizational performance (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004). Such systems require improving the employees' skills, competence, knowledge and commitment, so as to achieve loyalty, satisfaction and productivity. The management bolsters and rewards employees as a motivating process to adopt anticipated behaviours and attitudes in order to achieve the organization's strategic goals (MacDuffie, 1995; Saridakis, Lai and Cooper, 2016; Vardarlier, 2016; Zehir *et al.*, 2016).

This chapter aims to review existing literature on human resources management approaches and their impact on organizational performance. Therefore, it highlights the major developments in the field of HRM both in the developed world and developing countries. The influx of refugees and migrants to neighbouring countries, escaping the humanitarian crises caused by political, economic and social instability in many countries, poses several challenges to organizations, managers and employees. The diversity brought about by the arrival of Syrian refugees to Jordan defies HR managers and existing HRM policies and practices. The state of the art regarding some core HRM practices will be addressed in order to get a picture of extant knowledge in general HRM research. Specific aspects of HRM in Jordan will be covered to help to unveil the idiosyncrasies of HRM practices in use regarding local/Jordanian and Syrian employees.

The chapter comprises of various sections and is organized as follows. The first section introduces the chapter. The second contains a brief overview of the meaning and historical roots and evolution of the HRM. The third section investigates the relationship between HRM and organizational performance. The fourth section discusses the strategic HRM approaches. The fifth section addresses the context-specific nature of HRM by analyzing HRM in the Middle East specifically the Arab countries region. The sixth section discusses HRM and diversity management issues. The four remaining sections are dedicated to the HRM practices that are the main focus of the empirical study: recruitment and selection, organizational social and integration, training and development and performance appraisal system.

2.2 HRM Concept: Meaning, Historical Roots and Evolution

The following subsections address the concept and definitions that have been used to explain the meaning of human resources management and some important milestones regarding its evolution. The different stages of HRM development are presented, and the differences between personnel management (PM) and HRM are highlighted.

2.2.1 HRM Meaning

The concept of human resources management (HRM) has been addressed by many scholars over the last decades, resulting in dozens of definitions ranging from short and simple to comprehensive and in-depth definitions (Kaufman, 2014; Al-Serhan, 2019; Zehir, Karaboğa and Başar, 2020). Al-Serhan (2019, p. 615) defined human resources as *'the people that an organization employs to carry out various jobs, tasks and functions in exchange for wages and other rewards'*. According to Amit and Schoemaker (1993, p. 36), the concept of HRM system (policies and practices) entails the main strategic asset of the organization. They defined it as *'the set of difficult to trade and imitate, scarce, appropriable, and specialized resources and capabilities that bestow the firm's competitive advantage'*. In the same vein, Armstrong (2006, p. 1) views HRM as *'people as the most valuable asset of the organization that should be strategically managed in order to contribute to the achievement of key organization objectives'*. This is consistent with Haslinda (2009, p. 180) definition that HRM is *'a process of managing human talents to achieve organization's objective'*. Nankervis et al. (2011, p. 12) argued that HRM is *'a set of broad strategic 'choices' in response to the demands of organizational characteristics (e.g. stakeholders, business strategy and conditions, management philosophy, technology) within the context of the external labor market and social, economic and political conditions'*. In the same line of reasoning, Armstrong and Taylor (2014, p. 5) define HRM as *'a strategic, integrated and coherent approach to the employment, development, and well-being of the people working in organizations'*. Croonen, Grünhagen and Wollan, (2016, p. 699) went further to define HRM as *'a set of policies and practices directed at attracting, developing and maintaining a firm's human resources and these policies and practices are generally included in the following domains: job analysis and design, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance management, pay structures, and incentives and benefits, and labor and employee relations'*. A recent definition provided by Collings, Wood and Szamosi (2018) argues that HRM is *'all aspects of managing people in organizations and the ways in which organizations respond to the actions of employees, either individually or collectively'*.

Based on the previous definitions, scholars seem to perceive human resources as a strategic organizational asset, possessing knowledge, skills, capabilities and ambition (Nankervis *et al.*, 2011). In this regard, Armstrong and Taylor (2014) emphasized the need for inclusive and integrated management strategies in order to manage HR assets effectively and ensure individual and collective contributions in achieving organizational goals. Such strategies imply an articulation of HR practices, such as job design, HR planning, effective attraction and retention techniques, performance management, reward programs, health and safety systems, and many other HR strategies (Rotich, 2015).

2.2.2 Human Resources Management Concept, Historical Roots and Evolution

2.2.2.1 First Stage: from 1500 BC – 1800s

Based on previous studies, the first HRM activities can be traced back to 1500 BC, which represent the primitive human communication practices (Sims, 2002; Kaufman, 2015). In prehistoric times, some activities were recorded as basic principles of HRM practices, such as selecting tribal leaders, in addition to safety and health procedures during hunting and gathering food activities (Rotich, 2015). From 2000 to 1500 BC, the Chinese were known as the first who used employees screening techniques, while the Greeks started to use the primitive apprentice-style (Sims, 2002). In the early period of the 1800s, England began to deal with the craftsmen and advanced apprenticeship systems, which have highlighted the importance of selecting the right individuals and training them for specific jobs (Kaufman, 2015).

2.2.2.2 Second Stage: from the 1900s – 1940s

This second period represents the welfare stage. With the advent of the industrial revolution in the late 1800s and the beginning of the 20th century, along with technological innovation and evolution, organizations' growth, unions' emergence,

increased government interventions and improved production systems (Rotich, 2015), the personnel departments began to emerge. During the 1920s, personnel administrators, supervisors and line managers were responsible for personnel functions that were limited to specific administrative areas, such as hiring and placement of skilled employees, wage/salary records, disciplinary procedures and employees' welfare activities (Sims, 2002; Rotich, 2015; Siddapur, 2016).

This stage started in the United States and the United Kingdom with the emergence of the so-called 'Classical School' or 'Scientific Management Approach' founded by Frederick Taylor in 1911. The new management style reflects the extent to which job attitudes, work processes and organizational structures have been changed (Goud, 2016). Hence, the emphasis was on the job itself through an efficient adaptation of workers to and within the workplace (Kaufman, 2001; Haslinda, 2009). The adoption of the scientific management style accompanied by industrial psychology aspects became widely present in the new industries (Rotich, 2015).

Hence, as a reaction to the scientific management approach, the management theories were influenced by the emerging fields of psychological and sociological research (Rotich, 2015). Humanitarian, Cooperative and Marxist theories, for example, developed in the early 1900s as a response to factory workers' protests against degrading treatment to which they were subjected. It alerted to the possible conflicts between employees and employers' interests in the modern industries, which led to the establishment of trade unions and industrial relations systems that aimed to address issues related to pay and work conditions (Nankervis *et al.*, 2011; Kaufman, 2015).

In the period between 1927- 1932, the behavioural schools or industrial psychology theories which are labelled under Elton Mayo's Hawthorne Studies derived from a series of practical tests, developed in the workplace that emphasized the importance of human motivations and psychological needs of employees (Goud, 2016). These tests had shed light on workers themselves and how to satisfy their needs in order to increase organizational productivity (Nankervis *et al.*, 2011). In addition, many theoretical approaches emerged during this stage, namely: contingency, universalistic,

total quality management (TQM), and systems theorists. These approaches have applied different ideas to many industries, economic and social contexts, trying to combine employees and organizations' interests (Nankervis *et al.*, 2011; Kaufman, 2015; Rotich, 2015).

2.2.2.3 Third Stage: from the 1940s - mid-1970s

The third stage covers the period between the 1940s until the mid-1970s, and it was labelled as the administration stage (Rotich, 2015). By the end of World War II in 1945, the soldiers returned to their homes with almost no work skills, which forced employers in collaboration with government initiatives to pay more attention to personnel functions and increase the support of welfare issues, in order to attract and maintain employees (Kaufman, 2015). For this purpose, training programs were offered to provide employees with the necessary skills to assure their continued productivity (Rotich, 2015). During this stage, the term Personnel Management (PM) emerged, along with the emergence of personnel specialists (Haslinda, 2009). Personnel management refers to '*a set of functions and activities e.g. recruitment, selection, training, salary administration and industrial relations in managing employees*' (Rotich, 2015, p. 59). Accordingly, many organizations started to hold some activities away from line managers, such as recruitment, training and welfare functions and began assigning them to new specialists labelled as personnel officers, who matched the right personal skills and experience with the jobs' requirements (Sims, 2002).

Despite the increased number of personnel specialists, a lot of managerial functions were still performed separately regardless of their impact on the organizational overall effectiveness, which made the term PM vulnerable to many criticisms, due to the ambiguity of its role and purposes (Haslinda, 2009). Rotich (2015) argued that PM functions suffered from a lack of clear professional philosophy, showing a high response to unions' trade demands with little attention to organizations' circumstances. In other words, PM failed to outline a systematic approach to managing employees aligned with

organization goals until the late 1970s. Consequently, the term Human Resources Management (HRM) started gradually to replace the PM term (Haslinda, 2009). This stage is characterized by the establishment of business schools with personnel management strands, specifically in some universities in the UK, USA, and Australia (Rotich, 2015).

2.2.2.3.1 The Main Differences between HRM and PM

It is important to present an overview of how HRM definition has evolved and moved from a PM definition to a deeper and more inclusive concept. Table 2.1 shows the main differences between HRM and its ancestor PM.

Table 2.1: The Main Differences between HRM and PM

Different Aspects	Personnel Management	Human Resource Management
Time and planning perspective	Short term, reactive, ad hoc, marginal	Long term, proactive, strategic, integrated
Psychological contract	Compliance	Commitment
Employee relations perspective	Pluralist, collective, low trust	Unitarist, individual, high trust
Preferred structure/system	Bureaucratic/mechanistic, centralized, formal/defined roles	Organic, devolved, flexible roles
Roles	Specialized/ professional	Largely integrated into line management
Evaluation	Cost minimization	Maximum utilization (human asset accounting)

Source: Adapted from (Rotich, 2015, p. 64)

According to Kaufman (2015), the shift between PM to HRM is a result of the continued development in the management field and its evolutionary nature (Table 2.1). Therefore, the new term (HRM) would seem more suitable to embody new ideas, concepts, and philosophies of human capital management. It includes many disciplines, such as talent assessment management, leadership, teamwork, commitment, training, empathy, psychology, trust, social responsibility, socialization, citizenship, rewarding and motivating (Vardarlier, 2016), whereas personnel management did not deal with such HRM aspects (Armstrong and Taylor, 2014). In this regard, many scholars stated that this transition signalled new rhetoric and created a significant new thinking approach from the managers' side. They argued that managing employees according to PM principles is no longer feasible in light of the development of the current business world Croonen et al., 2016; Vardarlier, 2016).

Nevertheless, other scholars argued that there are no clear differences between PM and HRM terms (Collings and Wood, 2009; Croonen et al., 2016). They described it as pouring '*old wine in a new bottle*' with a different label (Haslinda, 2009, p. 182). They emphasized that both terms are concerned with the purposes of organizing and motivating human resources in the organizations (Beer and Walton, 1987). However, there is still an ongoing discussion on the meaning and practices of HRM versus PM (Kaufman, 2001).

2.2.2.4 Fourth Stage: from the mid-1970s – late 1990s

This stage reflects the transition from the personnel practices to strategic HRM functions, which focused on overall organizational effectiveness (Chen and Huang, 2009; Nankervis *et al.*, 2011; Kaufman, 2015). It represents the integration between industrial relations, personnel management, and HRM through a consistent and strategic approach to the management of people, labelled as Strategic Human Resource Management SHRM (Nasir, 2017).

Wright and McMahan (1992, p. 298) refer to 'SHRM' as '*the pattern of planned human resource deployments and activities intended to enable the firm to achieve its goals*'. This is compatible with the Marler and Fisher (2013, p. 23) definition of SHRM '*an*

interdependent bundle of planned or emergent human resource activities that are intended to achieve positive organizational outcomes’. Whereas Armstrong and Taylor (2014, p. 16) defined SHRM as *‘an approach to the development and implementation of HR strategies that are integrated with business strategies and support their achievement’*.

Building on the above definitions, it seems that SHRM plays a crucial role in aligning HRM practices with organizational goals through outlines on how to perform the tasks in order to achieve organizational effectiveness (Rotich, 2015). SHRM tend to be perceived as a macro perspective of strategies and policies, whereas HRM represents the micro approach of activities, functions, practices, and processes (Lepak and Shaw, 2008; Armstrong and Taylor, 2014). Based on the SHRM perspective, managers have the flexibility to manage organizations and control through developed HR strategies, introduce new individualized pay arrangements, establish the formal performance appraisal systems and identify competency frameworks (Nankervis *et al.*, 2011).

2.2.2.5 Fifth Stage: beyond the 2000s

According to Nankervis *et al.* (2011), it is very hard to predict how the nature of HRM will evolve in the future. The authors emphasized that there are strong signs that HRM field in theory and practice is highly influenced by many significant factors such as globalization, corporate governance, business ethics and life-work balance (Vardarlier, 2016; Nasir, 2017). In addition, it is worth pinpointing the main changes in demographics and workforce features, as well as rapid changes in political, economic and social contexts coupled with significant adjustments in industrial relations systems and processes (Goud, 2016; Nasir, 2017).

Furthermore, it is important to point out the huge development in communications and information technology field, which results in fundamental changes in the nature of jobs and growth of multilateral and bilateral free trade agreements (Kaufman, 2015). All these factors impose pressure on HR managers, which are expected to be not only reactive but also more proactive regarding critical issues, through the

adoption of distinct HRM strategies aligned with organizational culture norms in order to achieve organizational goals (Lepak and Shaw, 2008; Nankervis et al., 2011; Rotich, 2015).

Similarly, Nasir (2017) stressed that HRM functions in this stage exceed the traditional services, becoming a cornerstone in decision-making policy. According to Collings, et al. (2018, p.2) HRM becomes *'not just about the choice and implementation of particular policies and practices toward the management of people, but also the adoption of a dynamic and adaptive (as adverse to purely administrative) purpose in line with wider organizational strategic choices'*. The new HRM strategies force the organization to operate within a global critical market, the market for talents (McDonnell, 2011; Nasir, 2017), through the effective utilization of employees' knowledge, skills and expertise. HRM practitioners need to show a deep understanding of their organizations' business environment through identifying the challenges and opportunities and determine the procedures in which HR programs assist human skills and capabilities to compete effectively, thus, scoring high organizational performance (Davidson, McPhail and Barry, 2011; Rotich, 2015; Goud, 2016).

Consequently, there is an increased recognition that HR role is becoming a key element in the organizational efficiency and effectiveness and its ability to help the organization reach the competitive advantage over competitors in the complex and highly uncertain marketplace (Vardarli, 2016; Nasir, 2017).

As argued above, the HRM field today is experiencing a lot of challenges such as globalization, massive technology changes, increased diversity in the workforce and marketing, and the emergence of different management styles. Altogether, these factors form pressure forces as primary drivers of change in the business world in the 21st century (Stone and Deadrick, 2015; Nasir, 2017). These challenges oblige HR managers and practitioners to take the necessary practical steps and modify their organizational management strategies to remain within the fierce competition in the business world today, to achieve organizational performance (Stone and Deadrick, 2015).

To that end, HRM practitioners should be aware of the external and internal environment challenges and be able to derive the opportunities of any possible chances

to achieve high performance and thus accomplish organizational performance, which will be discussed in detail in the next section (Sims, 2002; Lepak and Shaw, 2008; Weber, Otto and Österle, 2009).

2.3 HRM and Organizational Performance (HRM-P) Link

The following subsections present the meaning and definitions of the organizational performance concept, its measurement, and linkages with HRM, both in theory and in practical terms.

2.3.1 Organizational Performance (OP) Meaning

Organizational performance (OP) plays an increasingly important role in the conduct of employees' activities, but it is still loosely defined within literature and needs a more precise determination of how it should be assessed (Landy, Zedeck and Cleveland, 2017).

Murphy, Trailer and Hill (1996) argued that using the generic term of OP is quite ambiguous. Ho (2008, p. 1238) defines OP as *'an indicator which measures how well an enterprise achieves their objectives'*. In this regard, Griffin (2003) highlighted that OP must reflect the organization's ability to achieve its stakeholders' interests and keep surviving in the market. According to Ha, Lo and Wang (2016, p. 185) OP can be defined as *'the outcome of the actions or activities carried out by the members of the organization to measure how well an organization has accomplished its objectives'*. Whereas Oyemomi, Liu, Neaga, Chen and Nakpodia (2019, p. 5) defined OP as *'the ability of an organization to achieve set objectives of retaining profits, having a competitive edge, increasing market share, and maintaining long-term survival depends on using applicable organizational strategies and action plans'*. Recently, Abubakar, Elrehail, Alatailat and Elçi, (2019, p. 104) stated that OP *'in its simplistic state is the realization of organizational objectives'*.

2.3.2 Organizational Performance (OP) Measurement

Dyer and Reeves (1995) and Ferris, Arthur, Berkson, Kaplan, Harrell-Cook, and Frink (1998) argued that the OP could be measured on the basis of various norms and outcomes, including human resources outcomes (e.g., absence, turnover, job satisfaction), organization outcomes (e.g., productivity, quality, service), financial accounting outcomes (e.g., return on assets, profitability), and capital market outcomes (e.g., stock price, growth, returns). Ferris *et al.* (1998) pointed out that the relationship between HRM systems and the OP highly depends on how these effectiveness outcomes will be measured in the organization's performance assessment process, also, the attempt to determine how the HRM system is perceived and conceptualized is playing a significant role in determining the relationship between HRM system and organizational effectiveness.

In this regard, Murphy et al., (1996); Gomes, Yasin and Lisboa (2004) argued that the OP has been predominantly measured based on financial performance, as a traditional performance measurement criterion, and little attention was paid to other non-financial outcomes. Accordingly, Rogers and Wright (1998) and Ha et al. (2016) stressed that, although the financial criteria is still the main objective of all organizations' processes, measuring performance based only on this indicator is not enough to assess competencies that modern organizations are looking for. In this regard, Venkatraman and Ramanujam (1986) emphasized that depending on the financial outcome, an OP indicator will reflect only the achievement of the economic goals of the organization. Therefore, the authors suggested a wider performance construct '*business performance*' (p. 802), which comprises both financial and operational indicators, such as new products, product quality and market share.

2.3.3 The Relationship between HRM and OP

According to some scholars, the OP should be perceived as a multidimensional structure based on a complete and balanced assessment process of organization performance, including all different performance measurements (Tangen, 2003; Richard,

Devinney, Yip and Johnson, 2009). This is consistent with Jyoti and Sharma (2012) argument that the OP should be viewed as an entire integration process consisting of managers, employees, customers, partners, stakeholders and management operations. Furthermore, Crabtree and DeBusk (2008) argued that non-financial performance measures are playing a significant role in indirectly achieving financial performance by measuring organizational intangible benefits. These include innovation ability, internal business process efficiency and satisfaction of both employees and customers (Kaplan and Norton, 2001).

Accordingly, Guest (1997) suggested a broader framework linking HRM and OP, based on the assumption that high performance is better accomplished through the individuals in the organization. Table 2.2 summarizes a model that demonstrates the linkages that might be explored in this regard. The author emphasized that *‘the main value in the present context lies in highlighting the range of related outcomes that need to be considered in any model that seeks to understand the impact of the ‘human’ factor in human resource management’* (Guest, 1997, p. 269).

Through this model, Guest (1997) stressed the importance of the role of the external context through well designed HRM practices to lead to the desired HRM outcomes such as having a high-quality staff with the necessary knowledge, skills and capabilities. High employee commitment could be assessed using standard measures based on the employees’ desire to remain at the organization and how they exploit their skills and capabilities to perform their tasks.

Table 2.2: HRM and Performance Link

HRM Strategy	HRM Practices	HRM Outcomes	Behaviour Outcomes	Performance Outcomes	Financial Outcomes
Differentiation	Selection	Commitment	Effort and Motivation	High: Productivity	

(Innovation)	Training		Cooperation	Quality Innovation	Profit
Focus (Quality)	Appraisal	Quality	Involvement	Low: absence Labor Turnover Conflict Customer complaints	ROI
	Rewards				
	Job Design				
Cost (Cost Reduction)	Involvement	Flexibility	Organizational Citizenship		
	Status and Security				

Source: Guest (1997, p. 270)

However, Guest and Hoque (1994) concluded that the main source of competitive advantage is shown clearly in the human assets themselves, who benefit from high knowledge, skills and abilities, and not related to HR practices used. Wright, McMahan and McWilliams (1994) explained that any of HR practices could be easily emulated by competitors, but employees' abilities, skills, and knowledge are very hard to be copied, and that is what distinguishes one organization from another (Guest and Hoque, 1994).

Many scholars contested Guest and Hoque's (1994) argument and stressed that human resource and HR practices cannot be dismantled and deal with them as two separate parties (Saridakis et al., 2016). HR practices and human resources should be viewed as one unit complementing each other to reach a high OP (Becker and Gerhart, 1996). Human resources are an exceptional and unique resource and a key element leading to organizational success. Thus, it is important to adopt advanced, well defined and integrated HR practices and policies, such as recruiting and selecting high-ability employees with distinctive talents, provide them with the necessary training programs for helping the organization achieve its desired goals. In this regard, this strategy does help the organization reaching out the competitive advantage (Kaufman, 2015; Sánchez, Marín and Morales, 2015; Saridakis et al., 2016).

By the same token, Becker and Gerhart (1996) and Colbert (2004) stressed that the traditional sources of competitive advantage such as technology, natural resources and economies of scale are relatively easy to imitate by competitors when compared with a complex structure such as HRM system. Furthermore, Ait Razouk (2011) stated that an effective HRM system is very hard to imitate because of time, money and management expertise constraints. Employees form a significant value to the organization if their behaviours, skills, and knowledge are translated into positive attitudes, such as commitment, innovation and job satisfaction (Sánchez, et al., 2015). Furthermore, Bowen and Ostroff (2004) stressed that the HRM system is the main responsible factor for building employees' knowledge, enhancing their skills and promoting desirable behaviours and attitudes. Huselid (1995) and Ozolina-Ozola (2014) emphasized that adopting advanced HRM practices related to rigorous recruitment and selection procedures, incentive compensation and extensive employee training and development programs will result in desirable outcomes. Specifically, lower turnover rates increased employee's commitment and retention, creativity and innovation, high productivity, sales and profits, in addition to employees' and customers' satisfaction (Obisi, 2011). Ultimately, this is of crucial importance to affect positively the financial OP (Arthur, 1994; Dyer and Reeves, 1995; Guest, 1997).

Despite previous researches showing a positive relationship between HRM and financial OP, they have been exposed to many criticisms Ha, et al. (2016). For example, Ferligoj, Prašnikar and Jordan (1997) argued that these studies try to draw a straightforward causal relationship between the two variables, and this cannot be acceptable, since many intervening variables could influence the OP, namely organization's size, industry, company's age, location and strategy. Many authors argued that most of these studies have failed to explain the exact nature of the relationship between the two variables (Dyer and Reeves, 1995; Guest, 1997; Jyoti and Sharma, 2012; Zehir *et al.*, 2016). In this regard, Storey (1992) concluded from his research that there is no direct relation between HR practices and the financial performance in the mainstream UK business.

In this regard, many scholars emphasized that research on the link between HRM and OP is characterized by insufficient methodological rigour in the analysis, which limits inferences about the direction of causality (Guest *et al.*, 2003; Boselie, Dietz and Boon, 2005; Combs, Liu, Hall and Ketchen, 2006; Saridakis *et al.*, 2016). Specifically, some authors argue that the HRM-P link research suffers from serious problems due to under-theorized aspects and lack of explanatory power limitations (Wright and McMahan, 1992). This problem has its roots in the scientific approach, which focuses on empirical research (Whetten, 1989; Fleetwood and Hesketh, 2006).

Murphy and Zandvakili (2000) emphasized that the problem lies at the level of the philosophy of science, especially epistemology, methodology and causality. However, most studies on HRM-P link disregard such philosophical issues (Fleetwood and Hesketh, 2006). Ferris *et al.* (1998) argued that many theories are emphasizing the relationship between HRM and OP without explaining how this relationship is working. Fleetwood and Hesketh (2006) stressed that these theories and approaches should underline the current problematic status of the theoretical base of the HRM-P link. The continuous dominance of the scientific approach that bridge the HRM-P is likely to ensure that any potential theory will end up as no more than a vehicle for bringing predictions and hypotheses, but the explanations will still be difficult to hold (Ferris *et al.*, 1998; Murphy and Zandvakili, 2000). In this regard, Fleetwood and Hesketh (2006) argued that a radical re-think of the underneath philosophy is highly needed in this domain.

Accordingly, Wright and McMahan (1992) explained that the theory is considered crucial to show the interactions and relations among the joints of HRM. The lack of such theories will make it lost and out of control. Also, the authors reported that there is a shortage of HRM theories that connect HRM practices with the organization performance. In this regard, Guest (1997, p. 263) assert the need for '*a theory about HRM, a theory about performance and a theory about how they are linked*'.

Many years later, Saridakis *et al.* (2016) in their meta-analysis of studies on the relationship between HRM and OP argued that despite prolific research asserting the positive relationship between the two variables, there is a shortage of longitudinal

researches exploring the HRM-OP link. The authors explain that most of these researches have used terms such as 'affect' and 'impact' in its results which means an association rather than a causal relationship between the two variables. Despite the informative feature that longitudinal studies could provide about the type of relationship between HRM and OP, they may entail some limitations (Saridakis et al. 2016). Longitudinal studies are difficult to conduct due to its complex nature, time and money resources, in addition to poor follow-up response rates between two periods of time of data collection. Given the shortage of researches investigating the HRM-OP relationship through the longitudinal studies, in addition to the limitations related to non-experimental research designs, the causality link between HRM practices and OP still represents a challenge. (Ferris *et al.*, 1998; Murphy and Zandvakili, 2000; Wright and McMahan; Saridakis et al. 2016)

2.3.4 HRM-OP Relationship: Content and Process Approaches

Despite the above illustrations, the main question remains: How does the HRM system affect OP practically? Most of the researches conducted in this area have focused on the content approach of HRM to answer this question, but little attention has been paid to the process-based approach of HRM (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004; Fleetwood and Hesketh, 2006; Gould-Williams and Mohamed, 2010). To identify the differences between content and process-based approaches of HRM, Wright and Nishii (2007) distinguished three types of HR practices under the term '*causal chain of HR practices*' (p.8). First, the intended HR practices, which are designed on a strategic level. Second, the actual or applied HR practices, i.e. those implemented by the direct supervisor. Third, the way HR practices are perceived and valued by the employees. As said before, a wide range of prior researches on HRM-P link paid substantial attention to intended (content) HR practices, but little is known about the other two types of applied and perceived (process) HR practices (Paauwe and Boselie, 2005).

Regarding the perceived HR practices, Kristof (1996) described the fit between employees' perceptions of HR practices and its consistency with the organizational

objectives as Person-Organization fit (P-O fit). Vandenberg, Richardson and Eastman (1999) asserted the importance of the relationship between employee's perception of HRM practices and their impact on OP. The organization may have plenty of written strategies and policies related to HRM, but it will remain meaningless until the employees perceive it as related to their organizational well-being (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004). Based on P-O fit link, Wright and Boswell (2002) distinguished between HRM policies and HRM practices, where HRM policies refer to the organizations declared intentions and purposes (content) concerning its different employee management activities, whereas HRM practices are perceived as the real, operative, and applied (process) activities experienced by employees.

Building on the above considerations, the questions about the feasibility of content of HRM practices and its ability to explain the relationship between HRM and OP began to arise in an intensified manner between scholars (Park, Mitsuhashi, Fey and Björkman, 2003; Macky and Boxall, 2007; Wright and Nishii, 2007). Thus, the attention turned from HRM content as a one-sided approach toward the HRM process perspective (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004; Gould-Williams and Mohamed, 2010).

In this regard, Ostroff and Bowen (1992) and Bowen and Ostroff (2004) proposed a shift from HRM content-approach to HRM process-approach. They argued that employees' response to HRM practices is highly dependent on how they perceive the meaning of HRM policies and practices. The authors claimed that if employees perceive HRM practices as being distinctive (the event-effect is highly observable), consistent (the event-effect presents itself the same across modalities and time), and consensual (there is agreement among individual views of the event-effect relationship), they will get a better understanding of what attitudes and behaviours that management bolsters and rewards for (Schneider, Brief and Guzzo, 2003; Sanders, Shipton and Gomes, 2014). In this regard, Ferris et al. (1998) emphasized that the employees' attitudes and the organizational environment are highly affected by the harmonization of HRM systems and the employees' perspectives.

Additionally, Bowen and Ostroff (2004) stated that if all employees perceive that HRM practices are related to their own goals and align with their organizational well-being, then a strong and positive organizational climate will emerge and lead to higher OP. The organizational climate is defined as *“a shared perception of what the organization is like in terms of practices, policies, and procedures, routines and rewards, what is important and what behaviors are expected and rewarded”* (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004, p. 205).

This is consistent with Nishii, Lepak and Schneider (2008) argument that employees' perceptions of HRM practices affect OP through the development of the term *'HR attribution'* (p.6). The authors claimed that HRM practices attributions are highly associated with perceptions of the organization–employee-oriented philosophy, either if they perceive it positively as enabling employees well-being, or negatively as exploitative and dismissive of their needs, thus, affecting OP.

According to Kinnie, Hutchinson, Purcell, Rayton and Swart (2005), employees' perceptions of HRM practices play an essential role in determining to what extent they are ready to exploit and adapt their work-related skills, abilities, attitudes, and behaviors within the organization and contribute to the achievement of organizational goals (Guest, 1999; Ramsay, Scholarios and Harley, 2000).

By the same token, Bowen and Ostroff (2004) stressed that an efficient HRM system with high distinctiveness, consistency and consensus characteristics means the ability to enhance the OP through collective responses such as cognitive maps or causal maps that are consistent with the organizational strategic goals. Such an efficient HRM system may unify employees' perceptions of HR practices content, thus creating similar viewpoints which may reflect a significant relationship between employee's attitudes and anticipated desirable behaviours from the management board (Parker *et al.*, 2003; Biswas and Varma, 2007).

A positive psychological climate will result in improved employees' outcomes such as high commitment, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviour, employee motivation, fewer turnover rates, increased sales, high trust level between employees

and management, which ultimately improve the OP (Huselid, 1995; Rogg, Schmidt, Shull and Schmitt, 2001; Harter, Schmidt and Hayes, 2002).

On the other hand, if the HRM system is weak, characterized by low distinctiveness, consistency, and consensus, the HRM practices will be under employees' explanation and their interpretation (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004). If the messages sent by the HRM system are conflicting, inconsistent and ambiguous, they will cause disappointment among employees and lead to undesirable attitudes such as involvement in the negative collectives (Mischel, 1973). These may also fuel the emergence of some negative behaviours such as organizational cynicism, which seems to be an increasingly problematic phenomenon that is characterized by perceptions of selfishness, lack of commitment, loyalty and organizational citizenship (Ferris *et al.*, 1998). Such undesirable reactions will collide with the organization's objectives and lead to low effectiveness and poor productivity (Drazin, Glynn and Kazanjian, 1999). In this regard, Ferris *et al.* (1998, p. 245) argued that *'It seems that if HRM systems are not implemented effectively due to errors of omission, if they are implemented politically reflecting self-serving managerial and organizational interests, or if they are intended to be merely "window dressing," giving the appearance of doing the right thing with no intended substantive impact, then we should expect unfavorable employee attitudes'*.

Moreover, Chavez and Weisinger (2008) stated that HR practices failure or success depends on how employees receive and perceive these practices. When employees perceive HRM practices as distinctive, consistent and consensual, they will reciprocate with positive attitudes, resulting in superior performance (Ostroff and Bowen, 1992; Becker and Huselid, 1998; Bowen and Ostroff, 2004).

To achieve high OP, many human resources management approaches have been addressed extensively by several researchers (supporters and opponents), and this will be the subject of discussion in the next section.

2.4 Strategic Human Resources Management Approaches

In today's business world, it is imperative that organizations develop an HRM system (policies and practices) that will enable them to attract, motivate and retain competent employees who will, in turn, contribute to the successful achievement of organizational objectives (Altarawneh, 2005; Chen and Huang, 2009; Zehir, Gurol, Karaboga and Kole, 2016).

Accordingly, there is an abundance of approaches linking SHRM and OP, and therefore the need to analyze the various interpretations that researchers draw from different perspectives in this area (Arthur, 1994; Bowen and Ostroff, 2004; Chen and Huang, 2009). In this regard, Guest (1997) assert that SHRM policies and practices in itself wouldn't work alone unless they are integrated with the other plans and strategies of the organization to support each other, and assure that the right person is in the right place.

Martín-Alcázar, Romero-Fernandez and Sánchez-Gardey (2005) conducted a deep and systematic revision to analyze the current state-of-the-art in the field of SHRM research. They classified the literature that investigates the SHRM-P relationship into four comprehensive approaches: universalistic, contingent, configurational, and contextual (Delery and Doty, 1996; Lepak and Shaw, 2008; Samnani and Singh, 2013). Each of these approaches focused on a specific dimension of the reality of SHRM, and together, they *'show a spectrum that encompasses all possible'* views in this regard (Martín-Alcázar, et al., 2005, p. 634).

2.4.1. The Universalistic (or Best Practice) Approach

In the universalistic approach, Pfeffer (1994) argued that there is a strong and a linear relationship between the way the organizations manage their employees and the organizational financial performance - 'the economic results' - achieved (Delery and Doty, 1996). According to the empirical studies conducted by Pfeffer and Veiga (1999), 40% of substantial gains could be achieved by implementing specific HRM practices. The authors emphasized that these practices could be generalized and universally applied to all organizations regardless of their contexts, thus improving OP (Becker and Gerhart, 1996).

Pfeffer (1998) identified seven HR practices for the organizations' success. They were reduced from his previous work conducted in 1994 that consisted of a list of sixteen HR practices by combining several of them, as well as drawing upon the results of other studies. Those HR practices are employment security, selective hiring, self-managed teams, high compensation contingent on OP, extensive training, reduction of status differences and finally sharing information (Pfeffer, 1993, 1994, 1998; Osterman, 1994; Becker and Gerhart, 1996; Martín-Alcázar, et al., 2005; Del Valle and Castillo, 2009; Croonen et al., 2016).

The proponents of the universalistic perspective emphasized that these specific innovative HR practices have been recording a positive impact on OP, which proved their superiority over other practices, thus encouraging other organizations to adopt them to maintain or increase their performance (Giauque, Anderfuhren-Biget and Varone, 2013). According to Osterman (1994) and Pfeffer (1994), the HR practices in the universalistic approach have been largely standardized and formalized. For example, adopting specific practices during the recruitment and selection of new employees, such as a checklist, prescribed orientation or routinized manual could be repeated throughout all the organization's units (Dewar and Werbel, 1979; Terpstra and Rozell, 1993; Huselid, 1995; Delery and Doty, 1996; Grünhagen, Wollan, Dada and Watson, 2014; Croonen et al., 2016).

These universalistic principles have been labelled as High-Performance Work Practices 'HPWPs' or 'Best Practice'. These refer to *'a group of separate but interconnected human resource (HR) practices designed to enhance employees' skills and efforts'* (Takeuchi, Lepak, Wang and Takeuchi, 2007, p. 1069), or *'a set of HRM practices that are intended to affect employees' commitment toward their organization'* (Giauque, et al., 2013, p. 125). According to Lu et al. (2015, p. 858), HPWPs refers to *'a set of HRM practices comprising a series of actual programs, processes, and techniques that are established and enforced in accordance with the organization's strategic objective'*.

Many scholars in subsequent literature Marchington and Grugulis (2000) subjected the universalistic theory to many criticisms. According to Guest (1997), it is

difficult to deduce generalized conclusions from these studies, due to differences in the HR practices under examination. Besides, it does not address the synergic interdependence or the integration of these practices, and therefore it fails to explain other factors that could be equally efficient for the organization's performance, and in which context these practices are used (Martín-Alcázar et al., 2005). Furthermore, it is difficult to predict or assure an accurate mix of these practices because of the limited number of policy configurations of HR systems in this approach (Purcell, 1999; Lepak and Shaw, 2008; Jery and Souai, 2016).

Other criticisms of the universalistic/best practice approach are related to the methods used to collect data. Martín-Alcázar et al. (2005) argued that despite the implementation of a rigorous deductive logic in this approach (basically developed through quantitative techniques), which lead to a superior level of statistical strength in the testing of hypotheses (Brewster, 1999), they lack theoretical rigour (Marchington and Grugulis, 2000). The authors argued that there are substantial methodological problems associated with the use of these datasets, such as problems in choosing appropriate measures of performance, which depend only on financial measures and accountancy indexes (Martín-Alcázar, et al., 2005). Aware of those methodological shortcomings, Purcell (1999) called for substantial attention when deriving conclusions from such quantitative studies (Marchington and Grugulis, 2000).

Some researchers have wondered how the universalistic approach supporters argue that specific resources or practices are more important and valuable than others (Boxall and Purcell, 2000; Shin and Konrad, 2017). De Sa'a Pérez and García Falco'n (2002); Purcell (1999) asserts that the best practice approach contradicts the resource-based view (RBV) theory that emphasized that all organization's assets are imperative to achieve the organizational goals and reach the organization's competitive advantage (Purcell, 1999). According to RBV, the human resources (employees) are valuable and inimitable and regarded as a strategic asset, and a major concern to the organization's management board (Barney, 1991; Wright and McMahan, 1992; Colbert, 2004) Thus, inviting all organizations to adopt specific HR policies and practices will negatively affect

HRM, and represents a backward step towards personnel management (PM) where isolated operational matters are dominant. Purcell (1999) asserted that HR managers should look at the whole range of HRM choices and processes in the context of the external and internal environment to make rational decisions.

Many scholars have questioned the extent to which the recipients of the best practice approach need to modify the original practice to apply effectively in their local context (Shin and Konrad, 2017). The advocates of the replication perspective claimed that any adjustment of a practice to a new environment would harm the OP (Singh, House and Tucker, 1986). In contrast, other scholars claimed that strict replication of the best practice approach may lead to a mismatch between the new practice and the environment of the recipient organization, thus rendering the imported practice less effective (Orlikowski, 1996). Hence, the recipient's units may need to modify the original practice continuously to create their practices that fit better with their culture and structure, which refute the main principles of the universalistic approach that there is one best approach that should be adopted under all circumstances (Zhu, Kraut and Kittur, 2016).

Marchington and Grugulis (2000) stated that the best practice approach is particularly difficult to generalize in some sectors characterized by constrained resources, significant labour costs, difficulties to increase pay rates or provide training courses such as health, pubs, restaurants and hospitality sectors (Orlikowski, 1996; Obisi, 2011). Thus, adopting a best practice approach in these sectors may hinder its performance rather than developing it. Specifically, these sectors require quick and distinct responses to any possible contingent variables, where the best practice approach becomes difficult to apply (Marchington and Grugulis, 2000).

Based on the above considerations, some scholars argued that Pfeffer's model of universalistic/best practice approach seems to be attractive, but more rhetoric than reality (Delery and Doty, 1996; Martín-Alcázar et al., 2005). Once unpacked, these individual practices tend to lose much of their glamour and become much less 'best' than it might be hoped (Marchington and Grugulis, 2000). Any contradictions between 'best

practice' in one area and 'worst practice' in another area will undermine the package as a whole and will negatively affect the employees' perception of the HRM system adopted. They will soon notice these contradictions between employment practices in different management areas and inconsistencies between policy statements and workplace practice in reality (Martín-Alcázar, et al., 2005).

2.4.2 The Configurational (or Bundles) Approach

As illustrated above, the universalistic approach had ignored the different elements of the HRM system that could be combined in various patterns of practices and prove its efficiency in achieving the OP objectives (Martín-Alcázar, et al., 2005). In this vein, some scholars argued that diverse bundles of HR practices that are applied in different organizational contexts and connected with the employees' perceptions are what matters in the workplace (Marchington and Grugulis, 2000). The configurational theory argues that organizations could achieve their desired goals through the stimulation of internal synergies and integration of HRM practices, also referred to as complementarity, internal fit or bundling practices (Martín-Alcázar, et al., 2005). This alignment would favour conformity between the multiple HRM practices rather than single and isolated practices as in the universalistic approach (Wright and McMahan, 1992; Delery and Doty, 1996). Martín-Alcázar et al. (2005, p. 637) defined the configurational perspective as *'a group of HR practices that interact differently and generate configurations that can be used to formulate management patterns in rich integration and coherence'*.

Huselid (1995) claimed that each bundle or configuration of HR practices may align internally with other HRM practices, and has the ability to clarify differences within the OP more than the practice applied separately as in the universalistic perspective. In other words, managers may apply more than one HR practice in the workplace; thus, the effectiveness of any single practice depends, in part, on fit or misfit with other practices (Arthur, 1994). According to Jennings, Jennings and Greenwood (2009); Handzic, Ozlen and Durmic (2016) the consistency, conformity and synergy between HR practices in the

configurational approach play a significant role in bringing efficiency to the organization and have a greater impact on productivity and quality than individual HR practices (MacDuffie, 1995; Ichniowski, Shaw and Prennushi, 1997). This internal-fit is defined as *‘mutual compatibility of the components of the bundle, the way anyone policy reinforces the effectiveness of the others’* (Purcell, 1999, p. 27). These bundles/configurations of HRM have been labelled as ‘High-Performance Work Systems’ (HPWSs), which are positively associated with the OP (Venkatraman, 1989; Huselid, 1995; Delery and Doty, 1996; Lepak and Shaw, 2008).

According to Lepak and Shaw (2008), the main argument of the configurational perspective is that a given HRM practice is unlikely to yield substantial benefits at the organizational level unless it combines with other effective practices. Based on the configurational perspective, examining complementary groups of HR bundles is more promising than individual practices as in the universalistic approach (Arthur, 1994; Marchington and Grugulis, 2000).

However, many scholars have criticized both the universalistic and the configurational approaches since both have neglected the organizational situational conditions, in addition to ignoring the behavioural perspective as an influential mode of theorizing in this line of research (Delery and Doty, 1996; Martín-Alcázar, et al., 2025). In this regard, the behavioural perspective argued that HRM practices affect the organization’s performance by determining the possible contingencies’ variables (Schuler and Jackson, 1987; Jackson and Schuler, 1995). This paved the road for the third approach: The Contingency Perspective.

2.4.3. The Contingency (or Best Fit) Approach

The contingency approach presents a different assumption concerning the relationship between the two variables (HRM and OP), and how they interact (Dewar and Werbel, 1979; Drazin and Ven, 1985; Venkatraman, 1989; Alonso-Almeida *et al.*, 2016). Unlike the universalistic and configurational approaches, contingency perspective argued that the relationship between the dependent variable (OP) and the independent variable

(HRM practices) is no longer characterized by uniformity and stability (Sherer and Leblevici, 2001; Martín-Alcázar, et al., 2005), since they are influenced by other variables named contingency variables, which moderate the link between HRM and OP. Consequently, it refuses the idea of best practices or specific bundles that lead to superior performance under all circumstances (Delery and Doty, 1996; Martín-Alcázar, et al., 2005).

Jackson and Schuler (1995, p. 238) used the term '*umbrella*' to explain the widening of the traditional perception of HRM strategies to include the contingency approach, besides the operational and functional aspects of the HRM system which are the core content of the universalistic and configurational approaches. It would also include a horizontal link between various HR functional practices (Schuler and Jackson, 1987; Wright and Snell, 1991; Wright and McMahan, 1992; Alonso-Almeida *et al.*, 2016; Jery and Souai, 2016) and a vertical link with the strategic management process of the organization (Lengnick-Hall and Lengnick-Hall, 1988; Wright and McMahan, 1992). It would finally allow for bringing together the external link with other organizational and environmental factors (Jackson and Schuler, 1995; Martín-Alcázar, et al., 2005; Jery and Souai, 2016).

Martín-Alcázar et al. (2005) grouped the contingency relationships into three main groups: (1) internal organizational variables, such as size, structure and internal political relationships (Pfeffer and Cohen, 1984; Pfeffer and Davis-Blake, 1987; Pfeffer and Langton, 1988; Balkin and Bannister, 1993; Jackson and Schuler, 1995). (2) The external environmental variables, such as the competitive, technological, macro-economic and labour context (Schuler and Walker, 1990; Jackson and Schuler, 1995; Becker and Gerhart, 1996; Boxall, 1998). (3) The HRM strategic variables, where the contribution of HR practices to the OP is highly dependent on the extent to which they fit the business strategy (Jackson and Schuler, 1995). Consequently, the HRM strategies are perceived as an interactive manner, not as a unidirectional or reactive way (Martín-Alcázar, et al., 2005).

According to the contingency approach, HRM practices either in isolation (universalistic) or in combination (configurational) will be maximally effective only under specific situational conditions (Lengnick-Hall and Lengnick-Hall, 1988; Jerry and Souai, 2016). Each organization should select its HR practices depending on its specific contexts and circumstances to achieve the desired goals (Balkin and Gomez-Mejia, 1987; Schuler and Jackson, 1987; Delery and Doty, 1996). To do so effectively, HRM strategies should be consistent with both organizational strategies and internal and external environments (Samnani and Singh, 2013). Thus, the organization must design its HRM system to encourage behaviours that work effectively under the contingency variables (Delery and Doty, 1996).

In the same vein, Schuler and Jackson (1987) and Lepak and Shaw (2008) argued that HRM practices in its nature have an exchange property, which may affect and be affected by different contingency variables. Thus, according to the contingency approach, HR managers could adopt different sets of HR practices based on different contingency cases. If one HR practice or bundle works successfully in a specific situation, it does not necessarily mean that it will work in another case or the same case in different circumstances, and this is the essence of the best fit approach or contingency approach (Young, Beebe, Dietrich and Liu, 2016). Young et al. (2016, p. 270) stated that *'Contingency theory originated in the organizational theory literature and proposes that organizations need to adapt their structure, processes, and coordination strategies to fit the degree of uncertainty in their environment'*.

For example, in the case of increasing workforce supply, HR managers may offer less incentive compensation, and instead, provide the employees with job security and training needs (Weber, et al., 2009). Usually, reducing the incentive compensation negatively impacts OP, but, due to the presence of a contingency situation (change in the labour market structure), the reduction of incentives versus the provision of job security tends to have a positive effect on OP (Lepak and Shaw, 2008; Weber, et al., 2009).

Many scholars refused the idea that one approach is best under all circumstances (Handzic, et al., 2016). Thus, the contingency approach has presented a closer fit with the

local environment, despite that it may take more time of trial and error to outline which practices may or may not work under the specific contingency contexts (Marchington and Grugulis, 2000; Croonen et al., 2016). According to Guest (1997) and Wright and Snell (1998), the challenge that HR managers may face is to choose effectively an appropriate HR architecture and processes that contribute to OP in the short, medium and long terms, especially under contingency contexts, and promote a fit with the demands of the competitive environment. This requires moving from the idealistic best practice/universalistic approach to the best-fit or contingency analysis, which is connected with employees' perceptions about the nature and direction of the organization (Purcell, 1999).

Furthermore, the contingency approach perceives each organization as a unique unit, and therefore there is no one best method to manage in a given sector or industry (Croonen et al., 2016). The research problem in the best practice model is to search for generalizing patterns of HR practices (Jennings et al., 2009, Handzic et al., 2016). In contrast, the contingency approach refused this copy and paste of HR practices regardless of the uniqueness of each organizational context, which seems to affect the organization's performance negatively and could never be acceptable (Purcell, 1999; Croonen et al., 2016). Each organization should make its own choices on what type of HR system fits best for achieving its goals (Purcell, 1999; De Kok, Uhlaner and Thurik, 2006; Jennings et al., 2009; Croonen et al., 2016; Handzic et al., 2016).

Young et al. (2016) emphasized that the Best-Fit principle is the essential base of the contingency perspective, which enables the organization to adopt the suitable HRM system according to specific contingency contexts and make the necessary adjustments to adapt effectively to the new circumstances. The authors defined 'fit' as '*a frame that describes the harmonization of structure and processes to related factors to reduce risk*' (Young et al., 2016, p. 270). In the same context, Wright and McMahan (1992) emphasized that both vertical fit -the fit between HRM system with strategic goals- and horizontal fit -the fit of HRM practices with each other-, are very necessary if an organization aims to address effectively and efficiently its strategic imperatives.

The best-fit concept is in contrast with the best-practice approach applied in all contexts regardless of each context's characteristics based on one best way of management (Venkatraman, 1989; Croonen et al., 2016). Wright and Snell (1998) and Handzic et al. (2016) emphasized that most organizations today are operating in turbulent environments, and fierce competition, which requires the organizations' management to be more flexible and quick in adapting to surrounding variables. *'Flexibility is a characteristic of the company that enables it to achieve a state of fit at any given point in time'* (Wright and Snell, 1998, p. 6).

The contingency approach has been subjected to many criticisms. Despite the attractiveness of the contingency approach, it cannot be regarded as an alternative to best practice and configurational perspectives, because it is also limited by the impossibility of modelling all the contingent variables and the hardness of showing their interconnection, in addition to how changes occur in one variable have an impact on others (Boxall, 1992). Furthermore, Martín-Alcázar et al. (2005) criticized the contingency approach for its micro orientation and the fact that it does not consider the political variables in the strategic planning processes. Therefore, Jackson and Schuler (1995), Brewster (1999) and Martín-Alcázar et al. (2005) emphasized that what is needed is a new model of HRM that re-emphasizes the influence of external factors, such as culture, ownership structures, economic and political factors and the role of the state and trade union organizations. This led us to the fourth approach in investigating the relationship between HRM strategies and OP: *'The Contextual Approach'*.

2.4.4. The Contextual Approach

Contrary to the previous three approaches, the contextual approach provides a deep description and interpretation of the relationship between strategic HRM and OP through a comprehensive view that could be applied in various environments, including the specificities of industrial and geographical contexts (Martín-Alcázar et al., 2005).

Consequently, the main additive contribution of the contextual approach lies in the relationship between HRM strategies and its contexts, while the previous approaches -at best- regarded the context status as a contingency factor (Martín-Alcázar et al., 2005).

In this regard, Brewster (1999) and Martín-Alcázar et al. (2005) asserted that the SHRM concept should expand to include the external organizational contexts in which managerial decisions are made. The contextual approach introduces a perception that exceeds the organizational level and combines the organizational functions in a macro-social framework (Brewster, 1999).

Moreover, Martín-Alcázar et al. (2005) argued that what distinguishes the contextual perspective is its bidirectional effectiveness. It re-considers the environmental influences, which have been neglected for a long time in the available literature (Gaugler, 1988; Guest, 1990), in addition to its impact on the internal organizational aspects too (Brewster, 1994). This dual impact explains the dynamic nature of HRM strategies. In other words, the two main concepts were re-investigated: the external environment, and the organizational context, which is regarded as an essential framework for SHRM, rather than focusing on unidirectional contingency relationships (Brewster, 1994, 1999; Jackson and Schuler, 1995). With regard to the organizational context, it consists of many variables, such as organizational climate and culture, organization size and structure, technology, orientation to innovation and of diverse interests of the different stakeholders involved (Martín-Alcázar et al., 2005). The external environment framework includes variables such as legislative, governmental, political and institutional contexts, social and economic factors, cultural differences (Jackson and Schuler, 1995; Brewster, 1999), union influence (Brewster, 1994) and particular conditions for the labour market (Brewster, 1999; Martín-Alcázar et al., 2005).

Purcell (1999) emphasized that the essential core of the contextual approach is the ability to predict the external contexts, and then design an HRM system that fits with some given internal and external variables in a manner that is hard to be emulated by competitors, thus maximizing the OP (Delaney and Huselid, 1996; Weber, et al., 2009). Moreover, the contextual approach provides a wider framework of the SHRM analysis by highlighting the social dimension (Jackson and Schuler, 1995). Interestingly, Brewster, (1994, 1999) demonstrated that external variables within the contextual approach are not studied only as contingency factors, since the way HRM systems can influence the

external environment is taken into consideration. In other words, the contextual approach of the HRM strategy perceives the external factors as a significant part of the HRM system rather than external isolated influences, on the contrary of the universalistic and contingency approaches (Martín-Alcázar et al., 2005).

In environments characterized by instability, ambiguity and rapidly changing, coupled with diverse management styles and multi-organizational strategies, many scholars argued that the success of an organization in such contexts is highly dependent on HRM systems adopted, which must be flexible enough to accommodate changes to face the external challenges (Sims, 2002; Lepak and Shaw, 2008; Weber, et al., 2009). Drazin and Ven (1985) argued that each organization needs to adapt its strategies, structure, processes, policies and practices to minimize the uncertainty contexts which arise from different contextual factors, such as culture, environment, technology, social, economic and political (Weber, et al., 2009). When uncertainty is low, the organization will need to adopt more formalized and rigid processes. Conversely, when uncertainty is high, the organization should adopt more coordination and fitting strategies and processes to choose suitable courses of actions (Lepak and Shaw, 2008).

Organizations with rigid and inflexible HRM strategies may find themselves out of the competition because of their inability to respond to changes quickly and effectively (Sims, 2002). In such uncertain contexts, the main challenge the HR manager has to tackle is to establish a flexible strategic vision to be able to adapt to changes and to develop effective plans to achieve the organizational goals previously designed (Drazin and Ven, 1985; Sims, 2002).

Purcell (1999) emphasized that organizations are open systems that need careful management to satisfy and balance internal needs in addition to accommodate external environmental circumstances. There is no one best way of management since the appropriate form depends on many factors, namely organizational size and the environment in which the approach is applied to (Brown and Eisenhardt, 1997; Weber, et al., 2009; Handzic et al., 2016). According to Croonen et al. (2016), these factors play a

significant role in determining the type of HRM approach that could be adopted in particular contexts.

Taking the organizational size as an example, in large and multinational organizations, with geographical units dispersed, HR managers tend to develop formal and standardized HR practices that work in a range of contexts (Croonen et al., 2016). In this case, the best practice approach or the configurational approach would be the suitable models to be adopted and implemented across all the organization's units (Croonen et al., 2016). In small and medium enterprises (SMEs), there are many difficulties in developing advanced HRM system due to the lack of employees in comparison with large organizations (De Kok, et al., 2006). In addition, the number of units is relatively small which allows the owner/manager to be physically present in each unit regularly, and to personally manage and monitor the employees (Croonen et al., 2016). In such case, SMEs face the risk of becoming '*stuck in the middle*' or '*schizoid*' (Croonen et al., 2016 p. 704) concerning the application of the best practice approach (Jennings et al. 2009). If SMEs decide to develop their own best practice system, they may bear high development costs in terms of time and money (Handzic et al., 2016), which is problematic due to SMEs resources limitations, such as financial and managerial obstacles along with the lack of economies of scale (Magableh, Kharabsheh and Al-Zubi, 2011). Such factors could prevent SMEs from spending time and money in developing appropriate best practices systems (Jennings, et al., 2009). Consequently, Marchington and Grugulis (2000) argued that the contextual perspective may be the most appropriate and feasible approach for SMEs, while the best practice approach may be more effective when the number of units and employees is high, which requires rigid formal standardized practices to be applied across all units (Croonen et al., 2016).

Thus, the contextual approach could help SMEs to structure their HRM system and be more eligible to face new challenges. Moreover, the contexts and their influences on the model determine the best HR practices that fit the organization in order to perform better (Weber, et al., 2009; Handzic et al., 2016).

In order to understand further how HRM approaches work in different environments, in developed and developing countries as Arab countries, particularly in Jordan, where this study was conducted, the next section provides an overview of the developments in the field of HRM in the Arab Countries, as reported in the related literature.

2.5 Middle East/ An Overview

This section highlights the HRM concept in the Middle East/ Arab countries. It outlines the main differences of the HRM styles between West and East and presents how Western HRM style is applied within the Eastern context. Finally, the socio-cultural aspects resulting from Arab culture and Islamic principles that might exert influence on HR Management and managerial behaviours will also be addressed.

2.5.1 What is the Middle East?

The term 'Middle East' was first used in the 1850s at the British India Office (Beaumont, Blake and Wagstaff, 2016). However, it became widely known in 1902 when the US naval strategist Alfred Thayer Mahan applied it to distinguish the area between the Arabian Peninsula and India (Koppes, 1976). This term is used to refer to the states and civilizations in this geographical area. The region was named during the era of geographical discoveries by the geographical explorers of the ancient world, the cradle of human civilization as well as the cradle of all Abrahamic religions (Lewis, 2013).

According to Beaumont et al. (2016), despite the international classifications' disagreement over the list of countries that fall under by the Middle East term, most classifications agreed that the countries included in the Middle East are:

Anatolia: Turkey. **The Arabian Peninsula:** Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, United Arab Emirates, Yemen, Oman, Qatar, Bahrain. **The Mediterranean Sea:** Cyprus. **North Africa:** Egypt. **The Caucasus:** Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia. **The Iranian plateau:** Afghanistan, Pakistan, Iran. **North Africa:** Libya, Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, Sudan, Mauritania. **Horn of**

Africa: Djibouti, Eritrea, Somalia. **Crescent Fertile Countries:** Syria, Lebanon, Iraq, Jordan, Historic Palestine (Gaza Strip, West Bank).

The Middle East label is used to refer to all Arab countries that share the Arabic Language, the Islam religion (the majority of the population) and most of traditions, cultures and values (Beaumont et al., 2016). These Arab countries are shown in Figure 2.1 and marked with a red star: Jordan, Syria, Lebanon, Iraq, Palestine, Egypt, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, United Arab Emirates, Yemen, Oman, Qatar, Bahrain, Libya, Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, Sudan, Mauritania, Djibouti, and Somalia.

Figure 2.1: Arab World Map



Source: <http://martinsidwell.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/02/Arab-World-Map.jpg>
(No Title, no date)

Despite some commonalities between the countries in the region, each nation has its historical developments, an independent (and at times unique) set of socio-economic components, arising from the interplay of socio-cultural institutions, historical developments, demographic variables and political relations (Budhwar and Mellahi,

2007). This is further complicated by the different stages of industrialization, economic and political development of each nation in the region. Such contextual complexities affected the HRM systems applied in these countries (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2007; Budhwar, Mellahi and Al-Jahwari, 2016).

2.5.2 HRM Styles: Does West meets East Curricula?

Globalization has been playing a significant role in the progress of business and management education in the Arab countries, where reputed west business schools have opened branches (Hyder and Faisal, 2019). These schools adopt western-based texts to teach and train local students, and the majority of them enter the labour market in the region (Husan, Brennan and James, 2009). These western curricula proved their appropriateness to be implemented in large and multinational organizations that are run professionally (Hyder and Faisal, 2019). However, evidence indicates their inefficiency when applied to local, small and medium enterprises (Husan et al., 2009).

In this regard, Su, Guo and Sun (2017) and Budhwar, Pereira, Mellahi and Singh (2018) revealed that the HR functions in the Arab countries, especially in small and medium enterprises (SMEs) and family business (Petrolo, Pellegrini and Abukhalaf, 2018) do still play a reactive role, and in most cases, there are no HR departments in organizations or even a representation of HR at the board level (Budhwar, et al., 2016; Budhwar, Varma and Patel, 2016). For this reason, Budhwar et al. (2018) have recently drawn attention to such a flaw. They argued that intensified research is needed to examine the ability of SMEs' capacity to identify, absorb and apply western HRM practices within their contexts, in addition to developing an eastern context HRM curriculum to generate employable and suitable skills for the Arab countries societies, especially in SMEs (Budhwar *et al.*, 2018; Hyder and Faisal, 2019).

Some authors argue that economic growth in the Arab countries and increasing competitiveness are affecting the nature of HRM functions, which are becoming more developed and strategic (Afiouni, et al., 2013; Budhwar *et al.*, 2018). Consequently, HRM practitioners are beginning to move away from the traditional HR practices and becoming

more ambition, thereby logging into globalization (Ramdani, Mellahi, Guermat, and Kechad, 2014; Budhwar, et al., 2016). Furthermore, the increased presence and influence of multinational companies and the use of western HRM practices within the Arab Countries context (Hyder and Faisal, 2019) is playing a significant role in HRM practices in the region, as they have done in many countries around the world, such as South-East Asia (Budhwar *et al.*, 2018). Thite, Wilkinson and Shah (2012) asserted that reliance on experts from developed countries as management consultants and experts is critical in transferring the western experience to eastern context (Budhwar *et al.*, 2018).

2.5.3 Western HRM Style and its Application to Eastern Context

Despite the increasing body of research on HRM in Arab countries, there is still a scarcity of research focusing on the nature of dominating HRM systems, determining forces and challenges faced by the HR functions and the future of HRM in the Arab countries (Husan et al., 2009; Smith, Torres, Leong, Budhwar, Achoui, and Lebedeva, 2012; Ta'Amnha, Sayce and Tregaskis, 2016). For this reason, many scholars highlighted the need for suitable management models and constructs that may be valid for the Arab countries region context, in the domain of HRM (Mellahi and Budhwar, 2006; Afiouni, Ruël and Schuler, 2014; Budhwar, et al., 2016; Budhwar *et al.*, 2018). Existing literature on the transfer of the western HRM style to the east region shed light on significant differences between the two styles, due to sociological, economic, legal, political and cultural aspects, reflecting the context-specific nature of the HRM systems (Husan et al., 2009; Goby, Nickerson and David, 2015). Thus, foreign styles cannot contribute to HRM development in the Arab countries region (Neal and Finlay, 2008; Khan, 2011; Budhwar *et al.*, 2018).

In this regard, Saleh and Kleiner (2005) and Husan et al. (2009) argued that if the organizations' management in the Arab countries wants to transfer the western HRM approaches and apply them within their contexts, they should be aware of significant differences between the two cultures and management philosophies styles before applying them locally. Western models must suit the local cultural context (Elmuti and

Kathawala, 1991; Husan et al., 2009). Therefore, they have to modify and adjust the western-style management version, or generate a brand-new management style composed of elements of local and western management practices to be successful in the given context (Husan et al., 2009; Hyder and Faisal, 2019).

Despite recognition that HRM in the Arab countries region has to be adjusted to the specificities of the context, such metamorphosis is still ambiguous (Husan et al., 2009). Hybrid HRM systems are expected to emerge whilst combining features of the western rationalized system and the traditional Middle Eastern characteristics (Budhwar *et al.*, 2018).

2.5.4 Arab Sociocultural Characteristics and its Influence on the Arab Human Resource Management Style

The socio-cultural influences appear clearly on managerial styles in the Arab world (Al-Faleh, 1987; Ali, 1995; Al-tarawneh, 2005, 2009). In general, Arab people strongly depend on family power, nepotism and personal relationships (*Wasta*) as crucial elements to get things done within the organization rather than formal procedures based on personal qualifications, experiences and abilities. In this regard, various researchers claimed that surrounding friends and family networks have a huge impact on Arab managers' thoughts, beliefs, attitudes, decisions and practices (Muna, 1980; Al-Faleh, 1987; Ali, 1993; Ta'Amnha et al. 2016).

The Arab management style is characterized as low risk and short-term investment, where little encouragement is given to creativity and innovation, usually perceived as marginalized activities in the Arab organizations (Alrashidi, 2016). Moreover, decisions are often based on the managers' intuition and business sense, carried out in an informal and unstructured manner instead of reliable and relevant information (Atiyyah, 1996). According to De Waal and Frijns (2016), the environment of Arab management style is highly influenced by Islamic religious influence, a strong family and tribal culture and a strong role of *wasta*, which perceives management business in the Arab countries as laborious.

In terms of planning, the Arab management could be described as reactive and crisis-oriented rather than proactive style, and as lacking effective and comprehensive tools/frameworks for managing crises and disasters (Sawalha, Jraisat and Al-Qudah, 2013). Furthermore, most Arab organizations are working under high levels of uncertainty; they are a closed information system with a low-level of disclosure to the organizations' stakeholders, they characterized with centralization, restricted future planning, exaggerated lack of authority delegation, high importance attributed to prestige and status symbols (Al-Rasheed, 2001; De Waal and Frijns, 2016).

Loyalty is regarded as the main engine for relations and achieving interests in the organizations in the Arab world. When a manager has to select between loyalty and competence, people who have the support from a series of supervisors' recommendations are in a better position to get a higher status job or promotion even if they are less qualified (De Waal and Frijns, 2016). Recruiting and selecting a candidate is based on family power, social ties and personal relationships since these criteria are more important than education, qualifications and experience (De Waal and Frijns, 2016).

Accordingly, Al-tarawneh (2005) stressed that sociocultural factors have negatively influenced managerial practices in the Arab countries; in this regard, the author argued that management development, particularly human resources management, can play a crucial role in changing, or at least modifying some negative practices resulting from socio-cultural factors, by concentrating on effective organizational attitudes and skills which are culturally supported and do not conflict with the social norms and values.

2.6 HRM Systems in the Arab Context

This section highlights the situation of HRM systems in the reality of the Arab context in general and Jordanian context in specific. It also introduces a comprehensive description of Arab socio-cultural characteristics and how they influence the Arab HRM Styles. This section outlines 'Wasta' mechanism in detail in terms of its meaning, nature, reasons and motivations as it is a widespread phenomenon in the Arab societies, which affect various HRM practices.

2.6.1 An Overview

Context as a multidimensional concept consists of societal, geopolitical and cultural features and form a significant part of actions influencing organizational outcomes (Vaiman and Brewster, 2015). Arab countries represent a good example of different regional contexts in terms of political (in)stability, political systems, economic resources, cultural traditions/norms and national diversity in the labour market (Al-Hamadi, Budhwar and Shipton, 2007; Budhwar and Mellahi, 2007; Hutchings, Metcalfe and Cooper, 2010). However, it has been noticed that the HRM field in Arab countries is highly affected by such contexts. It has witnessed considerable growth in the value of a contextualized understanding of human resource processes and practices, as well as in the performance appraisal function in the light of increasing focus on the measurement of outcomes in business organizations worldwide (Rosenzweig and Nohria, 1994; Aycan *et al.*, 2000; Budhwar and Sparrow, 2002; Pudelko, 2006; Budhwar and Mellahi, 2007; Mellahi, Demirbag and Riddle, 2011; Bourne *et al.*, 2013; Afiouni, *et al.*, 2014).

However, it is worth mentioning that there is no extensive or enough literature to be found relating to HRM practices in Arab countries, particularly in Jordan (Syed, Hazboun and Murray, 2014; Budhwar, *et al.*, 2016). In this regard, many types of research emphasized that despite most countries in the Arab region context are focusing more on organizational development and human resource management (Kolachi and Akan, 2014; Singh and Sharma, 2015), the main common central relapse that organizations in such developing economies share is the weakness of policies and procedures in place (Opote, 2020). In this regard, many researchers have revealed huge variations between the kind of research conducted in the HRM field in the Arab countries, which show the real nature and the state-of-the-art of the HRM functions and role (De Waal and Sultan, 2012). Some authors emphasized the absence of systematic analysis that could provide an overview of the dynamics of HRM in the Arab countries (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2007).

Accordingly, despite the rapid increase in the number of researches and published papers in different aspects of HRM in the Arab countries, it is still difficult to draw a conclusive and comprehensive picture of the actual scenario in the region (Budhwar *et*

al., 2018). Besides, the literature reveals the absence of a '*Middle Eastern HRM Model*' (Budhwar, et al., 2016, p. 8) characterized by distinct Eastern features (Khan, 2011). This could be attributed to many reasons such as the diversity between nations in the region, the absence of an effective labour legislation framework and the lack of a key role played by different institutions such as trade unions (Budhwar, et al., 2016). Despite this gloomy picture of the HRM systems in the Middle East, there is an emerging reliable trend toward an increasing interest of both practitioners and researchers in designing effective HRM systems relevant to the Middle East region, through highly dependent on Western HRM styles (Husan et al., 2009; Budhwar *et al.*, 2018).

The relationship between HRM practices and the organizational outcomes has been the subject of increased research attention in the Arab countries (Moideenkutty, Al-Lamki and Murthy, 2011; Afiouni, et al., 2014; Ramdani *et al.*, 2014; Ancarani *et al.*, 2016). Despite existing of many kinds of research have investigated HRM systems and practices such as selection, promotion and compensation (Obeidat, Shannak, Masa'deh, and Al-Jarrah, 2012; Ramdani *et al.*, 2014), these studies have not yet been verified empirically in the Middle East context (Husan et al., 2009; Afiouni, et al., 2013; Su, et al., 2017; Budhwar *et al.*, 2018).

Furthermore, many researchers have connected the influence of Arab culture and values on management systems in the Arab world (Mellahi, 2003; Ali and Weir, 2005; Ali, 2010). These studies have investigated the impact of Islamic values, ethics and principles on the management of human resources (Branine and Pollard, 2010; Budhwar and Mellahi, 2010). According to these studies' insightful evidence, most Arab countries tend to share and cling to socio-cultural norms and customs, namely strong group orientation, hierarchical social structures and masculinity (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002; Husan et al., 2009). Some specific aspects of the Arab culture with a greater influence in HRM will be discussed in more details in a subsequent section of the literature review.

2.6.2 HRM in Jordanian Context

According to Syed, et al., (2014) little research has been conducted on HRM in the Arab countries in general and in Jordan in particular. Some authors argue that organizations' management in Jordan lacks the required managerial skills and systems to attract, retain and obtain the best out of highly talented individuals (Budhwar *et al.*, 2018).

The rapid changes in the socio-political and economic environment in the Arab countries, as well as in Jordan, impose many external and internal challenges on HRM systems. According to Ali (2010); Altarawneh and Aldehayyat (2011); Biygautane and Al Yahya (2014); Sidani and Al Ariss (2014) the talents and skills shortage is one of the main challenges that Jordanian HR managers have to handle. In this regard, Chapman and Miric (2009) emphasized the huge demand-supply gap when it comes to talent in the country. The authors attributed this to many factors, such as the failure of the education system in producing an adequate supply of talented individuals. Also, there is a lack of relevance and quality in education as currently provided by academic institutions and a lack of interest in developing analytical thinking (Chapman and Miric, 2009).

Furthermore, it is also important to underline the little attention of the vocational-based education system in this area of expertise (Abdalla, 2015; Sidani, Konrad and Karam, 2015). For these reasons, the HR managers in the Jordanian organizations do frequently depend on the '*trial and error*' method in developing HR functions to cover such skills' gaps (Budhwar *et al.*, 2018, p. 8).

Although many types of research have highlighted the influence of Arabic socio-cultural and traditional contexts in management, many ideal Islamic values and principles are not exercised in Jordan, such as equity and equality principles (Ali and Weir, 2005). This explains the widespread adoption of some HRM practices in the Arab countries that fail to embody the Islamic values, and consequently, the loyalty to one's family and friends may exceed the loyalty to organizational procedures (Branine and Pollard, 2010). This often results in the use of inequitable criteria such as the nepotism mechanism called '*wasta*' in various HRM practices (Petrolo, et al., 2018). Some authors claim that *wasta*

may override the decision-making styles and interfere with most of the managerial aspects (Ali and Weir, 2005; Mellahi, 2006) such as recruitment and selection, promotion and compensation, participation in training and development programs, even in performance evaluation (Petrolo, et al., 2018).

Existing research strongly suggests that local practices and constructs as *wasta* play a critical role in the management of HR in the Middle-East context (Budhwar, et al., 2016). *wasta* is one of the main critical challenges HR managers have to deal with in the Arab world, particularly in Jordan. Iles, Almhedie and Baruch (2012, p. 4) argue that: *‘one of the greatest challenges to managers and researchers in the Arab world has been in understanding the social networks or ‘wasta’ that pervade business activities’*. Therefore, it is of utmost important to explain *wasta* meaning and content, the motivations underlying its adoption, and its main detrimental effects to organizations. The following sections address these aspects in more detail.

2.6.3 Wasta in the Arab Countries

According to existing literature, *wasta* is a prevalent phenomenon in Arab countries and societies that plays an important role in various HRM practices (Alsarhan and Valax, 2020). The following sections aim to review the concept, meaning and implications of *wasta* in HRM systems.

2.6.3.1 Wasta Meaning and Nature

Mohammad and Hamdy (2008, p. 1) defined *wasta* as *‘the intervention of a patron in favour of a client to obtain benefits and/or resources from a third party’*. Ta’Amnha et al. (2016, p. 395) present *wasta* as *‘an unwritten social contract comprising cooperation and obligation among certain social groups’ memberships including families’*. Based on these definitions, it is possible to identify three parties as key components of *wasta* process: the *wasta* person (intercessor), who does the *wasta* (verb), and the Wastee (supplicant) who receives benefits (objects), sometimes from a third party (Cunningham

and Sarayrah, 1993). These links are often derived from family relationships or close friendships.

According to Cunningham and Sarayrah (1993); Barnett, Yandle and Naufal, (2013); and Ta'Amnha et al. (2016), wasta is perceived as a hidden force or an invisible hand related to solidarity and loyalty, which is not limited to favouritism and support provided to family members, such as nepotism, but it includes many other kinds of relationships such as cronyism, kinship, collegueship, friendships and business relationships.

Historically, wasta was used as a means for managing relations between families and tribes in the Arab world with the use of an intermediary usually named 'Shaykh', who would be asked to be the intercession or the wasta between the conflicting parties (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011, p. 470). Thus, wasta stems from the Arabic social texture that emphasizes family connections and the power of the social fabric (Weir, 2000).

Later, according to Smith et al. (2012), wasta was referred to as bypassing the law to gain benefits at the expense of other people. Therefore, wasta is a punishable crime in Arab countries, including Jordan, and it's widely refused by Arabic people. Nonetheless, the growing use of wasta in Arabic organizations cannot be denied, because it is proved impossible to overcome bureaucratic obstacles in any other way (Marktanner and Wilson, 2018; Sfeir, 2019).

According to Hutchings and Weir (2006), wasta is based on social networks of interpersonal relationships associated with kinship and family ties and includes the practice of power and influences through social and political-business networks. Furthermore, people with substantial wealth or holding influential occupational roles, either in private or public institutions, are extensively dependent on the wasta to achieve their goals (Cunningham and Sarayrah, 1993).

2.6.3.2 The Use of Wasta in Jordan: Reasons and Motivations

Many key factors are driving the use of wasta in Jordan. In general, Jordan's administrative system is characterized by its profound lack of accountability and transparency across all levels (Loewe, Blume and Speer, 2008). Thus, people in Jordan tend to use wasta, which is regarded as an informal mechanism (El-Said and Harrigan, 2009) to get what they think is their right (Rothstein, 2004) to gain their interests smoothly (Faisal, 1990).

According to Tlaiss and Kauser, (2011); Ta'Amnha et al. (2016) labour law in Jordan has many unfair articles regarding employees' dismissal contracts, which allow organizations that are restructuring their workforce size to terminate unspecified numbers of employees' contracts through informing the labour ministry, and providing those dismissed employees low compensations. In this regard, wasta is sometimes used as a tool for finding jobs that promotes a sense of career safety and protection. Also, the exacerbated weak role of the trade union representatives in protecting their members' rights forces people to depend on wasta as a proactive action to protect them from such threats (Ta'Amnha *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, employees less well connected or with fewer network relations will have weaker job security.

Furthermore, harsh economic conditions in Jordan are regarded as one of the main factors forcing people to use wasta (Abdalla, 2015). Jordanian national economy displays a slow growth, caused by many factors such as scarcity of natural resources, structural imbalances (traditional mind-sets and systems versus the need for modernization), slow integration into the global economy, the rapid growth of the population, increasing unemployment rates and lack of creation of employable skills (Abdalla, 2015; Sidani, et al., 2015; Fallah, Krafft and Wahba, 2019).

Jordanian economy performance is highly affected by the unstable political regional circumstances, specifically since the Arab Spring Revolutions in 2011 (Lozi, 2013). This highly social, political and economic unrest has imposed high pressure on Jordanian restricted resources economy. Furthermore, it is of paramount importance to mention in

such scenario the natural outcome of the massive influx of refugees, and also the high level of unemployment rates (Zetter, 2012; Fakhri and Ibrahim, 2016; Idris, 2016; Fallah, et al., 2019). This phenomenon fuels the ongoing huge competition between Jordanian and workers from other nationalities in what concerns job searching, which explains their resorting to *wasta* as a way to meet their objectives (Harry, 2007).

Furthermore, *wasta* is perceived as a source of pride, prestige and influence for both the intercessors and those who provide the assistance, and for the individual who has influential *wasta* connections. Indeed, *wasta* is deep-seated in Jordanian society because it enhances people's social status and success. This could explain the motivations for various parties to be involved in the *wasta* process and their promotion in Jordanian society (Whiteoak, Crawford and Mapstone, 2006).

2.6.3.3 Wasta and HRM Systems

In the Jordanian context, the influence and power that individuals enjoy in social settings are usually transferred into their organizational settings (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011; Kropf and Newbury-Smith, 2016). According to Tlaiss and Kauser (2011) analysis, *wasta* negatively influences decisions on recruitment, selection, training programs and career advancement opportunities. Metcalfe (2006). Ta'Amnha et al. (2016) reported that *wasta* has been penetrating many other HRM functions, such as performance appraisal results, promotions and rewards, which end up being based on individual relations, family and friendship networks rather than on individuals' abilities.

According to Hutchings and Weir (2006); Baranik and Wright (2018), *wasta* affects human resources management practices through its impact on employee's career advancement in the Arab countries, particularly in the Jordanian context. The authors clarify that managers in Arab organizations find themselves forced to practice *wasta* in order to fulfil their commitments and obligations toward their groups. Thus, HRM decisions are becoming subjective processes, largely influenced by personal contacts, regionalism, even by the family name. In this way, *wasta* does not base its decisions on

the beneficiaries' qualifications and abilities to meet organizational goals and objectives (Hutchings and Weir, 2006).

Whiteoak et al. (2006) indicated that *wasta* is the process of asking for assistance, which might not be available to other candidates competing for the same job or promotion. Thus, exercising *wasta* enhances career development for individuals who have reached their positions through befriending with influential people, but it is considered a hindrance for people who struggle to achieve their goals in legal ways, by acting according to rules (Cunningham, Sarayrah and Sarayrah, 1994; Harbi, Thursfield and Bright, 2017). In other words, *wasta* could undermine any form of fairness and equality between individuals by providing benefits to a group of them who may not necessarily deserve it (Arasli, Bavik and Ekiz, 2006; Metcalfe, 2006; Touzani, Jlassi, Maalaoui and Bel Haj Hassine, 2015). The major negative effects on organizations and people are discussed below.

Following the aforementioned rationale, the widespread use of *wasta* carries various negative aspects that do affect the management systems, not only in Jordan but also throughout the entire Arab world (Touzani *et al.*, 2015; Harbi, et al., 2017). The use of *wasta* has a harmful effect on the perception of justice within the organizations, where best resources and benefits are being monopolized and given to some people at the expense of others who may be more qualified or experienced (Thursfield, Al Harbi, and Bright, 2020).

Existing literature shows that *wasta* has a negative impact upon the satisfaction, commitment and citizenship behaviours, leading to low morale and high levels of stress and frustration in the workplace for unsupported employees with weak social relationship networks (Cropanzano and Stein, 2009; Megheirkouni and Weir, 2019). These attitudes render organizations ever more vulnerable to retaliation from dissatisfied employees who may feel discriminated or marginalized (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997; Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011).

Furthermore, Metcalfe (2006) concluded that employees who do not involve themselves in the *wasta* process are not given the chance to improve their careers and

enhance their living conditions. They do not get certain work-related benefits, such as job appointments or training opportunities, because these chances are usually provided to personal relationships and family networks rather than the individuals' qualifications and experiences (Baranik and Wright, 2018). Thus, organizations that resort to *wasta* practices are becoming undesirable places to work, especially for ambitious professional employees (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Arasli, et al., 2006).

Iles et al. (2012); Baranik and Wright (2018) portray *wasta* as unethical behaviour to access the scarce jobs and related benefits. The authors stressed that there are many harmful and prejudicial outcomes of the practice. These are perceptions of ill justice, thus lack of competition between employees, thereby leading to undesired behaviours, such as resentment and risk of retaliation, and destruction of equality in the workplace. Indeed, and most importantly, these trigger negative implications in the HR functions within any organization (Aldossari and Robertson, 2016; Budhwar *et al.*, 2018; Alsarhan and Valax, 2020).

Consequently, some authors argue that the organizations that draw on *wasta* practices will continue to operate inefficiently and may lose qualified individuals who are unable to progress further in their careers just because of their limited social network, which may have negative effects on the organizational performance as a whole (Arasli, et al., 2006; Harbi, et al., 2017). On the other hand, given the efforts that organizations in the Arab countries exert in terms of engaging in the globalization trend through ensuring equality for all employees, such *wasta* practices may harm the company image and reputation (Arasli, et al., Aldossari and Robertson, 2016).

Nonetheless, it is worth mentioning that not all organizations in Jordan are practising *wasta*. For example, the international organizations in Jordan, which work under a high level of governance from headquarters, impose high restrictions on practising *wasta* (Lane and Maeland, 2011). Such organizations apply objective criteria when making decisions related to human resources management. These organizations benefit from a good reputation and they are perceived as very successful companies in the Jordanian labour market (Weir, Sultan and Bunt, 2019).

Therefore, many local companies in Jordan have begun to take these organizations as a role model for success, and start to imitate their practices in order to be perceived attractive to high potential candidates, thus giving them the chance to enter the global labour markets (Sultana and Watts, 2008; Lane and Maeland, 2011). Many authors emphasized that a lot of Jordanian organizations increased their focus on modern HRM models, developing talented human resources, and adopting the western management approaches, mainly Anglo-Saxon (Fagenson, 1994; Abu-Doleh, 2000), because these practices were suggested to play a significant role in enhancing productivity and organizational performance (Abu-Doleh, 2000). Therefore, Jordanian organizations started to realize that embodying the *wasta* rationale in their businesses could negatively affect their competitiveness, which discouraged using *wasta* within their organizations (Sultana and Watts, 2008).

As a response to the negative effects of *wasta* principles in the Arab countries, organizations began establishing new environments in the workplace based on the recognition and appreciation of education, qualifications and experience of their employees rather than any other considerations in making career-related decisions (Brahms and Schmitt, 2017). In such environments, organizations are adopting fair HRM systems that include rewarding employees based on their real contributions, instead of their relationships (Al-Adamat and Alserhan, 2020). This procedure is important to stimulate an ambience where the level of employees' satisfaction and motivation towards their work will increase, and create the willingness to invest their resources to develop their human capital, besides the development of their knowledge and skills (Ta'Amnha *et al.*, 2016).

Additionally, Tlaiss and Kauser (2011); Baranik and Wrigh (2018) asserted that final recruitment and selection, training and development or promotion decisions should be based on specific criteria, such as experience, qualifications and real performance rather than *wasta* mechanisms. In this regard, efficient HRM systems could play a critical role by eliminating or - at least - minimizing the negative effects of *wasta* by setting clearer objective criteria in career-related decisions, such as recruiting, selecting, promoting,

training and development programs. Besides, transparent policies could be enacted, where promotions are based on real performance. Also, encouraging a work culture that values individuals' contributions and prompts them to improve their productivity, would certainly support the employees' career path and expectations across all levels, regardless of their diverse characteristics by instilling organizational practices drawing on a fair set of rules and regulations (Ta'Amnha *et al.*, 2016).

Through these proactive actions, the influence of *wasta* may begin to shrink to the degree that it may reduce employees' negative perceptions of the organizational practices as being unfair and discriminatory. In this light, it would facilitate the building of trust between employees and their organizations, through the reduction of the inequality and enhancing competitiveness between employees (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011; Ta'Amnha *et al.*, 2016; Baranik and Wright, 2018).

However, based on the above illustration, it is clear that *wasta* is widely practised in Jordanian society at all levels (El-Said and Harrigan, 2009). *wasta* in the Arab region as a whole is still highly prevalent in the management of the organization and has an effect of great magnitude on the employees' career development (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011). *Wasta* in the Jordanian context is regarded as a lifestyle. Recent studies argue that it seems unlikely to fade away in the near future, even though it is perceived as a corrupt procedure/practice and against the notion of justice and equal opportunities in society (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011; Aldossari and Robertson, 2016; Budhwar *et al.*, 2018).

This section on *wasta* meaning, motivations and implications shows that this phenomenon can result in the discrimination of many employees due to their origin (namely family and national) besides other different characteristics and end up impacting negatively on workplace diversity (Alsarhan and Valax, 2020). The next section will review the concept and relevance of managing diversity, and its relationship with HRM and OP, and some specific aspects regarding Arab countries. The pros and cons of national diversity are also briefly examined.

2.7 HRM and Managing Diversity

The Jordanian labour market and organizations are witnessing major changes and challenges, especially after the Syrian refugee crisis, which affected the HRM role (Fakih, and Ibrahim, 2016). The labour market in Jordan is made up of three main groups: Jordanians/locals, migrant worker and refugees. Workers belonging to each group vary significantly on different dimensions, such as education and skills levels, and family situation. Individuals also differ on their needs, preferences and expectations (Kattaa and Byrne, 2018; Assaad *et al.*, 2019). Consequently, Jordanian organizations must adopt strategies to attract, retain and manage workplace diversity. Since HR management approaches to diversity management can take different forms and vary among organizations, it is important to present a picture of diversity management (Abu Bakir, 2017; Aldaibat *et al.*, 2019). Firstly, some overall aspects of diversity management literature (mostly conducted in the Western context) are addressed (e.g. definition and relevance, diversity management in SMEs and large organizations) followed by the current status in the Arab countries. The challenges resulting from a diverse workforce (regarding nationality) will be addressed in the final subsection of this diversity management review.

The globalization of the business world today with huge diversity in the labour force has inspired many researchers to investigate the impact of the workforce diversity on organizational performance (Van Knippenberg and Schippers, 2007; Ravazzani, 2016; Triguero Sánchez *et al.*, 2016). However, the relationship between the HRM system, managing diversity, and organizational performance has many theoretical and empirical gaps and it is described as complex and ambiguous '*black box*' (Becker and Huselid, 1998, p. 97).

2.7.1 Diversity Management Meaning and Relevance

Van Knippenberg and Schippers (2007, p. 516) defined diversity as "*a characteristic of social grouping that reflects the degree to which objective or subjective differences exist between group members.*" This is consistent with Kreitz (2008, p. 2)

definition that diversity is *“any significant difference that distinguishes one individual from another, it is a description that covers a broad range of obvious and hidden qualities”*. According to Lu, Chen, Huang and Chien (2015, p. 858) diversity is *“The difference in individuals' characteristics or attributes that result in the perception that others are different from oneself”*.

Diversity literature differentiates between two main types of diversity characteristics. First, visible or bio-demographic characteristics such as race, age, and gender (Chatman and Flynn, 2001; Horwitz and Horwitz, 2007; Van Knippenberg, De Dreu and Homan, 2007; Martin-Alcazar, Romero-Fernandez and Sanchez-Gardey, 2012; Lu *et al.*, 2015). The second type is invisible or task-related/functional characteristics, which is linked to informational differences, such as workplace knowledge, skills, and abilities “KSAs”, educational and functional background, professional tenure, and expertise (Milliken and Martins, 1996; Dahlin, Weingart and Hinds, 2005; Van Der Vegt, Bunderson and Oosterhof, 2006; Scott, et al., 2011).

According to Benschop (2001), managing diversity characteristics, either visible or invisible, is considered one of the main challenges that HRM systems may have to tackle in today's organizations. Kreitz (2008, p. 3) perceives the workplace diversity management as *“a comprehensive managerial process for developing an environment that works for all employees.”* Magoshi and Chang (2009, p. 32) defined diversity management as *“companies' ability to give chances to and utilize the resources of people from diverse “cultures”, where culture could mean nationality, ethnic group, or gender”*. While Richard, Roh and Pieper (2013, p. 217) stated that diversity management is *“a strategy that firms use to more effectively capitalize on the opportunities that diversity offers”*.

2.7.2 HRM Systems, Organizational Performance and Diversity Management Relationship

Benschop (2001); Kossek, Lobel and Brown (2006) emphasized that traditional HRM-Performance models usually work under homogenization and similarity bases between employees and did not pay attention to how organizations respond to the

potential diversity of employees' characteristics. Furthermore, Annesley and Gains (2013) emphasized that HRM-Performance research deals with employees as a generic category regardless of the differences between them. The authors emphasized that full acknowledgement must be given to the differences between employees - even if they are treated as a homogeneous group - to determine employees' response to HR practices and their impact on the organization's performance (Guest, 2011; Triguero Sánchez *et al.*, 2016).

According to Yang and Konrad (2011), the main key to managing diversity effectively is realizing that diversity is not restricted only to the visible diversity characteristics, but needs to include other various dimensions, whereby people can be dissimilar in their internal and external qualities, personality traits, educational, nationalities and cultural background. In addition, Kreitz (2008) stated that the success of diversity management depends on how the organization perceives and addresses the diversity dimensions as social justice, or as part of the organization's responsibility only, or as some sort of strategic planning outcome. Furthermore, the organization should not traditionally deal with diversity issues, with narrow, limited, and short-sighted superficial view, through applying diversity initiatives equally for all employees, regardless of their differences (Cox and Blake, 1991; Kossek, et al., 2006; Boehm, et al., 2014; Annesley and Gains, 2013). Otherwise, the diversity characteristics will be meaningless and valueless (Benschop, 2001; Kossek et al., 2006; Boehm et al., 2014).

According to Benschop (2001), Annesley and Gains (2013), to achieve effectiveness in diversity management, the design and implementation of HRM activities should be influenced by strategic choices regarding diversity management. In other words, human resources management is considered to be the direct response to enact and apply diversity initiatives through strategic HR practices, such as recruitment and selection, group-based pay, merit-based promotion, advanced levels of training and development programs and self-managed teams (Jayne and Dipboye, 2004; Chavez and Weisinger, 2008; Armstrong, Flood, Guthrie, Liu, MacCurtain and Mkamwa, 2010; Scott, et al., 2011; Sabharwal, 2014). Indeed, such HR practices promote employees' knowledge,

skills, and abilities (KSA) and enable them to boost their motivation and efforts (Lepak, Liao, Chung and Harden, 2006). Hence, they lead to the favorable organizational outcomes. To do this effectively, Kossek et al., (2006) and Sharma (2016) suggested that policies related to diversity management should be planned and placed before HRM strategies are set, in addition to constant re-evaluation of the relationship between HRM and diversity through investigating the implications of heterogeneity in the organizational daily practices (Benschop, 2001).

Accordingly, many scholars argued that adopting specific HRM practices coping with diversity aspects and assuring that employees are working as one team (Dwyer, et al., 2003), and doing their tasks with a high investment of their abilities and skills, which will increase the group-level outcomes, will, in turn, improve organizational performance (Benschop, 2001; Scott, et al., 2011). There is evidence that diversity outcomes play a significant role in the achievement of organizational performance and reaching organization's sustained competitive advantage (McMillan-Capehart, 2005; Kossek, et al., 2006; Boehm, Kunze and Bruch, 2014).

In light of the above explanation, managing diversity is one of the main serious challenges that HRM system in any organization has to address (Madera, Dawson and Neal, 2018). Friday and Friday (2003) stated that individuals prefer to work within homogeneous groups, and they resist any change. Thus, the challenge HR managers encounter is to stimulate employees' readiness to work with other diverse workers despite differences in values, experiences, culture, problem-solving style or any other diverse characteristics. This requires an effective HRM system that stimulates workers to adopt positive thoughts and attitudes towards diversity issues through daily actions at all levels (Friday and Friday, 2003; Kreitz, 2008).

2.7.3 Diversity Management in the Arab Countries Context

Tlaiss and Kauser (2011) emphasized that few studies in the Arab countries, particularly in Jordan have addressed the diversity issues and their impact on organizational performance. Consequently, the diversity management issues emerged in

the Arab world, specifically in Jordan, as a new workplace challenge along with increasing globalization combined with cutting-edge technology (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 1995). However, research concerning HRM – diversity management practices in developing countries are characterized as modest, immature, not based on empirical evidence, and mostly anecdotal (Afana, 2004). A series of revision of the existing literature showed the shortage of comprehensive systematic analysis of how HRM systems in third world countries deal with heterogeneous workforces' issues (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 1995; Dutta and Magableh, 2006; Ravazzani, 2016).

However, the Arab societies are witnessing major political, social and economic changes that impact significantly the structures of labour markets and manpower (Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner, 2010; Rodriguez and Scurry, 2014; Matherly and Al Nahyan, 2015). Hence, organizations and employees have to be highly adaptive and responsive to both internal and external contexts to be successful under huge competition in the business world today, by focusing on talent, interpersonal communication and diversity management issues (Singh and Sharma, 2015; Budhwar *et al.*, 2018). In the same line of thought, Goby *et al.* (2015) emphasized the importance of generating a positive diversity climate based on Arab cultural traditions in managing the diverse workforce that comprises both local and non-local workers in the organization (Al-Husan and James, 2003; Mellahi and Frynas, 2003; Budhwar *et al.*, 2018)

Jordanian labour market's features fall under the national diversity profile. It has large numbers of workers from different nationalities, the majority from Egypt, Palestine, Iraq and East Asia. In addition to massive Syrian workers who entered the Jordanian labour market after the Syrian crisis in 2011 (Assaad *et al.*, 2019). The negative and positive aspects of existing national diversity in the workplace will be discussed in detail in the next section.

2.7.4 Workforce Diversity: Positive and Negative Aspects of National Diversity in the Workplace

According to existing literature, employees with different nationalities working together in the same workplace can be beneficial as well as negative for an organization.

Some scholars focusing on nationality as a characteristic of diversity argued that a heterogeneous group can impact positively on organizational performance (Triguero Sánchez *et al.*, 2016). Group heterogeneity could embody diverse viewpoints, perspectives, knowledge, skills, abilities and experiences that enrich the workplace with innovative ideas, in addition to opinions that could develop new solutions and solve problems (Benschop, 2001; Muchiri and Ayoko, 2013; Opstrup and Villadsen, 2015). Furthermore, Scott *et al.* (2011) and Sharma (2016) asserted that organizations that employ individuals from diverse nationalities may create a good reputation and attract more customers. Diversity in terms of nationalities endows the organizations with more comprehensive skills to better understand their consumers' demands and thus gain their trust (Triguero-Sanchez, *et al.*, 2016).

On the other hand, other scholars asserted that national diversity has a negative impact on the workgroup performance. It may increase emotional conflicts and communication problems, which are the result of racism and other discriminatory attitudes towards other nationalities and cultural values, (McMillan-Capehart, 2005; Subeliani and Tsogas, 2005), and may create two speech categories in the workplace: 'us' and 'them' (Milliken and Martins, 1996).

According to Muchiri and Ayoko, (2013), the cultural differences are clearly shown during daily interactions between employees, such as behaviours, attitudes, ways of expressing agreement and disagreement and participating in decision-making processes (Rosenzweig, 1998; Boehm, *et al.*, 2014). Such differences could lead to friction, misunderstanding, conflict, painful and embarrassing diversity incidents (Milliken and Martins, 1996). Ibarra (1995, p. 423) attributed such negative results to '*homophily phenomenon*', where people are more likely to feel attracted and committed to others that are in some way similar to them. Thus, group members feel less sense of belonging to a diverse group and this aspect may affect the organizational performance negatively (Milliken and Martins, 1996; Boxall and Purcell, 2000; Benschop, 2001; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). On the other hand, Rosenzweig (1998) stated that alternative solutions

suggested by diverse employees may take more time and effort to become consensual, hence making it more difficult to reach an agreement.

To avoid such negative impacts of national diversity in the workplace, the development of diversity climate framework through adopting socialization and integration initiatives is highly needed to facilitate workforce integration (Goby et al., 2015). Matherly and Al Nahyan (2015); Goby et al. (2015) and Budhwar et al. (2018) focused their studies on the effective role of human resource managers in securing a fair and equitable environment for all employees, regardless of their nationalities and origins. The authors asserted that such organizations should address the cultural and national diversity aspects to avoid discrimination and racism exercises in the workplace (Harcourt, Lam, Harcourt and Flynn, 2008). This could result in improvement of the selection procedures, investment in training programs, efficient use of qualifications and experience; establishing an effective policy of exchanging knowledge, adopting diversity management initiatives, and applying robust performance appraisal system based on the real performance of employees (Horwitz and Horwitz, 2007; Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner, 2010; Matherly and Al Nahyan, 2015; Singh and Sharma, 2015; Budhwar *et al.*, 2018).

2.8 HRM Practices

This section presents an overview of the HRM practices that will be explored in the empirical study, specifically Recruitment and Selection, Training and Development, Organizational Socialization and Integration and Performance Appraisal Systems. The definition and relevance of each practice are discussed, and the main steps involved in its process are also analyzed. Each subsection addresses the correspondent practice in terms of its application in SMEs versus large organizations. Finally, a brief state of the art regarding each practice in the Middle East region specifically the Arab countries is presented, with a specific focus on Jordan whenever possible.

2.8.1 Recruitment and Selection (R&S)

Recruitment and selection (R&S) are regarded as essential functions in any HRM system since these two procedures play a decisive role in drawing the human capital, which is considered as one of the most important strategic resources in the organization (Buller and McEvoy, 2012; Barber, 2013).

2.8.1.1 Recruitment and Selection (R&S): Definition and Relevance

According to Asiedu-Appiah, Poku and Bamfo (2013, p. 177) R&S represent the first phase of '*psychological contract*' between the organization and the applicant, where both parties exchange mutual information and they shed light on each other's expectations and negotiate the conditions.

In what concerns the recruitment process, Bratton and Gold (2007, p. 245) stated that it is '*the method of producing a "pool of" competent individuals "to apply for" work to a company*'. Zinyemba (2014, p. 29) defined it as '*a process of actively seeking potential candidates in sufficient numbers and qualities to fill vacant positions within the organization*'. According to Brandão, Silva and Santos (2019, p. 273) recruitment is '*the process of attracting a pool of candidates to a particular position, followed by the Selection phase*'. Recently, Bhosle (2020, p. 248) defined recruitment as '*a continuous process whereby the firm attempts to develop a pool of qualified applicants for the future human resources needs even though specific vacancies do not exist*'. The authors emphasized that the recruitment process should be based on a systematic approach to attract and co-opt qualified and competent people to work, either from internal or external sources depending on the organization's size and needs (Ofori and Aryeetey, 2011; Kumari, 2012; Kanu, 2015).

With regard to the selection process, Asiedu-Appiah .et al, (2013, p. 77) defined it as '*the process of choosing the person(s) from the pool of potential candidates who meet the requirement of the vacancies identified in the organization*'. According to Zinyemba (2014, p. 29) selection is '*the process of choosing or selecting the right candidate from a pool of potential candidates who have applied for a job*'. Kanu (2015, p. 254–255) stated that selection is '*the process of selecting people who possess the skills necessary to do*

particular jobs', and 'the practice through which a company discovered individuals with the expertise, capabilities, talents as well as other qualities that will assist it to accomplish its objectives'.

Several authors emphasized that the importance of the R&S process is to get the required employees' quantity and quality at minimum costs to satisfy the organization's needs of human resource to accomplish organizational tasks (Ofori and Aryeetey, 2011; Dmitrieva *et al.*, 2015). Accordingly, R&S policy is considered as a cornerstone of any effective HRM system and draws on basic criteria to achieve productivity and organizational performance effectiveness (Buller and McEvoy, 2012; Omolo, Oginda and Oso, 2012; Asiedu-appiah, et al., 2013; Gamage, 2014; Kanu, 2015; Pradani and Soegiono, 2020; Sinha, 2020). To achieve such positive relationship, Zinyemba (2014) emphasized the importance of preparing accurate job descriptions before advertising the vacancies that identify the required skills and competencies to meet all the objectives as established by the organization. If the job description procedure is duly prepared, it will attract the skilled candidates and help the organization to strategize its future performance (Hunter, Shortland, Crayne and Ligon, 2017) The effective R&S process should be transparent in every stage, reducing the risk of bias or discrimination, ensuring privacy and observance of equal opportunity and compliance with the legislation in force (Hunter, Cushenbery and Friedrich, 2012; Zinyemba, 2014; Hunter *et al.*, 2017).

Buller and McEvoy (2012) emphasized that R&S decisions are the basis for all subsequent organizational decisions to be taken later. It is a proactive step to ensure that the organization has the required skills and experienced employees at the right time (Sinha, 2020). Many authors asserted that R&S help the organization to make rational decisions about the potential applicants (Hunter, et al., 2012; Hunter *et al.*, 2017). These procedures also allow to determining human resources' future requirements to meet the organizational goals in view of the internal and external environmental factors, such as working systems, technology in use and contingency variables (Asiedu-Appiah *et al.* 2013). The effective R&S process includes attracting enough numbers of individuals (quantity) with required skills and talent (quality), which increases the chances for a more

effective selection among them. Hence, this renders the organization's performance more effective (Hunter et al., 2017).

On the contrary, poor R&S procedures could generate costly mistakes for the organization (Sinha, 2020). It makes every part of the organization less effective and may leave a legacy of problems and require extensive time and effort to be resolved (Greenidge, Alleyne, Parris and Grant, 2012; Asiedu-appiah, et al., 2013). Adopting a non-systematic R&S approach will result in employing inappropriate people, thus leading to work deficiencies, increased turnover rates, less productivity and profitability (Gamage, 2014; Khatri, 2019; Sinha, 2020). To sum up, more effective and a well-defined R&S policy is a key component in preparing the organization for success (Gamage, 2014). Simply, it is the war for talent (Chambers *et al.*, 1998; McDonnell, 2011).

2.8.1.2 Recruitment and Selection (R&S) Process: Main Stages

The systematic R&S process consists of many phases, starting with the job analysis phase, which includes identifying requirements, preparing job descriptions and specifications, in addition to deciding the employment terms and conditions (Asiedu-appiah, et al., 2013). Rahman and Nower (2020, p. 334) defined Job analysis as '*a systematic and detailed study of job-related information such as skills, knowledge and responsibilities related to the specific job position*'. According to Rahman and Nower (2020) conducting job analysis regularly is one of the most HR managers' major activities. Job analysis is the pillar of the most key HR activities, such as recruitment, selection, socialization, training and development, performance appraisal, rewards and compensation (Byars and Rue, 2004). Therefore, it is considered a critical strategic tool through which the organizations can safeguard an effective HRM that can affect the overall performance of the organizations (Rahman & Nower, 2020).

The second stage is the candidate attraction phase. In this phase, the HR manager has to decide which recruitment method and source should be adopted based on each method and source advantages and disadvantages (Gberevbie, 2006). Then the HR manager should review and evaluate the candidate's application either from inside

'internal' or outside 'external' the organization (Ofori and Aryeetey, 2011). Finally, the candidate selection phase, where managers seek to reduce the candidates' applications to the appropriate number. The candidates are then subjected to the pre-selection step where they are selected, interviewed, tested, and assessed. This phase is based on rejection instead of selection (Dmitrieva *et al.*, 2015). Robbins and Coulter (1999) perceive staff selection as an exercise in prediction. It is a hard and serious trial to prophesy which applicants will be successful if hired (Gberevbie, 2006). Candidates who successfully pass this phase will be transferred to the actual selection procedures, that include offering employment, obtaining references and preparing contracts of employment (Priyanath, 2010; Ofori and Aryeetey, 2011). According to Asiedu-appiah *et al.*, (2013), the effective selection process evaluates to what extent the candidates fit the job requirements and complies with all applicable legislation.

2.8.1.3 Recruitment Methods and Sources

The recruitment practice could be broadly divided into two main methods: internal and external, each of them with its advantages and disadvantages (Khatri, 2019). According to Muscalu (2015), adopting effective recruitment sources is an essential procedure in the recruitment process. The author emphasized that identifying the choice between these sources depends on many considerations such as cost, the time needed to apply, nature of job intended to fill, the degree of the competitive environment the organization work in, in addition to assuring the increasing chances of attracting candidates as well as prepared and competitive.

Kumari (2012) argued that to fill the positions in an organization, the priority should be given to internal recruitment method before undertaking external recruitment procedures. Actually, all workers who are already working in an organization constitute the internal sources for internal recruitment method (Khatri, 2019). Internal methods could be applied through different forms such as announcements via job posting, employee referrals, promotions, transfers, job rotation and inter alia (Ofori and Aryeetey,

2011). Furthermore, Khatri (2019) stated that when a worker from inside the organization is moved, promoted or even downsized is consider as internal recruitment resource.

In this regard, Hunter et al. (2017) referred that despite the benefits of internal recruitment in saving time and money, and increasing job commitment and loyalty among current employees, it may prevent the organization from experiencing the advantages of external recruitment sources, which may, in turn, hinder its contribution to achieving organizational goals (Asiedu-appiah, et al., 2013). In this regard, external recruitment can present many disadvantages in terms of relatively high cost in comparison with internal sources, as well as length process. It is a more time-consuming and -somehow- tedious process that requires the allocation of time and effort to screen, test and choose the appropriate candidates, and sometimes the replication of those steps to reach the right people (Khatri, 2019). But recruiting from the outside also entail many advantages, due to a wider pool of applicants, the injection of “new blood” with new ideas, knowledge and skills, increased creativity, diverse experiences, that may enrich the organizational culture and relieve workloads with the redistribution of tasks (Al-Khasawneh, Malkawi and AlGarni, 2018; Khatri, 2019).

The most common types of external recruitment sources can be summarized as follow: advertising, word of mouth, relatives and friends, newspapers, employees’ reference, temporary recruitment, employment agencies, educational institutions and the previous applicants (Abor and Quartey, 2010; Zinyemba, 2014).

Advertising is one of the most popular sources in external recruitment to fill vacant positions because it generates a large pool of applicants to select from (Abor and Quartey, 2010; Zinyemba, 2014). Traditional advertising resorts to printed media sources, like newspapers, magazines and billboards, but also audio sources, such as radio and television. Additionally, other sources are used, namely recruitment agencies, job fairs, labour unions (Ofori and Aryeetey, 2011). More recently, new forms of advertising emerged as a source of candidates, through internet websites, and online recruitment (Brandão, et al., 2019).

In light of the above, there are different methods and sources for recruiting job applicants, each of them with advantages and disadvantages. Most organizations use different methods and sources, depending on various aspects, such as the nature of the job to be filled, the costs associated and the budget to recruit, and the time and urgency to fill the vacant position. According to Eva (2018), the main challenge for the human resource manager in this regard is to determine which is the best source to announce the job vacancy (Cassell *et al.*, 2002). The wrong choice means limiting the recruitment pool, thus, failing to reach the targeted candidates, in addition to incurring in severe financial losses (Zinyemba, 2014). Despite intensive research on the effectiveness of recruitment sources, the literature still presents various inconsistent results (Zottoli and Wanous, 2000).

The selection process consists of many phases aimed at assisting the HR manager in hiring the most qualified applicant for a specific job (Eva, 2018). A brief explanation for each phase can be presented as follows:

1. Preliminary Interview: the main purpose is to exclude all misfits' applications based on pre-determined criteria in application forms. The basic objective is to eliminate unqualified candidates for the required job conditions (Chungyalpa and Karishma, 2016).

2. Selection Tests: applicants who pass the preliminary interviews move to the next step, that comprises tests. Each job has its tests, and it may differ from one organization to another for the same job. These tests aim to examine applicant ability, knowledge, skills and competencies, and to what extent he/she can perform the job-related tasks well. Some of these tests are assessment centres, written ability tests, work-sample tests, integrity test, psychometric tests, personality tests, physical tests, individual/ group exercise test, medical test, aptitude tests, ability tests, graphology test, etc. (Chungyalpa and Karishma, 2016).

3. Employment Interview: after subjecting the candidates to the tests and excluding those who did not succeed, takes place the employment interview. Usually, job interviews are characterized by a formal and in-depth debate between the applicant and the interviewer. Interviews can take many forms: one-on-one interview, panel interview,

or sequential interviews. In addition, all these interviews types can be structured and unstructured, depending on the use of a pre-set of questions or not (Ryan and Tippins, 2004).

4. Checking References: it entails verifying the accuracy of information provided by the candidates in the résumé or interviews. This could be done by sending formal letters or emails or inquire by phone people who have had previous experience with a job candidate to provide an evaluation for him/her. Commonly, this step is regarded as a routine procedure, and the final selection decision is rarely dependent on that result (Ryan and Tippins, 2004).

5. Final Selection Decision: after applicants pass all above selection process procedures successfully, and the picture became clear to the interviewers based on the necessary information, the most critical step is the final selection decision. It is '*Getting the Right People on the Bus.*' as described by Russell and Brannan (2016, p. 1). In this step, the opinion of line managers should be considered, since the line manager will be responsible for the new employee's performance (Eva, 2018).

6. Job Offer: the last step in the selection process before the applicant becomes a formal member of the organization is job offer (letter of appointment) (Icheme, Ezenwakwelu and Owuze Cletus, 2017).

2.8.1.4 Recruitment and Selection in Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) Versus Large Organizations

Since all organizations are struggling to find suitable candidates to achieve their goals (Guthrie, 2001; Nasir, 2017), the R&S process is considered the basic function for building human capital in any organization regardless of its size. Hunting exceptional human talents is a source of sustained competitive advantage for small, medium and large organizations (Hunter et al., 2017).

SMEs tend to be more human resource-dependent and quite often lack explicit formal R&S practices comparing with large organizations (Magableh, et al., 2011). In SMEs, the major functions are usually carried out by individuals rather than departments whereby one employee may perform other tasks besides his/her primary function, such

as follow up the office administrative tasks, customer relations and marketing (Magableh, et al., 2011; Melo and Machado, 2013). This could help to explain why SMEs tend to adopt informal and unstructured R&S practices (Tanova, 2003; Lockyer and Scholarios, 2004; Bacon and Hoque, 2005). Such lack of systematic R&S procedures may negatively affect SMEs performance, thus, its lifetime (Asiedu-appiah, et al., 2013; Melo and Machado, 2013; Kanu, 2015).

Priyanath (2010); Sheehan (2014) emphasized that the lack of effective recruiting and selecting procedures is one of the main challenges facing HR managers or their representatives in SMEs. Usually, in SMEs, the vacancies are filled through internal employment sources, such as family members and personal relations in an attempt to save time and money (Priyanath, 2010). Nonetheless, due to high turnover rates and inability to retain workers, the owner/manager may seek to fill vacancies through external sources to cover a labour shortage (Priyanath, 2010; Asiedu-appiah et al., 2013; Gamage, 2014).

Furthermore, Greenidge et al. (2012) and Zinyemba (2014) argue that most SMEs may not be able to meet the costs of media advertising, which can result in a small and less-qualified pool of candidates. To overcome this challenge, online recruitment or E-recruitment has emerged as a new trend for most organizations (Brandão et al., 2019) either large, medium or small (Holm, 2012). With the spread of social media networks as Facebook, Instagram, YouTube and Twitter, job vacancies are placed on recruitment websites, making it easier for more potential candidates to submit their applications (Melanthiou, Pavlou and Constantinou, 2015). But it also entails negative aspects, such as consuming a lot of time to choose the appropriate candidates and the fact that it may not apply to those candidates with few digital competences (Buller and McEvoy, 2012; Villeda and McCamey, 2019). Despite these constraints, some authors claim that organizations that are unable to use E-recruitment may fail to reach the targeted market (Zinyemba, 2014; Melanthiou et al., 2015).

However, some authors argue that SMEs are sometimes less attractive to jobseekers when compared to large organizations (Tanova, 2003; Greenidge et al., 2012)

and therefore may prevent them for applying for the job. This negative perception regarding SMEs may stem from the lack of a systematic approach to recruiting and selecting procedures (Asiedu--Appiah et al., 2013) and a less favourable image and reputation in the target market.

Although R&S practices in SMEs more often than not fail to follow formal procedures, and lack consistency, depending heavily on the personal judgment of the owner/managers who may have little or no expertise in this field, they are less bureaucratic, less cumbersome and more time saving when compared to large organizations (Greenidge et al., 2012; Asiedu-appiah et al., 2013).

However, recruiting refugees in host societies still suffer from many limitations (Jokisaari and Nurmi, 2009). Insofar it relates to worries from employers' side to take the risk of hiring refugees. For example, in SMEs, the owners/ managers are cautious when hiring non-host country employees, taking in their consideration the high turnover rates for them (Jokisaari and Nurmi, 2009; Malik, Cooper-Thomas and Zikic, 2014). Usually, the jobs they offer refugees tend to be with low wages, long work hours and regarded as achieving the employers' interests instead of a stepping-stone for the refugees' socialization and integration process (Desiderio, 2016). This issue will be explained in further details in the next chapter.

2.8.1.5 Recruitment and Selection in the Arab Countries Context

As previously indicated in this chapter, human resources management systems in the Arab region lack systematic and organized procedures. Being a core function of the HRM systems, R&S in the Arabic region still suffer from deficiencies and shortcomings (Ta'Amnha et al., 2016). Furthermore, in developing economies, Opute (2020) argued that R&S processes are characterized by unplanned procedures, and highly dependent on word of mouth, especially for lower positions, which in turn increases the chances of nepotism and paternalism. R&S procedures tend to differ and be better managed in the case of senior positions due to the restricted number of candidates being recruited.

The phenomenon of *wasta* (discussed in a previous section) also occurs in the workplace and is regarded as a key determinant of the R&S decisions. When a person is applying for a job or a promotion, the *wasta* person is contacted and his/her help is requested. The *wasta* person could be a direct friend or known through acquaintances (Hutchings and Weir, 2006). As a result, the organization may be obligated to employ a weak unskilled candidate, because it is confined by mutual obligations, and this favour must be returned by the norm of reciprocity (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011).

In this regard, *wasta* is one of the major HRM challenges, especially when it is perceived as contributing to nepotism and corruption at the workplace and is against the Islamic principles of equity and equality (Ta'Amnha et al., 2016). *Wasta* is perceived as a powerful and pervasive social mechanism, which has strong roots in cultural traditions and known to underpin the employment relationship in Arabic societies (Mohamed and Hamdy, 2008).

According to Tlaiss and Kauser (2011, p. 473) *'who you know is more important than what you actually know'*, which means that *wasta* is more important than the candidates' qualifications and work experiences. Therefore, individuals in the Arab countries need to have family members or friends in high positions to be appointed for a good job (Ta'Amnha et al., 2016).

In the study conducted by El-Kot and Leat (2008) the dominance of personal relationships over the tasks and responsibilities is highlighted, and the prevalence of loyalty to the clan and friendship over the organizational loyalty emerges as the main feature of organizational culture in the Egyptian context (as a developing country), where nepotism is common in recruitment and promotion practices. The authors pointed out that the potential for R&S through networks of friends, relatives and family members by word-of-mouth and referrals are common methods for searching and hiring people.

Accordingly, selection decisions in SMEs in the Arab context are highly influenced by the owner/ manager's judgments, values, beliefs, and social views, therefore it is difficult to rule out the possibility of biases, nepotism, and favouritism (Hornsby and Kuratko, 2003; Kanu, 2015; Hunter et al., 2017; Nasir, 2017). According to Zinyemba

(2014, p.30), nepotism and favouritism is *“the practice of unfairly giving the best jobs to members of your family when you are in a position of power”*. Some of owners/ managers of SMEs believe that relatives or friends (from referrals) could learn how to do the job and get experience later (Hornsby and Kuratko, 2003; Zinyemba, 2014). Such attitudes may prevent real qualified potential applicants from applying for jobs because they believe it is a waste of their time since they will not be selected (Asiedu-Appiah, et al., 2013; Zinyemba, 2014).

Although wasta affects HRM activities, the phenomenon has received little attention from business scholars in Jordan (P. Budhwar and Mellahi, 2007; Altarawneh and Aldehayyat, 2011; Aladwan, et al., 2014). Wasta mechanism has to be addressed due to its effects on human resource management in the Jordanian context. Mohammad (2011) found in his research that although the R&S practices in the private sector in Jordan, particularly in the communication sector, takes into account behaviour-based criteria and education skills, interpersonal relations and nepotism are still very common.

Wasta phenomenon often leads to hiring unqualified people, who later prove unable to meet job responsibilities due to their lack of knowledge or skills. Re-qualifying those employees and solving the problems they often create requires considerable resources affecting the productivity and competitiveness detrimentally, thus resulting in poor organizational performance (Hayajenh, Maghrabi and Al-Dabbagh, 1994; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997; Roos, Edvinsson and Roos, 1998; Kolb, Boyatzis and Mainemelis, 2001; Warren, Dunfee and Li, 2004; Touzani *et al.*, 2015).

In order to survive in today's highly competitive business environment, organizations in the Arab world should recognize that they have to recruit and select the most talented people and take advantage of skills and abilities of individuals regardless of their social connections (Alkalha et al., 2012). It is imperative for human resource management in organizations operating in the Arab world to consider their cultural and structural practices in order to address any discrimination that may occur because of wasta (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011). Organizations and managers should fully recognize the dynamics of wasta, how it works and how it affects their business at all levels. This

concern could help organizations to establish healthy workplace environments that aim to reduce preferential treatment based on *wasta*, and those who do not have access to a *wasta* would not feel that their employers are favouring others (Mellahi et al., 2018).

Since *wasta* plays the main role in achieving individual interests such as finding a job, and exclude those who are not part of the “tribe”, family, and lack the appropriate networks in society and the workplace, it creates the feelings of unfairness, prejudice, and favouritism among the “excluded”. These negative effects not only harm some subgroups in Jordan but also the locals themselves in terms of their socio-economical status (El-Said and Harrigan, 2009; Alwerthan, Swanson and Rogge, 2018).

For refugees living in very poor socio-economic conditions, the pervasive and obscure *wasta* mechanism tends to increase their vulnerability (Stevens, 2016; Brady, 2017). Stevens (2016) attributes this to the bad feelings that refugees feel in asylum status, making it more difficult for international aid agencies and institutions of civil society to promote good social relations between refugees and locals in host societies. Since Syrians do not have access to the most influential people and prestigious networks the chances of being hired decrease dramatically. Thus, the widespread utilization of *wasta*, especially under the poor economic situation, can damage the whole social fabric, jeopardizing the relationships between locals and migrants but among locals too (Stevens, 2016; Root, 2020).

2.8.2 Organizational Socialization and Integration

Employees are considered a critical resource for any organization (Mathis and Jackson, 2011; Maaitah, Alias and Maaitah, 2018). Their knowledge, skills, abilities and experiences are essential factors for organizational success and achievement of competitive advantages. Therefore, many organizations are investing a lot of time, money and effort to recruit and train new employees, and support their integration and socialization within the organization’s workforce (Malik, et al., 2014; Malik and Manroop, 2017; Song, Liu, Shi and Wang, 2017). The next subsections analyze the concepts and relevance of integration and socialization, the main tactics and HRM initiatives, its

measurement in light of organizational outcomes, and presents an overview of these processes in the Arab countries, with a particular focus on its implementation in Jordan.

2.8.2.1 Socialization and Integration: Definition and Relevance

The socialization concept was introduced to the management field for the first time by Schein in 1968. He argued that organizational social integration is a process where the employees teach and learn the organization's rules. Later, many authors proposed their definitions of organizational socialization. For example, Louis (1980, pp. 229–230) defined socialization as *'the process by which an individual comes to appreciate the values, abilities, expected behaviors, and social knowledge essential for assuming an organizational role and for participating as an organizational member'*. According to Morrison (1993, p. 173), socialization is *'the process of learning behaviors and attitudes necessary for assuming a role in an organization'*. This is consistent with Klein and Weaver (2000, p. 47) who argued that socialization is *'the process by which employees learn about and adapt to new jobs, roles, and cultures of the workplace'*. Cooper and Anderson (2006, p. 492) defined it as *'the process through which a new organizational employee adapts from outsider to integrated and effective insider. It takes place whenever an employee crosses an organizational boundary, whether this is external (i.e., between organizations) or internal (e.g., functional, hierarchical)'*. Korac (2003, p. 53) emphasized that the organizational social integration is a term that *'is used to describe the process of change that occurs when two cultures are forced to co-exist within one society'*. Recently, Abu-Doleh and Obeidat (2018, p. 79) defined the concept of organizational socialization as *'a way of understanding and learning attitudes and behaviors encompassing newcomers within the organization, and it is a means to ensure coordination between employees and newcomers'*.

The main core aspects of the organizational integration process entail the learning process by which individuals adapt to new jobs, roles, learn patterns of expected behaviors and organizational culture, and adjust to their new workplace (Klein and Weaver, 2000; Malik and Manroop, 2017). When new employees realize values, abilities,

expected behaviors and organizational norms, it will result in assuming an organizational role and participating as an effective organizational member (Strang and Ager, 2010). Malik and Manroop (2017) argue that at the core of the organizational integration process is the person's ability to integrate and participate in all of the major components of the workplace, without having to relinquish his or her own cultural identity. According to Klein and Weaver, (2000); Malik and Manroop (2017); Song et al. (2017) the conceptualization of the organizational social integration refers to a nonstop development process, that focus on learning the values and norms for newcomers to become a proactive member in the organization.

Alipour, Mohammed and Raghuram (2018) claim that the integration climate creates a state of high awareness of diverse characteristics among employees that will reduce the potential conflicts among them, thereby affecting the team's performance positively. The organizational integration initiatives in a broad sense are not only limited to surface-level or demographic characteristics, but they also go further to include deep-level or psychological characteristics that enhance a culture of acceptance and respect among all employees at the workplace (Van Knippenberg and Schippers, 2007; Jokisaari and Nurmi, 2009).

It is worth mention that the organizational integration should be understood as a two-way process, rather than a kind of medication that newcomers could take to fit in at a new workplace, instead, it should be perceived as a shared social responsibility of all parties: management, local and new employees (Korac, 2003; Bloch, 2008). In this regard, both organizations and newcomers participate in the socialization process, whereby the former implement a diversity of socialization tactics and the later are expected to adopt adjustment strategies (Malik and Manroop, 2017).

Accordingly, Forstenlechner (2010); Williams, Bhanugopan and Fish (2011) and Karam (2017) emphasized that with no sufficient attention to employees' integration into organizations it could lead to unfavourable effects in the long run. Effective human resources practices such as career management, effective training improvement, and

organizational socialization initiatives such as mentoring, and networking tactics are considered as reasons for efficient socialization and integration.

In this regard, Karam (2017) emphasized that effective organizational socialization processes play a critical role in creating a healthy organizational climate among employees which will affect their organizational commitment, and result in less turnover intentions and increase retention. The author asserts that the prevalence of a culture of respect and acceptance of others is the cornerstone of socialization initiatives.

2.8.2.2 Organizational Socialization and Integration: Organizational and Individual Tactics

According to some authors, there is scant literature on organizational socialization and integration (Malik, et al., 2014; Malik and Manroop, 2017). Van Maanen and Schein (1979) have developed a model that explains the socialization process and employees' role performance. The model outlined six bipolar tactics that the organization's management may adopt to influence newcomers' socialization that is synthesized as follows. Collective versus Individual: whether newcomers are socialized in groups or individually. Formal versus Informal: whether or not newcomers are segregated from insiders during the socialization phase. Sequential versus Random: whether or not newcomers are told explicitly about the sequencing of planned socialization events. Fixed versus Variable: whether or not there is an explicit and fixed timetable for completing the various socialization stages. Serial versus Disjunctive: whether or not previous job incumbents are available as role models for newcomers. Finally, Investiture versus Divestiture: whether or not newcomers receive positive social support from insiders (Cooper-Thomas and Anderson, 2006).

Later, based on Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) model, another model was developed by Jones (1986) whereby the above six categories are grouped into two main tactics: individualized (which focuses on features of individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive and divestiture), and institutionalized (that includes features of collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial and investiture).

With regard to the individual socialization tactics, McMillan-Capehart (2005) argued that it could be helpful for newcomers to adjust to their new environment, but it does not provide them with the opportunity to connect with their supervisors to encourage or accelerate creativity (Friesen, 2011). In other words, with these individuals' tactics, the newcomers will have to create their sense of the work environment based on what they observe and experience (Malik and Manroop, 2017); hence, it may negatively affect their understanding of their jobs' roles (Jokisaari and Nurmi, 2009). Therefore, the individual integration tactics have eliminated the main purpose of the integration process, which is based on collectivism dimension, not the individualist dimension (Jones, 1986; Shinnar, 2007; Turchick Hakak, Holzinger and Zikic, 2010; Zikic, 2015).

Extant research shows that the institutionalized tactics are positively correlated with newcomers' learning, job satisfaction, employee's commitment, less role ambiguity and fewer turnover intentions (Ashforth and Saks, 1996; Bauer, Bodner, Tucker, Erdogan and Truxillo, 2007). Furthermore, McMillan and Lopez (2001) argued that institutionalized tactics may increase the person-organization fit in culturally diverse settings. However, some authors sustain that the institutionalized tactics are more effective than the individualized because they achieve the main core of the integration process, which is collectivism (Howard and Rothbart, 1980).

Recently, Malik and Manroop (2017) have proposed customization of the socialization tactics for newcomers which combines Van Maanen and Schein's model (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979) model and Jones' model (Jones, 1986) with several existing tactics, such as formal, random, variable, and serial, which have never been proposed to be used together before. This approach is intended to enhance recent immigrant newcomers' adjustment and integration in the workplace. The authors expect that this merge between the two above models is likely to increase the newcomers' confidence and generate positive feelings toward the organization because they would perceive that their cultural differences are valued and respected (Jokisaari and Nurmi, 2009; Song et al., 2017). Furthermore, newcomers will have a chance to know their colleagues and share job experiences with them. Daily interactions would allow newcomers to know more

about their role, and further their understanding about which social patterns and behaviours are acceptable, thus, steer the establishment of informal relationships with co-workers and facilitate their integration into the workplace (Malik and Manroop, 2017).

2.8.2.3 Socialization and Integration for Newcomers

Newcomers may face different issues once they start to work, such as understanding the workplace behaviours and attitudes, and communication styles (Song et al., 2017). When the organizational management realizes that newcomers are in a new country, a new organization and a new work environment – which is too much for any new employee - it requires applying some adjustments and initiatives for the newcomers, local employees and managers (Van Knippenberg and Schippers, 2007). Employers have to ensure that the existing employees, as well as the newcomers, need to achieve a level of acceptance that allows them to be productive, support their professional development and encourage them to make the long-term commitment to the organization (Jokisaari and Nurmi, 2009).

HRM plays a key role in encouraging newcomers to adapt to their new roles and tasks. The HRM integration initiatives depend on many organizational factors such as size, complexity, and newcomers' employment rates (Malik and Manroop, 2017). These initiatives provide explicit guidance on acceptable strategies and opportunities for formal and informal social adjustments such as networking events.

Several authors emphasize the supportive role of the HRM practices in assisting the newcomers' adjustment to the new workplace (Fang and Goldner, 2011; Alipour et al., 2018). The newcomers could apply their thoughts, views and methods in accomplishing tasks in a new workplace that might be different from those applied in the new workplace (Song et al., 2017). Therefore, HRM practices should help them to overcome obstacles associated with their lack of understanding of the new workplace norms and culture (Zikic, 2015) and help them to achieve the role performance that their new employers expect (Ostroff and Kozlowski, 1992; Malik and Manroop, 2017). HRM initiatives, such as orientation teamwork, setting expectations, onsite support, training

and development programs for managers, local and new coming employees are useful to ensure a smooth entry transition of knowledge and skills (Simadi and Nahar, 2009). Louis et al (1983) have conducted a survey aimed at generating a list of socialization practices, and the activities that emerged as more common were: “formal onsite orientation sessions, offsite residential training sessions, other recruits (employees), a buddy relationship with a more senior coworker, mentor and/or sponsor relationship, your first supervisor, secretary or other support staff, daily interactions with peers while working, social/recreational activities with people from work, and business trips with others from work” (p. 859).

The mentoring initiative, for example, is considered a main organizational tactic in this regard through the assignment of a mentor (supervisor, peer or senior colleague) to newcomers (Cooper-Thomas and Anderson, 2006). Those mentors play an essential role through leading newcomers in terms of career development and helping them to establish relationships with key people in the organization, which is essential to the success of their social integration process (Shinnar, 2007; Friesen, 2011; Haggard, Dougherty, Turban and Wilbanks, 2011; Malik and Manroop, 2017).

Another main initiative is related to networking that could play a prominent role in newcomers’ integration and socialization (Cooper-Thomas, Anderson and Cash, 2011). The organization could organize and convene many social and networking events such as monthly luncheons meetings, holiday events, joint trips and other activities, to enable newcomers to practice the host country's language. It would facilitate the building of relationships with their peers, be familiar with the organization culture, favour their contact with key players in the organization and enhance the open door policy between employees and management (Cooper-Thomas, et al., 2011; Tselios, Noback, Van Dijk, and McCann, 2015; Enoksen, 2016; Malik and Manroop, 2017; Song *et al.*, 2017). However, Richard, Murthi and Ismail (2007) referred that all workers, old and new, need time to accept the differences among each other. In this regard, Watson, Kumar and Michaelsen (1993); Boxall and Purcell (2000) stressed the importance of time factor in mitigating the negative effects of diversity at the workplace between workers. According to Zikic (2015),

cultural training programs are one of the main HRM integration instruments that can be used to implement the integration strategy effectively. The author states that all employees, local and newcomers, even managers, should adhere to such programs to gain awareness, empathy, the open-mindedness of cultural differences and encourage newcomers to improve their role performance (Cooper-Thomas and Anderson, 2006). Such training integration programs allow for information acquisition, knowledge and information transfer between all members in the organization (Song et al., 2017), thus enhancing role performance amongst all employees and facilitating the overall integration process (Cooper-Thomas, et al., 2011; Friesen, 2011; Zikic, 2015; Alesina, Harnoss and Rapoport, 2016; Malik and Manroop, 2017).

Although the literature shows that integration and socialization impact largely on the newcomers' adjustment to jobs, groups and organizations, there is still an ongoing debate and disagreement about the appropriate outcomes to measure the success of socialization and integration process (e.g. Bauer *et al.*, 2007; Fang and Goldner, 2011).

Accordingly, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance and low intention of leaving the organization (turnover) could be considered as main outcomes of the social integration process (Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000; Desiderio, 2016; Enoksen, 2016; Daoud Abu-Doleh and Nezar Obeidat, 2018).

However, under the fierce competition prevailing in the business world today, (Fang and Goldner, 2011) argued that hunting talented employees through effective recruitment and selection procedures, and offering them specialized training and development programs, aimed at integrating them with their new environment and achieving a sustainable competitive advantage for the organization, is regarded as one of the main challenges that the HR managers have to deal with today. Organizations are more likely to benefit from diverse talent pool when all the organizational members accept and respect diversity characteristics between each other (Yu, Ouellet and Warmington, 2007; Richard et al., 2013), which reinforce the importance of newcomers' integration and socialization.

2.8.2.4 Socialization and Integration in Small and Medium Enterprises SMEs versus Large Organizations

According to Marlow et al (2010); Nolan and Garavan (2016); Curado and Vieira (2019) research as not dedicated sufficient attention to the HRM practices in SMEs due to their less formal HRM systems compared to large organizations. Although scarce, extant research suggests that the socialization processes in small organizations are not equivalent to those processes in larger organizations (Cardon and Stevens 2004). Rollag and Cardon's 2003 study (cited in Cardon and Stevens, 2004) found that newcomers are more rapidly integrated into smaller organizations, due to some formal and informal events, such as meetings and lunches, the assignment of meaningful projects, and the fact that they are closer to their immediate and senior managers.

Nevertheless, existing literature highlights the key role played by organizational socialization in some areas, such as knowledge sharing and transference (Petrakis and Kostis, 2015). Organizational socialization is also presented as a critical tool that assists SMEs in promoting organizational commitment (Curado and Vieira, 2019) and building trust (Cheng and Ho, 2001), which are essential to achieve and promote competitiveness in the long run (Newman and Sheikh, 2012; Valaei and Rezaei, 2016). In light of the above, the effective design of such programs is the cornerstone of successful socialization.

Cooper-Thomas, et al. (2011) argue that SMEs usually present high turnover rates and less organizational commitment compared to large organizations, which underscores the relevance of organizational socialization and integration initiatives for SMEs. The authors claim that integration policies are regarded as a wise investment for organizations with limited resources as SMEs, and effective socialization programs could help the organization building a strong culture, increasing the retention levels, decreasing employee turnover intentions, and improving productivity (Mbah, Ekechukwu and Obi, 2018; Curado and Vieira, 2019).

2.8.2.5 Organizational Socialization and Integration in the Arab Countries

According to Mellahi (2007), Rees, Mamman and Braik (2007), Forstenlechner (2010) and Judeh (2011), although organizational socialization and integration and its impact on organizational performance has been largely studied, most of those studies have not been carried out in the Arab countries' context.

Many Arab countries, specifically gulf states, which falls under the name of the Gulf Cooperation Council, including Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Qatar, Oman, Bahrain and the United Arab Emirates receive the large number of expatriates who are regarded as 'newcomers' (Beuthe, 2008). Nonetheless, Attiyah (1996); Haak-Saheem and Brewster (2017) acknowledge the underrepresentation of studies investigating how those newcomers are integrated into those countries and organizations. The literature highlights the expatriate's lack of integration in formal and social networks within workgroups (AbdelRahman, Elamin and Aboelmaged, 2012) and depicts workplace relationships between expatriates and locals in the workplace as rare and superficial. It's worth mention, -and as far as the researcher knows- most of existing literature in this field had analysed newcomers' integration in the labour market from a country-level perspective, and no studies have done to investigate the real integration and socialization status and tactics applied in organizations. However, Atiyyah (1996) and Beuthe (2008) argued that successful social integration in the workplace requires establishing good relationships with locals, obvious residency laws and regulations and ensuring fairly workplaces.

Accordingly, to Jokisaari and Nurmi (2009) refugees constitute a significant component of the labour market in the host countries, such as in Jordan. The existence of a large number of refugees in the working-age creates a big pressure on the host societies labour market and force organizations to exert more efforts to integrate those newcomers and socialize them with the existing workforce (Jokisaari and Nurmi, 2009; Simadi, and Nahar, 2009; Korntheuer, Pritchard and Maehler, 2017). Abu Doleh and Obeidat (2018) reveal the lack of prior research studies on organizational socialization in Jordan and call for the attention of this gap and the need to investigate such a relevant

process. However, the authors have explored the socialization tactics and their effects on organizational satisfaction and turnover intents. The study findings show that coworkers (colleagues, superiors and subordinates) as well as clients and others with whom newcomers interact play a fundamental role in learning the new roles. Additionally, the authors found that socialization tactics impact positively on organizational performance.

Accordingly, studies on refugees' inclusion at work (although not specifically addressing organizational socialization tactics and practices) suggest that the organizational integration initiatives adopted by HRM do play a critical role in determining the success or failure of the refugees' inclusion process (Yu, et al., 2007; Simadi and Nahar, 2009; Korntheuer et al., 2017).

2.8.3 Training and Development T&D

After recruiting and selecting human resources, employers will need to ensure that employees are at the forefront of their field in terms of professional expertise and product knowledge (Kadiresan, Selamat, Selladurai, Ramendran, and Mohamed, 2015). Training and development (T&D) is regarded as one of the main HRM functions in terms of improving and modifying the capabilities, skills and knowledge of employees and enable them to perform their jobs in more creative and effective ways (Sung and Choi, 2014). This section explores the relevance of the T&D function. Then, it reviews T&D main stages. T&D in Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) Versus Large Organizations is discussed in detail in this section. Lastly, T&D in the Arab Countries Context is covered.

2.8.3.1 Training and Development: Definition and Relevance

Many scholars distinguish between the two concepts (training and development), while others perceive T&D as one process. According to Mondy, Noe and Premeaux (1999, p.254) T&D aim to *'improve employees' competency levels and organizational performance through planned and continuous efforts by management'*. In the same vein, Nadler and Nadler (1990, p.6) emphasized that T&D as one process is *'an organized*

learning experience provided by employers within a specific period of time to bring about the possibility of performance improvement and/or personal growth’.

Other scholars define training and development separately. Fitzgerald (1992, p.81) defines training as the *‘need to acquisition of knowledge and skill for present tasks as a tool to help individuals contribute to the organization and be successful in their current positions’*. This is consistent with Laird, Holton and Naquin (2003, p.14) definition of training as *"the acquisition of the technology which permits employees to perform to standards, it's an experience, a discipline, or a regimen that causes people to acquire new, predetermined behaviors"*. The same authors emphasized that training process includes *"any educational or developmental activity specifically designed to foster the professional growth and capability of persons being prepared for or already in management and executive roles in organizations"* (p. 28). Also, Elnaga and Imran (2013, p.139) defined the training process as *‘bridging the gap between the current performance and the standard desired performance’*. More recently, Fletcher, Alfes and Robinson (2018, p. 2721-2722) perceived the training process as *‘the acquisition of technical job-specific skills aimed at increasing personal effectiveness’*.

On the other hand, Fitzgerald (1992, p.81) defined the development process as *‘the acquisition of knowledge and skills that may be used in the present or future’* or *‘the preparation of individuals to enrich the organization in the future’*. According to Fletcher et al. (2018, p. 2722) definition *‘development signifies the expansion of generalized skills and career development opportunities aimed at enhancing personal growth’*.

Based on the above illustration, the training process aims to improve and enhance the individuals' knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours to be able to perform their current job effectively (Fletcher et al., 2018). It intends to improve the individuals' performance further, and it is concerned with current or present (now) jobs (Laird, et al., 2003). Although the benefits may continue throughout the employees' entire career, it is focused on short-term plans, one year or less (Aragón-Sánchez, Barba-Aragón and Sanz-Valle, 2003; Kadiresan et al., 2015). While the development process is more about developing the individuals' skills, knowledge, attitudes and behaviours, in order to be able

to perform their (future) job effectively (Kadiresan et al., 2015; Fletcher et al., 2018). Furthermore, development programs have long-term purposes. It usually lasts from one to three years and helps employees to prepare themselves for future potential positions (Fitzgerald, 1992; Aragón-Sánchez et al., 2003). Building on the above discussion, this study will treat T&D as one activity.

The rapid growth of technology and the increasing concern with product quality and customer satisfaction forced many organizations to ascribe increasing importance to T&D. Research shows that it plays a significant role in enhancing job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Fletcher et al., 2018; Slavić and Berber, 2019), and decreasing the turnover intention, which will positively affect productivity and profitability (Motwani, Frahm, and Kathawala, 1994) and help the organization to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage (Pfeffer, 1999). Many authors confirm the correlation between the amount invested in people and the quality of the product or service being produced on one hand, and customers and employees' satisfaction on the other (Hughey and Mussnug, 1997; Marchington and Grugulis, 2000). In this regard, researchers argued that the main purpose of the T&D programs is to increase the organization's efficiency and effectiveness by facilitating the exchange of knowledge, skills, and ideas among employees (Carnevale, 1993; Read and Kleiner, 1996; Aragón-Sánchez et al., 2003). These would nurture the establishment of a new generation of knowledge and innovation and mitigate the differences in career outcomes between workers as much as possible (D'Netto and Sohal, 1999; Lau and Ngo, 2004).

Nikandrou, Apospori, Panayotopoulou, Stavrou and Papalexandris (2008) and Dar (2017) argued that the acquired knowledge and skills through T&D are expected to have a positive impact on organizational performance in terms of improving employees' knowledge and abilities and overcoming some of their performance gaps. In addition, T&D diminishes the production costs as an additional avenue for enhancing the total financial return on investment. Thus, it increases productivity and allows for more creativity and innovation, which positively affects the overall organizational performance (Sung and Choi, 2014; Sung and Choi, 2018; Al-Abbadi, 2018). However, given the

importance of T&D as a planned intervention factor, it is regarded as an efficient tool employee should benefit from to enhance their skills and nurture potential talents across all levels. Elnaga and Imran (2013) asserted that employees who feel unable to perform their tasks with the anticipated level of performance usually choose to leave their jobs or decide to remain in the company which will likely hurt the organizational performance.

Khan, Khan, and Khan (2011) pointed out that the organizations that do not invest much in the development of their employees face an increase in the level of dissatisfaction. According to Poor et al. (2012), Sung and Choi (2018), Slavić and Berber (2019) all organizations regardless of their type and size are always striving to secure a skilled and competitive human force, which makes T&D one of the most valuable tools that organization can use to achieve this goal. In this regard, Morley, Slavic, Poór and Berber (2016); Slavić and Berber (2019) asserted that investing in T&D can result in performance improvement for both the employees and the organization. The authors argued that T&D programs could play a significant role in improve the quality of services and/or products, boost the quantity of output, reduce work accidents, avoid of decline the obsolescence of employees' knowledge and skills, increase motivation and commitment, and promote the transference of knowledge and skills. Besides, it also plays a significant role in meeting the employees' needs, demands and expectations, besides contributing to conflict resolution at the workplace and prohibiting or at least mitigating the potentially negative effects on performance. By increasing the employees' job satisfaction, will positively impact the entire organizational performance leading to a distinctive competitive advantage (Sung and Choi, 2018; Slavić and Berber, 2019).

Literature shows that organizations that invest in innovative training practices are more likely to benefit from better performance than their competitors who do not adopt such programs (Chiaburu and Tekleab, 2005; Kanelopoulos and Akrivos, 2006; Magableh et al., 2011; Elnaga and Imran, 2013). Accordingly, the investment in T&D makes employees feel that they are appreciated and working in a supportive environment, stimulating them to be more innovative, which end up improving their performance and consequently organizational performance (Halawi and Haydar, 2018).

2.8.3.2 Training and Development Process: Main Stages

According to Armstrong (2003), to achieve the desired outcomes of T&D programs, the HRM should adopt a systematic approach to T&D rather than developing random, fragmented, irrelative and short programs to meet specific short-term needs. Tennant, Boonkrong and Roberts (2002) asserted that an effective T&D process is the one which adopts the impact approach (proactive and strategic) instead of the activity approach (reactive). Otherwise, claim those authors, it will be less qualified in achieving its objectives, and negatively affect the organizational performance.

The systematic T&D approach includes four significant stages: first, the training needs assessment (TNA); second, designing of the T&D program; third, implementing the T&D program; fourth, evaluating the effectiveness of the program (Khan, Perveen and Shujat, 2017).

The TNA stage is regarded as a key element in the T&D process (Sain and Khanna, 2020). It is a proactive step where data is gathered and processed to determine whether the organizational needs could be resolved through training programs (Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001). An effective TNA procedure involves diagnostic aspects where inconsistencies between performance standards and actual performance are identified (Iqbal and Khan, 2011). To accomplish this stage effectively, Horwitz (1999) emphasized the role of HR managers to ensure that all activities of T&D programs are parallel with the organizational strategies. Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001) argued that T&D should act as a proactive strategic role, rather than just a reactive role. In other words, T&D should be derived from, and linked to the organization's strategies, missions and objectives. If T&D outcomes are not adequately related to improved job performance, then, the whole process is at risk, and end up as a waste of time and money (McCracken and Wallace, 2000).

Mathews et al., (2001) claimed that TNA is highly affected by strong top management predominance, followed by supervisors' views and then employees' perceptions. The hegemony of top management could potentially undermine the TNA

purposes since a strong influence from top managers in this stage can be perceived as coercive and compulsory (Mathews et al, 2001). In this regard, Santos and Stuart (2003) argued that most of the related literature emphasizes the organizational perspective in the T&D process, while little attention has been paid to the employees' perceptions and needs. According to Kadiresan et al. (2015), the main purpose of the T&D process is to boost the organizational well-being by means of the implementation of T&D programs. These provide employees with capabilities to perform the assigned tasks efficiently and effectively. Recognizing employees' perceptions on this process is of great importance, as they are the main recipients and the target group of T&D (Burke and Hutchins, 2007; Nikandrou, Brinia, and Bereri, 2009; Singh, 2019).

The second stage is the design of T&D programs, which determines how the training programs are going to be accomplished (Iqbal and Khan, 2011). According to Tharenou, Saks and Moore (2007), and based on the assumption that employees are the target group of T&D, the program design should take into consideration the program's objectives, trainees' characteristics, personalities and needs, in addition to the organizational culture and structure, to achieve its goals effectively (Tannenbaum and Yukl, 1992; Mathews et al, 2001).

With regard to the third stage, the implementing or delivering training programs, (Azizi and Khan, 2017) assert that the role of trainers is regarded as a fundamental element in the effective delivery of training program. The training methods and the trainer's knowledge and experience are considered key elements to the implementation of distinct T&D programs (Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001). Additionally, Tharenou et al. (2007) mentioned the importance of the employees'/trainees' personalities and characteristics, such as their openness, readiness, commitment to the experiment, as well as the extent to which they believe in the importance of the training program and how they perceive the value of such programs. Such considerations are the main factors of success in this stage (Burke and Hutchins, 2007; Tharenou, et al., 2007; Aguinis and Kraiger, 2009).

Elnaga and Imran (2013) argued that the nature of work, instructional technology and the place of training (away from rigid classrooms), have been playing a significant role in the advancement of the training methods in the last four decades. Some of the diverse training methods are learning through coaching, mentoring, self-directed learning, experiential learning, networking, on-the-job training, use of videos and simulations (Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001). More recently, personal computers have been widely used, which meant a qualitative leap in the training field resulting in the adoption of computer-based training (Musselwhite, 2017). These techniques are faster providers of training due to their speed, visual display, and accessibility of multiple learning resources (Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001). The emergence of Electronic Performance Support Systems (EPSSs) and Automated Performance Support (APS) (Gery, 1991) came to facilitate the learning process, due to their ease and intuitive use by non-computer experts. Such advancements provided the basic ground for today's elaborated E-learning systems and enabled a better balance between training methods and desired outcomes (Elnaga and Imran, 2013; Beinicke and Bipp, 2018).

The fourth stage is the evaluation of the T&D activities. Sung and Choi (2018) emphasized the need to know how effective T&D programs have been to organizations. However, measuring the impact of T&D programs on organizational performance is the hardest mission among the T&D stages. It is '*the art of the impossible*' as described by Altarawneh (2005, p.95). According to Tennant et al. (2002), the results of T&D programs tend to appear gradually over a relatively long period. Slavić and Berber (2019) attributed that to the cause-and-effect relationship between two variables T&D and performance that is not necessarily straightforward, and even harder to be clearly defined. In other words, it is difficult to isolate (T&D) from other intervening variables and organizational factors, which may influence the individual performance and organizational outcomes, namely rewards, motivation, leadership, organizational culture, new technology, the economic status and resistance to change (Redshaw, 2000). Furthermore, Slavić and Berber (2019) stated that T&D programs aim to change, improve, and enhance trainees'

behaviour, attitudes, skills and knowledge which is not easy to be quantified and measured (Mathews et al, 2001; Torraco, 2016).

By the same token, Torraco (2016) explained that in crisis contexts, either political, economic or social crises, which are characterized by high unemployment rates, individuals may accept any job, believing it is better than not having a job. In this case, employees may refrain from expressing their real perceptions and views about the current job, the T&D programs provided, and the organization as a whole. They may provide inflated or distortion evaluation (Leschke, 2009; Torraco, 2016). Redshaw (2000); Chambel and Sobral (2011) suggested that to overcome such T&D evaluation obstacles, organizations could evaluate the T&D outcomes through smaller workable fields, rather than try to evaluate the effectiveness of the T&D process as a whole (purpose, instrument, timing, design of the training program, clients' feedback and cost-benefit comparisons).

Overall, the various stages briefly described above are aimed at promoting the personal development and proactive involvement of employees in the workplace, enhancing their capacity to troubleshoot work-related problems, and developing creative solutions, and apply these solutions in practical situations effectively (Shipton, Fay, West, Patterson and Birdi, 2005; Huerta, Audet, and Peregort, 2006; Birdi, Patterson and Wood 2007; Sung and Choi, 2014).

2.8.3.3 Training and Development in Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) Versus Large Organizations

Yahya, Othman and Shamsuri (2012) stated that T&D decisions in developing countries are highly affected by the size of the organization and are likely to be provided to employees in large organizations rather than in small and medium enterprises SMEs. For this, employees in SMEs may feel that the company is not truly concerned with T&D to improve their skills in comparison with large organizations (Santos and Stuart, 2003; Torraco, 2016). This perception may negatively affect employees' commitment and loyalty to the SMEs, and thus, their performance (Parsons, 1997; Torraco, 2016).

Levinthal and March (1993) labelled this negative perception and underestimation of the T&D outcomes as Myopia of learning. Organizations ignore the long-term results and the larger picture of the T&D, thereby causing misalignment with organization's strategies and policies, which determines and or affects the T&D and the organizational performance relationship (Levinthal and March 1993; Magableh et al., 2011; Elnaga and Imran, 2013).

In developing countries, the managerial style, especially in SMEs, is characterized as over-centralized, there is a lack of qualified and educated managers, part-time workers are frequent and employees' motivation is low, long and short-term planning of human resources is not common, turnover rates are high leading to high staffing rates, and there is a lack of well-organized and systematic training programs with an overemphasis on nepotism and social relations (*wasta*) (Redshaw, 2000; Magableh et al., 2011). All these factors render the HR managers or their representatives less desire to train their staff and recognize the T&D function as a tool that adds value to the company itself (Kitching and Blackburn, 2002; Tansky and Heneman, 2003; Kotey and Folker, 2007; Arokiasamy and Ismail, 2009). Consequently, most HR managers or those in charge of HR issues in SMEs consider that T&D programs as a waste of time and money, therefore, it is an unnecessary managerial function (Redshaw, 2000) which fails to contribute to improving employees' performance or commitment, and the overall organizational performance. Simply, SMEs do not train their employees (Magableh et al., 2011).

In Jordan, SMEs play a significant role in national growth by improving the social status and raising people's lifestyle (Al-Athari and Zairi, 2002; Magableh et al., 2011). However, Jordanian SMEs do not provide adequate T&D programs to their staff in comparison with large businesses counterparts (Al-Mahrouq and AL-Jaber, 2003; Al-Wadi, 2005; Magableh et al., 2011). According to Magableh et al. (2011) and Masoud (2020) the general neglect of the formal HR practices in SMEs, the financial cost of T&D, time constraints and unawareness of the benefits and outcomes of T&D programs are considered as the main determinants of T&D in Jordan. In this regard, Alzuod, Isa and Othman (2017) emphasized that the current status of T&D is still weak, with Jordanian

SMEs not investing much in the training process because of its restricted size and lack of the government support to SMEs.

On the other hand, Magableh and Al-Mahrouq (2007) argued that the owner/manager in SMEs might provide effective T&D programs such as management skills and entrepreneurship skills for employees. Nonetheless, some employees may exploit these programs and seek for another employment opportunity with higher salaries, hence, the investment in T&D is cost-ineffective rather than profitable for most SMEs (Hurstfield, Pearson, Hooker, Ritchie and Sinclair, 2004). Based on these arguments, SMEs in Jordan prefer their employees to learn informally on the job and depend on just real-time training to satisfy immediate needs (Susomrith and Coetzer, 2013). This is consistent with Mohammad (2011) findings that T&D in Jordanian SMEs fail to be planned, and thus, depend highly on purely theoretical training programs, with a low number of participations.

However, Greenidge, et al. (2012) emphasized that increased competition and uncertainty today requires SMEs to keep changing their traditional methods in conducting business, seek updated and new technologies, and give the T&D more attention, otherwise, companies will not be able to withstand the fierce competition.

2.8.3.4 Training and Development in the Arab Countries Context

According to Glass (2013), most organizations in developed countries have grasped the importance of T&D programs to enhance quality, productivity and competitiveness. This interest began emerging in the period during and after World War II due to a dramatic increase in the demand for trained workers brought by the expanding wartime economy and technological innovations (Bound and Turner, 2002). Many large organizations allocated huge specific budgets for this purpose per year (Torraco, 2016). This heavy investment has led to dramatic performance improvement in these countries, in terms of productivity and profitability (Tennant et al., 2002).

In the Arabic context, the research reveals that T&D programs and applications might have implemented in similar to eastern models, theories and practices (Abdalla,

Maghrabi, and Raggad, 1998; Altarawneh, 2005, 2009). Nonetheless, they are still highly deficient in the training needs assessment (TNA) and programme evaluation stages. Furthermore, Arab organizations have applied western T&D programs and methods without taking into consideration the Arab socio-cultural aspects. Therefore, the implementation of such programs has hardly produced the desired benefits.

When importing western managerial and T&D programs and practices, Arab organizations management should bear in mind that what is suitable for western organizations may not apply effectively to local Arab organizations' needs and conditions (Altarawneh, 2005, 2009; Husan et al., 2009). They should take into consideration the unique national and organizational aspects of the Arab culture, as well as societies' characteristics and local organizational conditions. In light of this, the selection of western T&D theories and practices should be carefully modified to adjust to the Arab context (Husan et al., 2009; Rowland, Hall and Altarawneh, 2017; 2017).

However, despite the importance of the T&D process and its desired outcomes in achieving organizational goals, organizations in developing countries do not show the same interest in this process (Magableh et al., 2011), it perceives T&D programs as a waste of money, time and efforts (Altarawneh, 2005, 2009; Rowland, et al., 2017). Furthermore, it is still indistinct how organizations in the Arab context fulfil the level of T&D for their employees (Halawi and Haydar, 2018). T&D has been influenced by some negative aspects where friendship and family relations (*wasta*) play a significant role in the management style and leadership (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 1995; Al Bahar, Peterson, and Taylor, 1996; Wilkins, 2001; Aladwan, Bhanugopan and D'Netto, 2015; Rowland et al., 2017; Al-Twal, Rowlands and Cook, 2018). In this regard, Altarawneh (2005, 2009) conducted research on the T&D function in the banking sector in Jordan and found that T&D programs are not viewed as a strategic organizational policy which might stimulate the organization's success. Instead, it is regarded as a vacation time that is usually given to specific employees, and as preferential treatment and extra benefits provided to the managers' relatives and friends. Employers and managers offer their relatives and friends the luxury of participating in the organizations' training and development programs based

on wrong premises (Budhwar and Mallahi, 2006). Consequently, low support from top-level management, bureaucracy procedures and financial limitations are considered as main challenges that impede the effective implementation of T&D in the Arabic context (Halawi and Haydar, 2018).

2.8.4 Performance Appraisal Systems PAS

Performance appraisal system (PAS) is of utmost importance for organizations since it provides accurate data on the employee's performance and output (Poon, 2004), entailing decisions on how he/she should be reviewed, rated, judged, and evaluated (Karimi, Malik, and Hussain, 2011; Oduro-Nyarko, 2013). According to Maaitah et al. (2018), the fundamental goal of the performance appraisal process is to assure the maximum utilization of every employee's knowledge, skills and capabilities, thus boosting employees' efficiency and organization performance. In this regard, Al-Abbadi (2018) argued that the performance appraisal process appears as the last contribution of human performance, thus, it is given attention by both the management and the employees. Each organization needs to know if the actual performance matches the expected performance (Bisharat, Obeidat, Alrowwad, Tarhini and Mukattash, 2017) and take the needed corrective actions accordingly (in terms of T&D, rewards, etc.).

This section displays the performance appraisal definition, importance, methods and uses. Then it highlights the main differences between small and medium enterprises (SMEs) and large organizations regarding the PAS. Then it reviews performance appraisal systems in the Arab Countries Context.

2.8.4.1 Performance Appraisal: Definition and Relevance

Performance appraisal is an important topic of investigation among organizational researchers (Dulebohn and Ferris, 1999). According to Mathis and Jackson (2003, p. 328), the performance appraisal (PA) process could be defined as *'the process of evaluating how well employees do their jobs compared with a set of standards and communicating that information to employees'*. This is consistent with Abu-Doleh and Weir (2007, p. 76)

definition that views PA as *'a periodic evaluation of the output of an individual measured against certain expectations; the process involves observing and evaluating employees' performance in the workplace in relation to pre-set standards'*. In the same line, Aladwan et al. (2014, p.133) define PA as *'an evaluation process conducted periodically to evaluate the employee performance and output'*.

Abu-Doleh and Weir (2007) argued that the purposes of the performance appraisal process form the main part of a wider approach for integrating human resource management strategies that are known as performance management (PM). These determine a company's success in the sense that it allows to reward high performers, helps to guide and improve the poor performers. Therefore, the performance appraisal process aims to steer employees' efforts towards the pre-set organizational goals and objectives (West et al., 2002). Brown, Hyatt and Benson (2010) indicated that an effective PAS leads to greater job satisfaction and increases employees' motivation, and ultimately increases performance and productivity (Fletcher, 2001; Abu-Doleh, and Weir, 2007; Wood and Pereira, 2014).

According to Byrne and Cropanzano (2001), the perception of PA fairness in the workplace represents an important factor in preventing undesirable behaviours such as withdrawal, sabotage, theft or any other disruptive attitudes. Also, encourage positive outcomes, such as organizational commitment, citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction (Shrivastava, 2011). Abu-Doleh and Weir (2007) stressed that effective PAS usually plays a critical role in the advancement of the human capital of organizations, as well as in ensuring equality and fair treatment of employees. Thus, the performance appraisal system is the key response to the need to establish fairness and reducing arbitrariness through formal processes.

Furthermore, Ismail and Rishani (2018); Al-Abbadi (2018) argued that the existence of an effective appraisal system which reflects real results of employees' performance will create a positive climate for creativity behaviours in the workplace. Additionally, it will enhance employees' knowledge, skills, morale, confidence, loyalty and organizational commitment. Providing constructive feedback on employees'

performance will motivate employees to search for more creative solutions in their tasks and encourage them to think outside the box (Al-Adamat and Alserhan, 2020). Based on signalling theory, Al-Adamat and Alserhan (2020) argued that an effective performance appraisal system could work as a signalling function impacting on the employees' perception of the PAS and their creativity and performance.

According to Olaimat and Awwad (2017), the effective performance appraisal system could contribute to enhancing employees' perception of fairness and justice in their organization management. Consequently, the feeling that they are treated impartially through fair performance appraisal system will positively impact on employees' intent to stay, compared to those who perceive the opposite.

Al-Adamat and Alserhan (2020) assert the managers' responsibility for developing and improving the practices and procedures to create a fair workplace environment to minimize possible negative behaviours and poor performance. The authors emphasized that results and feedback generated from effective PAS can have a significant impact on the jobs roles and criteria, including the need to be creative and innovative.

2.8.4.2 Performance Appraisal Uses, Methods and Determinants

Many scholars have emphasized the importance of performance appraisal in providing essential information for management decisions. It has been used for two primary purposes. First, to help managers in making administrative decisions, such as payments, promotions, rewards, salary increases, transfers or managerial corrective actions. Second, to meet developmental objectives, such as coaching staff and assessing their training and development needs (Wood and Pereira, 2014).

Cleveland, Murphy and Williams (1989, p.132) have drawn a broader list of performance appraisals' uses, classified into four main categories:

1. Between-individuals (promotion, lay-off, identifying poor performance, salary administration, recognition of individual performance and retention/ termination).
2. Within-individuals (identifying individual strengths and weaknesses and individual training needs, performance feedback, determining transfers and assignment).

3. System maintenance (personnel planning, evaluating goal achievement, evaluating personnel systems, reinforcing authority structure, identifying organizational development and training needs).

4. Documentation (criteria for validation research, documenting personnel decisions and meeting legal requirements).

However, although the performance appraisal process is widely researched as a main function in the HR management, it has been and is still described as a complex and controversial topic of research in the HRM field (Grubb, 2007; Prowse and Prowse, 2009; Aladwan et al, 2014).

According to performance appraisal methods, various performance appraisal forms can be applied by the organization management (Aggarwal and Thakur, 2013; Dagar, 2014). Some of the popular performance appraisal techniques are:

1. The ranking method is based on managers ranking their subordinates from best to worst regarding their performance effectiveness (Aggarwal and Thakur, 2013). This method is commonly used for making decisions such as promotions or to determine the merit salary increase each employee will receive (Lunenburg, 2012).
2. Graphic Rating Scale method is a scale that consists of some traits and a range of performance for each employee for determining the score that best describes his/her level of performance for each trait (Bratton, 2012).
3. Critical Incident Method depends on managers writing down the positive and negative employees' performance behaviour and reviewing it with the employee to assess his/ her performance. This record should include dates, action taken, people involved and other relevant details (Kondrasuk, 2011).
4. Narrative Essays include recording employees' strength and weakness points, previous performance and suggestions for his/ her improvement at the end of the evaluation time by the manager. This technique attempts to focus mainly on behavioural aspects (Dessler, 2012; Dagar, 2014).

5. Management by Objectives (MBO) consists of three building blocks: object formulation, execution process and performance feedback. In this method, both managers/employees set the objectives for the employee to perform, evaluate periodically the performance and reward according to the result/output (Blstakova, 2010; Dessler, 2012).
6. Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scale (BARS) entails the manager/rater to act as an observer more than a judge. BARS focus on specific positive and negative behaviours in the workplace that can be used as examples in discussing a rating. This method resorts to the use of behavioural statements or concrete examples to illustrate multiple levels of performance for each element of performance (Aggarwal and Thakur, 2013).
7. Assessment Centers is based on exercises that simulate job tasks. It is a basket of exercises that includes group discussions, simulations of interviews with subordinates or clients, fact-finding exercises, written communication exercises, analysis/decision-making problems and oral presentation exercises (Lunenburg, 2012).
8. The 360 Degree method considers input from multiple sources within the firm, as well as external sources. It relies on the appraisal of managers, colleagues, subordinates, sometimes customers and suppliers. This method helps to enhance the employees' self-awareness through deep feedback about the impact of their actions and behaviours on others in the workplace (Espinilla, de Andrés, Martínez and Martínez, 2013; Daniel, 2019).
9. Self-Evaluation is a technique that has the potential to motivate corrective behaviours and is initiated by the employees themselves (Dagar, 2014; Rasheed, Khan, Rasheed and Munir, 2015; Daniel, 2019).

With regard to performance appraisal determinants, despite the importance of the performance appraisal process as a critical human resource practice, it is frequently

perceived as an unfair, biased, ineffective function that generates dissatisfaction among employees (Shrivastava and Purang, 2011). In this regard, Poon (2004) mentioned that if employees feel that performance ratings are likely to be manipulated because of raters' personal bias or they intend to punish subordinates, then, they will show reduced job satisfaction which, in turn, leads to greater intentions to quit their jobs.

In order to reduce such negative image of performance evaluation of bias and unfairness, Rynes, Colbert and Brown (2002) suggested the use of various sources when conducting the evaluation process. This could be useful for increasing perceptions of fairness. The multiple sources of appraisal process provide more valid and reliable than single sources. Appraising employees' performance from one source, such as a manager, could lead the appraisers to refuse the feedback and perceive it as lacking credibility. Applying multiple source methods can eliminate such effects and obtain more reliable, credible, valid and trustful results (Rynes et al., 2002; Cook and Crossman 2004; Poon, 2004; Abu-Doleh and Weir, 2007; Thurston Jr and McNall, 2010).

Managers should base their employees' evaluation on a well-designed performance appraisal system with a clear set of objectives and goals for employees and avoid subjectivity and bias when measuring performance (Woehr, 1992; Rogers and Wright, 1998; Bol, 2011). Also, effective implementation of the performance appraisal process might inspire positive behaviours and attitudes, thus helping to improve the organizational performance (Delery and Doty, 1996; Brown et al., 2010; DeNisi and Smith, 2014).

2.8.4.3 Performance Appraisal System in Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) Versus Large Organizations

Despite the importance of performance appraisal as a key HR function and a critical component for improving both individuals and the organization's performance, existing research has focused predominantly on performance management practices in large organizations, whereas it is considered as a new direction of research in SMEs (Brown, et al., 2010).

The progress for any organization depends on the human resource practices adopted by the organization management (Fisher, Dowling and Garnham 1999). SMEs cannot function well without proper human resource practices (Oduro-Nyarko, 2013). However, despite the importance of SMEs in economic growth, there is a lack of data regarding the nature of HRM in general and performance management practices and patterns, in particular (Wiesner and McDonald, 2001). According to Fisher et al., (1999), SMEs tend to have less formal organizational structures and more informal management practices in comparison with large-size organizations. Most HR managers or those in charge of HR issues in the SMEs deal with performance appraisal process as a tick-box exercise and a paper-filling task (Magableh and Al-Mahrouq, 2007; Wood and Pereira, 2014). Those managers feel that the rating accuracy is not important since they consider that an appraisal process is solely a discretionary tool for motivating and rewarding subordinates (Tziner, Latham, Price, and Haccoun, 1996; Wiesner, McDonald and Banham, 2007; Wood and Pereira, 2014).

According to (Khan, 2011), one of the main obstacles that may face SMEs in adopting an effective performance appraisal process, is the employees' working periods in the organization. The author explained, since employees usually work in short-term contracts, the uncertainty associated with such contracts tend to lead to employees' short-term orientation in terms of setting objectives and goals. This affects their continuity in the organization, with detrimental effects on performance appraisal objectives. In this regard, Bayo-Moriones, Galdon-Sanchez and Martinez-de-Morentin (2019) referred that organizations which have many short-tenured workers, usually use performance appraisal results to make decisions related to job assignment and/or dismissal.

According to Ogunyomi and Bruning (2016), PAS in SMEs are not based on any clearly defined procedure, it includes only managers and not engage employees, thus, it generates low motivation and poor relationship between management and employees. The authors emphasized that management of SMEs should believe that a comprehensive and effective performance appraisal system represent the basic instrument for measuring

employees' performance, and they could use it as a tool to determine future career advancement and improve individual performance.

On the other hand, Oduro-Nyarko (2013) argued that SMEs can develop an effective performance appraisal system that is simple and contribute to improving employees' performance and output. Such systems could be implemented along with some training of the person who will conduct the appraisal process successfully. Ogunyomi and Bruning (2015); Daniel (2019) emphasized that employees' evaluation based on setting organizational targets, goals, accomplishments, efficiency, time management, in addition to the performance duties, the quality of service, daily output and employees' key behaviours on the job are crucial to increase employee's development.

2.8.4.4 Performance Appraisal Systems in the Arab Countries Context

Despite the importance of performance appraisal systems as a crucial HRM function, it is not fully understood and appreciated yet in the Arab countries in general and in Jordan in specific (Abu-Doleh and Weir, 2007; Giangreco, Carugati, Pilati and Sebastiano, 2010; Maaitah, et al., 2018). According to Giangreco and Vakkayil (2016) organizations today seem to pay more attention to HR functions, specifically appraising employees' performance as most valued requirements to remain competitive and developing new skills, knowledge and attitudes for employees, which is extremely significant in achieving organizational excellence as never before. But this is not the situation in the Arabic context (Aladwan et al., 2014; Abu Shiekhah, Sarhan, Abbad and Istaiteyah, 2015; Al-Serhan, 2019).

The assumptions behind appraising employees' performance in the Arab countries mostly derive from Western Europe and North American HRM philosophy (Abu-Doleh and Weir, 2007; Aladwan et al., 2014). Therefore, in most cases, it is not compatible with the Arab countries' contexts, where local cultural and social norms and traditions are more focused on collective performance than individual performance (Zaharna, 1996; Hutchings and Weir, 2006; Giangreco et al., 2010). Furthermore, Maaitah et al. (2018)

emphasized that many other external contextual conditions could indirectly prevent those practices from being successfully implemented such as official policies and sector's rules and regulations. It seems that there is a gap between these ideal norms and traditions driving PAS and the real practice (Branine and Pollard, 2010).

Furthermore, the Arab countries, including Jordan, are characterized as an under-researched region with limited and weak research on HRM functions in general, and performance appraisal systems in particular (Allui and Sahai, 2016; Al-Twal, et al., 2018; Maaitah, et al., 2018). Aladwan et al. (2014) stressed that although the performance appraisal process plays a significant role in HRM, the evaluation systems present failures in the Arab countries, specifically in the Jordanian context. The authors emphasized that the performance appraisal system has not received the required attention yet, and it is not fully appreciated as well. Abu-Doleh and Weir (2007); Abu Shiekhah et al. (2015) and Al-Serhan (2019) emphasized that there is a shortage of empirical studies in Jordanian context that outline the objectivity of performance appraisal practice. In their research, the authors found out that the PAS are not unreliable and not able to achieve the targeted goals from employees' perception. The scarce research on the issue shows that Jordanian employees still express negative feelings and perceptions toward this practice (Rowland et al., 2017; Olaimat and Awwad, 2017).

Abu-Doleh and Weir (2007), in a comparative study, highlighted the differences in the application of performance appraisal systems in the Jordanian public and private sectors. The results showed that private organizations pay more attention to the PA process, which impacts positively on promotions, training needs identification, retention, lay-offs, transfers and determining employees' transfers and assignments. Whereas the application of the performance appraisal system in public organizations is mainly a response to a virtual necessity in complying with or meeting legal requirements (Abu Shiekhah et al., 2015; Al-Serhan, 2019), and have no positive impact on employee retention (Olaimat and Awwad, 2017).

Conversely, Aladwan et al. (2014) emphasized that PAS within the Jordanian private sector presents various shortcomings as it is conducted once a year, and the

manager/appraiser is responsible for leading and conducting the whole appraisal process. Moreover, setting individual objectives before the performance appraisal process is not a common practice in Jordanian private organizations (Abu-Doleh, and Weir, 2007). According to Al-Zawahreh and Khasawneh (2013); Abu Shiekhah et al. (2015) the success of the performance appraisal system is highly dependent on how much the appraised employee trusts the objectivity of the appraisal process. In this regard, Abu Shiekhah et al. (2015) referred that performance criteria weights do not reflect their relative importance and they lack significance and indications that help find out the availability of a certain factor in the occupant of the job. Therefore, the authors emphasize that there is a need for conducting more studies in the Arab world in general and in Jordan in particular, where there is a lack of coverage, accuracy and specification in performance criteria.

By the same token, Al-Zawahreh and Khasawneh (2013), based on the actual use of the appraising results in personnel decisions such as salary changes and promotion, as well as the impartiality of the ratings, conclude that there is an insufficiency of clarity of how the employees' performance is evaluated in a Jordan-specific context. For this, the authors argue that performance appraisals results should be used for different administrative decisions such as salary changes, promotion, tenure or termination.

Abu-Doleh and Weir (2007); Al-Abbadi (2018); Al-Adamat (2020) indicated that when it comes to performance appraisal, the society's culture plays a significant role in influencing the ethical aspects of the appraisal process conducted by appraisers. In this regard, Aladwan, et al. (2014) referred to the well-known concept of 'wasta', which refers to the use of reciprocal favours in a web of relationships, and intervenes in all life's aspects in an Arabic context, even in the management process. As explained in detail earlier in this chapter, many authors emphasized that the widespread use of wasta in different domains in the Arab context represents obstacles for HR professionals in the region (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011; Giangreco and Vakkayil, 2016). These reciprocal interests' relationships between employers and employees can negatively affect the results of the performance appraisal process (Al-Hamadi and Budhwar, 2006; Mellahi and Budhwar,

2010), and end up jeopardizing the perceptions of organizational fairness and justice (Claus and Briscoe, 2008; Ali, 2010; Giangreco and Vakkayil, 2016). Thus, performance appraisal results, which are driven and based on Wasta might collide with other aspects of organizational life, and negatively affect the organizational performance (Giangreco and Vakkayil, 2016).

Existing studies reported that there is a widespread prevalence of authoritarian management models in the area of performance appraisal in the Arab countries (Bakhtari, 1995; Abu-Doleh and Weir, 2007; Giangreco and Vakkayil, 2016). In this regard, Harcourt et al. (2008) emphasized the negative effects of authoritarian management on the performance process, which is likely to generate discrimination between employees. Such findings should draw attention to the performance appraisal practices in Jordanian organizations, which need more investigation and include more appropriate performance considerations (Aladwan et al., 2014).

Al-Zawahreh and Khasawneh (2013) claim that employees should be a part of the decision-making process regarding the design and execution of the performance appraisal system. Al-Adamat and Alserhan (2020) assert that having diverse personnel or stages within the PA process, in addition to regular feedback and engagement may increase the level of objectivity within appraisal systems, which will, in turn, result in positive outcomes for organizational performance.

According to Al-Zawahreh and Khasawneh (2013), organizations must have a formal PAS to evaluate employees' performance, which in turn will help organizations to improve overall performance. In this regard, Abu Shiekhah et al. (2015) present many practical recommendations to improve PAS in the Jordanian context. The authors underscore the importance of developing job descriptions and classifications in a manner to be approved as a basis for numerous appraisal forms. Also, PAS should be based on appraisal criteria that is clearly defined, include aspects of personality and behaviour, and have weights that match each of its significance (Al-Abbadi, 2018; Al-Adamat and Alserhan, 2020). Furthermore, appraisal criteria factors should focus on the current and future performance and be consistent with the responsibilities and tasks of the related

job regardless of any other irrelevant matter (Abu Shiekhah et al., 2015) otherwise it could yield negative and unreliable outcomes (Al-Adamat and Alserhan, 2020).

Furthermore, Al-Abbadi (2018) considers that Jordanian organizations need to improve the procedures and mechanisms of the performance appraisal process and adopt an effective style when applying it. Al-Adamat and Alserhan (2020) emphasized PAS in the Jordanian context should go through some changes aimed at improving its efficiency. The authors assert that Jordanian organizations should have an effective performance appraisal system and be sure it is used correctly by qualified appraisers to develop and nurture creativity the employees, in addition, to create a positive culture through the engaged staff. To achieve this goal, Al-Zawahreh and Khasawneh (2013); Abu Shiekhah et al. (2015); Alamro et al. (2017); Al-Abbadi (2018) emphasized that raters (those in charge of the performance appraisal process) should be subjected to specialized training sessions in behavioural and technical appraisal techniques with a focus on the practical and applied aspects of fairness and objectivity to minimize possible errors in appraising employee performance.

The Jordanian HR managers should take the performance appraisal process more seriously and conduct it more effectively and systematically, to generate valuable outcomes (Aladwan et al., 2014). Continuous contact between managers and employees and adopting the necessary corrective actions are needed to achieve the desired results (Giangreco and Vakkayil, 2016). In doing so, all performance appraisal goals will be directed toward the main outcomes with a view to increasing the organization's efficiency and effectiveness (Aladwan et al., 2014).

2.9 Chapter Summary

The present chapter has presented the concept of HRM and some historical milestones regarding its development. The literature on HRM-OP relationship was explored and the main strategic approaches in the HRM field – universalistic/best practices, contingency/best fit, configurational/bundles and contextual – have been revisited. Thereafter, the literature review has focused on HRM in the Arab countries,

revealing the existence of HR research in those countries, although fragmented and lacking insightful accounts regarding the influence of socio-cultural, economic, legal, political forces in HRM nature and its managerial practices. The main differences between Western and Eastern HRM styles were identified, as well as the main obstacles of transferring and applying the western (HR) management philosophy and styles in the Arab countries. Since Jordanian companies are faced with workplace diversity due to (forced) migration from neighbouring countries, HRM and diversity management issues have also been briefly covered in the literature review. The remaining sections of the literature review were dedicated to the HRM practices that are the main focus of the empirical study: recruitment and selection, organizational socialization and integration, training and development and performance appraisal system. Since the HR processes are commonly inspired in western practices, the state of the art on each practice started with the western approaches to HR practices. The definition and relevance of each HR practice were discussed, as well as the main procedures connected to them. The HR practice was then contextualized within extant literature on SMEs, given the focus of the present study and the need to look for specificities in SMEs, that have been understudied compared to HRM in large organizations. The review ends with a picture of how each practice takes place in the Arab countries, particularly in Jordan, based on existing studies.

In light of the above, this chapter aimed to provide a robust theoretical background to the study concerning several axes of analysis. The following chapter will present the contextual background of this study.

Chapter Three: Contextual Background of the Study

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents some pertinent information about Jordan, namely geographical location, population and cultural practices. The next section of the chapter provides a brief picture of the refugee crisis in Jordan and its impact on social structure and labour market. The chapter intends to provide the context of HRM in Jordan, focusing on various forces (demographic, economic, cultural, political, and educational, among others) that influence HR practices. Additionally, the labour market structure and the main challenges facing it are discussed. More specifically, special attention will be given to the challenges brought about by the Syrian refugees' influx.

3.2 Jordan at a Glance

This section presents some features of Jordan, the country where this study was conducted. It reviews its location, language, religion, education, traditions, cultural and economic situation.

3.2.1 Jordan Geography

The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan is an independent state, and one of the developing countries of the third world. It is a small country of about 89,213 square kilometres, located in an unstable area in the Middle East. Jordan suffers from scarce financial and natural resources, where human capital appears to be the main source to ensure economic and social development (Fakih and Ibrahim, 2016). Jordan has good relations with its neighbours from the Arab countries, especially with those of the borders: the Syrian Arab Republic in the north, the State of Palestine in the west, Iraq in the east, and the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in the south. Jordan also has an outlet to the sea via the Gulf of Aqaba in the south, as shown in the following map:

Figure 3.1: Jordan Map



Source: Retrieved from <http://www.lonelyplanet.com/maps/middle-east/jordan/>

3.2.2 Governance System

According to the Jordanian Constitution: *‘The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan is an independent sovereign Arab State. It is indivisible and inalienable and no part of it may be ceded. The people of Jordan form a part of the Arab Nation, and its system of government is parliamentary with a hereditary monarchy’* (Jordanian Constitution, 1952, Article 1).

3.2.3 Jordan Language

Article 2 of The Jordanian constitution defines Arabic as the official language in Jordan, as in the majority of Arab countries in the Middle East, such as Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Oman, United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Iraq, Syria, Lebanon, Egypt, Sudan, Libya, Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco (Rechner, 2019). English is a second language, which is widely spoken particularly at business levels. French and German are spoken to some extent (Robins, 2004).

3.2.4 Jordan Religion

Islam is the formal state's religion. The majority of the population (97.2%) are Sunni Muslims, while 2.2% are Christian, mainly Greek Orthodox, Greek Catholics, Roman Catholic, Armenian Orthodox, Coptic Orthodox and a few Protestant denominations. (CIA, 2016). Other religions are represented in small fractions such as Buddhist 0.4%, Hindu 0.1%, Jewish <0.1, folk <0.1, unaffiliated <0.1, other <0.1 (2010 est.) (CIA, 2016; Komendantova, et al., 2017).

3.2.5 Jordan Traditions

Most customs and traditions in Jordan have emerged from the values and teachings of Islamic principles that promote tolerance, generosity, advice, altruism, social and family solidarity. Islam has created generations of Jordanians that were taught to be warm, kind, open-minded, friendly, loving others, show respect for the elderly and kindness to the young, and at the core of Jordanian society remain the ideals of tribal unity and respect for the family (Robins, 2004; Al-Rousan, Al-Rousan and Al-Azzam, 2019).

3.2.6 Education in Jordan

The education system in Jordan has witnessed considerable progress over the last decades (Melhem and Isa, 2013; Idris, 2016). The development of Jordan's educational system could be described as dramatic progressive. Although Jordan is considered as a poor country in terms of natural resources and wealth, the Jordanian government showed a big interest in investing in its human capital education through establishing a comprehensive education system (Ababneh, Al-Tweissi and Abulibdeh, 2016). Getting access to basic education has been as a cornerstone for all country's development plans. This official interest covers all Jordanian governorates, and the government provided every remote village and community with 10 or more school-age children with a public school (Melhem and Isa, 2013).

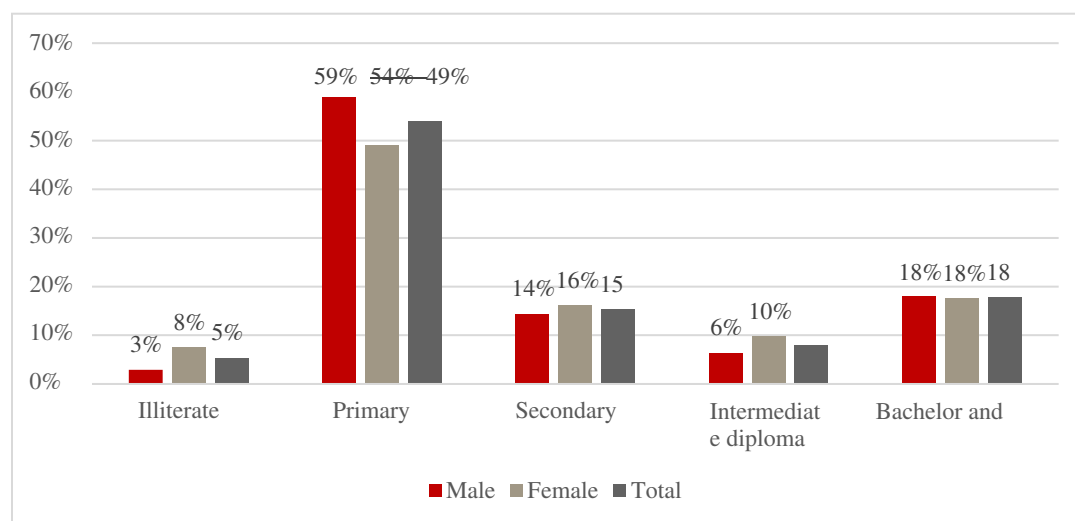
According to the Jordanian Constitution, all Jordanians have the right to get a free public education, regardless of their gender, language, ethnicity or religion (AlJabery and

Zumberg, 2008). The stages of compulsory education are elementary and middle stages starting from 1st to 10th grade, whereas nursery school and kindergarten are facultative (Al-Hassan, Obeidat and Lansford, 2010). The Jordanian Education Act asserted that education in Jordan is originated from Arabic Islamic culture principles such as theism, human value, rights, equality, freedom, truthfulness and honesty (Melhem and Isa, 2013; Janjua and Gaulee, 2019).

Concerning the higher education system in Jordan, it has evolved considerably over the last decades and is available for students holding the general secondary education certificate (Idris, 2016). The higher education courses can be held in private or public community colleges or universities. The credit-hour system is adopted, which facilitates students to select courses according to a study plan.

The figure below shows the distribution of the Jordan population based on gender and educational levels.

Figure 3.2: Jordanian Population' Education



Source: www.DOS.gov.jo, Annual statistics book, 2017.

Despite the relatively high quality of education, there are still some obstacles that the Jordanian government is planning to address. In this regard, The National Education Development Conference which was held in August 2015 resulted in the new vision for education in Jordan (2015–2025) (Jordan 2025: A National Vision and Strategy). This

vision is a turning point in channelling the national dialogue on education towards a new phase of education development in Jordan (Ababneh, Al-Tweissi and Abulibdeh, 2016). Furthermore, based on the reality that the output of basic education serves as the input to the labour market, including higher education as well as technical and vocational training, his majesty King Abdullah in 2017 has issued 'Jordan Human Resources Strategy'. According to SEO, Dajani and De Bel-Air (2019), the strategy aimed to connect basic education, higher education and vocational-technical education and training in one crucible, to assure consistency across the programs and plans for all these educational tracks (SEO et al., 2019).

However, according to a recent UNICEF report (2020), despite Jordan has almost achieved its target of universal access to primary education - with 97% of children in school - and gender parity in education since 1979, the education system has some gaps. The progress in school enrolment did not reach children equally, such as those with disabilities, children from poor socio-economic backgrounds, children involved in child labour, and refugee children (Janjua and Gaulee, 2019). Children in those categories are at greater risk of either dropping out or being left out of education altogether. Thus, improving the quality of education criteria is highly required from the Jordanian government in this regard (Janjua and Gaulee, 2019).

3.2.7 Jordanian Economic Situation

Jordan is not a self-sufficient country due to its slow economic growth, scarcity of natural resources such as water and oil, which force Jordan to depend heavily on foreign aids, primarily from Arab petroleum exporting countries (Idris, 2016). Jordan suffers from structural imbalances, such as having traditional mind-sets and systems versus the need for modernization, an inefficient public sector, a deficient political system and a rapidly growing population (Department of Statistics, 2019). Jordanian workforce also lacks employable skills, and employment depends mainly on the public sector and managerial positions, in addition to insufficient women access to senior management positions and slow integration into the global economy (World Bank, 2019). In this respect, Jordan has

joined the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2000 and has begun participating in the European Free Trade Association in 2001. However, Jordan suffers from debt, poverty, and high unemployment rates as fundamentally social and economic problems (Abdalla, 2015; Sidani et al., 2015; Fallah, et al., 2019).

In this regard, the Jordanian government is striving to improve the economic situation in the country. Jordan Vision 2015 -2025, as a national vision and strategy, has articulated a ten-year plan to foster GDP outgrowth and diminish public debt. This strategy aims to increase the total domestic exports by expanding mainly exporting sectors and facilitating related procedures in one hand, and the development of new export sectors on the other hand. For example, the emphasis has been placed on articular segments such as the development of information technology and knowledge economy, oil shale extraction in the energy sector, and reinforcement of the tourism sector (Idris, 2016).

Further challenges arose in the Jordanian economy because of the instability of political circumstances in the region, which resulted from the influx of huge numbers of refugees, particularly from Palestine, Iraq and Syria. This has placed extra pressure on already fragile infrastructure, the limited resources and job opportunities in the Jordanian labour market, which will be discussed in detail in the next section.

3.2.7.1 Jordanian Labor Market Structure and Challenges

The Jordanian labour market consists of two main sectors: public and private. The private sector is divided into two main branches: the formal and informal sector. According to Assaad (2014), the rate of public governmental hiring has dropped sharply since the mid to late 1980s, with a modest recovery in the 2000s. In terms of the formal private sector, the hiring rates within the Jordanian labour force increased by tripling from 11 percent in 1985 to 33 percent in 1995 and it continued rising slowly to 38 percent until 2010 (Mryyan, 1997; Assaad, 2014).

With regard to the private informal sector, which is considered as the second largest category of employment after the government sector. SMEs account for around

98% of Jordanian enterprises encompassing 60% of the labour force and contributing to 50% of the GDP (Assaad, 2014; AL-Tamimi and Jaradat, 2019). SMEs are an effective large-scale creator of job opportunities for job seekers providing them with income and practical experience, thus reducing poverty and unemployment at the national level (Magableh et al., 2011; Ofori and Aryeetey, 2011; AL-Tamimi and Jaradat, 2019). SMEs are regarded as the backbone of the Jordanian national economy, and the driving engine of economic growth (Magableh and Al-Mahrouq, 2007; Abor and Quartey, 2010; Yahya et al., 2012; Gamage, 2014).

Despite the important role of SMEs in the economic development, there is no single consensus and uniformly accepted definition of what small and medium businesses are (Watson, Storey, Wynarczyk, Keasey and Short, 1994; Zheng, O'Neill and Morrison, 2009; Rohra and Panhwar, 2009). In this regard, Kanu (2015) asserted that there are many different criteria to classify SMEs such as the number of employees, turnover rates, profitability, net worth and inter alia. Ofori and Aryeetey (2011) argued that other criteria can be used to classify enterprises, such as capitalization and sales. The European Union (2003), for example, disseminated a typical definition of SMEs based on the number of employees, gross revenue or balance sheet. On the other hand, the European Commission (EC) classified SMEs based on the number of employees, whereas companies with 1-9 employees are micro-enterprises, companies with 10-99 employees are small ones, and companies with 100-499 employees are classified as medium ones (Watson et al., 1994).

A commonly used criterion in Jordan is the number of employees, as suggested by the Central Bank of Jordan, Jordan Enterprise Development Corporation, Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation, Jordan Loan Guarantee Company and the Department of Statistics. The classification of SMEs is as follows: enterprises with less than 5 employees are classified as micro-enterprises. The enterprises that employ between 5-19 workers are classified as small ones. The enterprises employing between 20-99 workers are classified as medium. Finally, the large enterprises employ 100 workers and more, as shown in table (3.1). For this study and analysis, we will resort to the number

of employees' criteria for SMEs classification adopted by the institutions mentioned above.

Table 3.1: Classification Criteria of SMEs in Jordan.

Number of Employees	Enterprises Type
1-4	Micro-enterprises
5-19	Small enterprises
20-99	Medium enterprises
100 and more	Large enterprises

Source: Jordan Enterprise Development Corporation' Report 2015.

The Jordanian labour market is facing many key challenges. One of the main challenges is the high unemployment rate (AL-Tamimi and Jaradat, 2019; Fallah, et al., 2019). According to a recent report from the Jordanian Department of Statistics (2020), the unemployment rate recorded the highest score in recent years, from 24% in 2016 to 25.2% in 2020. The mismatch between supply and demand is considered as the main reason for high unemployment rates. In an attempt to minimize this gap, the Jordanian government has adopted different procedures through the launch of a Human Resource Strategy focused on the development of the Technical and Vocational Education and Training sector (TVET) (Janjua and Gaulee, 2019). This strategy aims to connect the outputs of basic education, higher education and technical and vocational education and training (TVET) with the labour market needs. Furthermore, the Jordanian government has adopted many other procedures to develop and consolidate a high-quality labour supply. For example, promoting and reinforcing the technical and vocational training and education, improving the quality of graduates, enhancing governance and accountability where it is required, encouraging the innovative initiatives and new mind-set programs that aim to develop and improve the labour market construction to boost the involvement in the labour market (Janjua and Gaulee, 2019).

Another reason for the high unemployment rates is the return of a large number of Jordanian workers from the Arab Gulf states. For decades, the Arab Gulf countries have benefited from Jordanian talents and skills through offering job opportunities for highly

skilled and educated Jordanians. Later, the decline of the Arab Gulf states' economies pushed many Jordanians workers back to Jordan, which resulted in more pressure on the Jordanian labour market (SEO et al., 2019). Another challenge facing the Jordanian labour market is the low rate of female participation in the labour market because of cultural barriers (Assaad, Krafft and Keo, 2018).

The Syrian crisis and the influx of large numbers of refugees into Jordan are considered a challenge of paramount concern for the Jordanian labour market. Several reports show that the Jordanian national economy is not able to accommodate all these new entrants in the labour market (El-Rayyes, 2014). Accordingly, as a result of a large number of migrants and refugees from different nationalities, particularly from Syria, the Jordanian Department of Statistics' report (2015) considers that the main feature that characterizes Jordanian workforce structure is national diversity (Fakih and Ibrahim, 2016; Abu Bakir, 2017). Refugees represent the primary component of this characteristic of diversity since 1948.

Refugees' status in Jordan will be discussed deeply in the rest of this chapter due to its centrality to this thesis.

3.3 Refugees in the World and Jordan: Brief Overview

This section analyses the refugees in the world and the extent of the problem worldwide. It starts with the concept of refugees and presents an overall picture of displaced people. It then presents Jordanian experience in dealing with refugees, particularly those from Syria. Specifically, the main challenges deriving from Syrian refugees' inclusion in the Jordanian labour market are unveiled, for locals, organizations and refugees.

3.3.1 Refugee Concept Definition

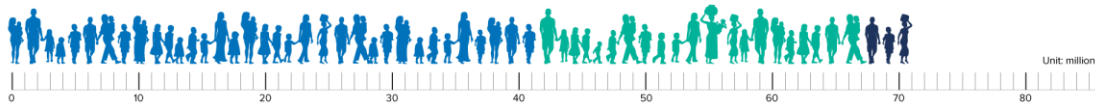
Internationally speaking, the legal concept of the refugee has been defined by the Geneva Convention in 1951. According to its Article 1: *"refugee is someone who is seeking international protection from political or other forms of persecution and who is unable or unwilling to return to their country of origin owing to a well-founded fear of being*

persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion” (Weis, 1967, p. 39). Nevertheless, some scholars in the field of law, criticize this definition, arguing that they are “outdated, partial and circumscribed” Lee et al. (2020, p.2) and unable to encompass various situations leading to refugee displacement, such as social, political and environmental changes. These authors acknowledge the existence of inconsistencies regarding the definition of refugees and other groups, such as asylum seekers and migrants in the international terminology and also within a country. And therefore, adopt a comprehensive definition of refugees as “individuals, regardless of their legal status, who have fled their home country to seek protection and security in another country, and cannot safely return due to a well-founded fear of the prevailing circumstances in their country of origin” (Lee et al., 2020, p. 3).

A recent report from the United Nations High Commitment Refugees’ (UNHCR) released in June 2019, shows that the world is witnessing the highest levels of displacement ever. In an unprecedented record, 70.8 million people are forcibly displaced worldwide. Among them are nearly 25.9 million estimated refugees (UNHCR, 2019), 20.4 million refugees are under UNHCR’s mandate and 5.5 million Palestinian refugees are under UNRWA’s mandate. 57% of UNHCR refugees came from Syria (6.7 million), Afghanistan (2.7 million) and South Sudan (2.3 million), as shown in Figure 3.3, most of them are concentrated in hospitality, food processing, tourism, transport, retail, hotels and catering industries in host societies (UNHCR, 2019).

Figure 3.3: Forcibly Displaced People Worldwide

70.8 million forcibly displaced people worldwide



Internally Displaced People
41.3 million

Refugees
25.9 million
20.4 million under UNHCR's mandate
5.5 million Palestinian refugees under UNRWA's mandate

Asylum-seekers
3.5 million

Where the world's displaced people are being hosted



About 80 per cent of refugees live in countries neighbouring their countries of origin

57% of UNHCR refugees came from three countries

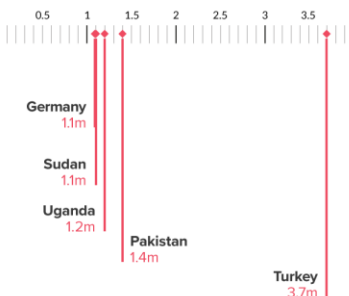


341,800
new asylum seekers

The greatest number of new asylum applications in 2018 was from Venezuelans



Top refugee-hosting countries



UNHCR has data on

3.9 million
stateless people

but there are thought to be millions more



92,400
refugees resettled

37,000 people

a day forced to flee their homes because of conflict and persecution

16,803 personnel

UNHCR employs 16,803 people worldwide
(as of 31 May 2019)

134 countries

We work in 134 countries (as of 31 May 2019)

We are funded almost entirely by voluntary contributions, with 86 per cent from governments and the European Union and 10 per cent from private donors

Source: UNHCR / 19 June 2019



Source: UNHCR/ 19 June 2019. <https://www.unhcr.org/figures-at-a-glance.html>

Several authors have highlighted the burden that refugees place on host societies as they impose additional costs on already hard-pressed public and social welfare budgets, have a negative impact on economic growth, distorting markets, and putting political strains on already fragile and conflict-affected countries (Whitaker, 2002; Zetter, 2012; Fakhri and Ibrahim, 2016). Whereas a look on the bright side shows that refugees bring economic benefits to the host societies through expanding consumption of food and commodities, and most importantly they often represent a flow of human capital with new skills, knowledge, and experience, which form an essential contribution in building the host state's economy (Jacobsen, 2002).

In light of the above, existing literature shows that while some hosting countries emphasized the positive effects of refugees, highlighting the value they can add to hosting societies, others are driven by fear and end up opposing refugees' integration. For example, Bach et al (2017) emphasized that that investing in labour market integration of refugees can positively impact the overall economy and generate high returns in German society. In other countries, such as Jordan, refugees are regarded by society as a menace (Achilli, 2015; Lenner and Turner, 2019). This suggests that different contextual settings and conditions (economic, social, political, cultural, etc.) of the hosting countries and societies lead to different understandings and positionings towards refugees' integration. Jordan's reactions toward Syrian refugees will be discussed later in this chapter.

3.3.2 Jordan's Refugee Crisis

Jordan has a long and unique experience with refugees in terms of accepting their entry and settlement (Simadi and Nahar, 2009). The country has witnessed several waves of refugees from the neighbouring Arab countries over the past decades (Lozi, 2013). Next paragraphs will highlight these influxes and its impact officially and publicly.

3.3.2.1 Jordanian Experience with Refugees

The first wave was from Palestine with the influx of Palestinian refugees after the 1948 Arab-Israeli War, followed by another flow in 1967. Today, Jordan hosts around 2.206.736 Palestinian refugees that enjoy full Jordanian citizenship benefits and rights, and live in Jordanian governorates, except for about 140,000 refugees originally from the Gaza Strip, which was until 1967 under Egyptian administration, currently living in refugees' camps (UNRWA, 2019). However, the Jordanian experience in dealing with the Palestinian refugees' issue showed a successful experience in integrating refugees into the host society. Economically, Palestinian refugees consider Jordan as a second home and played a significant role in contributing to the national development of Jordan since 1948 up to the present time (Bolesta, 2002; Francis, 2015).

The second refugees' movement was from Iraq. The first influx of Iraqi refugees started with the war between Iran and Iraq during the 1980s, followed by Iraq's invasion of Kuwait in 1991. The last conflict was in 2003 with the American-British invasion of Iraq (Lozi, 2013). Those events resulted in the displacement of a large number of Iraqi people and recorded a significant change in all aspects of the social and economic life in Jordan (Lozi, 2013). According to the Population and Housing Census's report (2015), issued by the Jordanian department of statistics, the total number of Iraqis living in Jordanian territory reached 130.911 thousand people, 93.11 thousand of them living in Amman, the capital of Jordan. However, it may upset residents about the presence of refugees and their crowding out of limited resources and scarce job opportunities, which could create some kind of undeclared conflict (Simadi and Nahar, 2009). The Jordanian government dealt with Iraqi refugees as guests, not as refugees. Somehow, this goo-will situation changed in the aftermath of a high influx of them in 2003. This has increased the inflation rates due to the increased prices of food, fuel, real estate and lands especially by rich Iraqi refugees on one hand and has increased job scarcity created by poor Iraqi refugees competing with Jordanian workers on the other hand (Ashbaugh, Ruffer and McAllister, 2012). As a result, frustration began to appear in the political speeches, and popular anger blaming the Jordanian government for following the open-door policy in receiving Iraqi refugees also became salient (Saif and DeBartolo, 2007).

3.3.2.2 Syrian Refugees Influx to Jordan: A Brief Picture

Syrian refugees fled from their home country as a result of the Syrian civil war, which began in 2011. Syria has been under the rule of President Bashar Al-Assad since 2000 when he was elected in an uncontested and non-impartial election after his father's Hafeth Al-Assad 30-years presidency. Dissent began to build and culminate in the Arab Spring, a wave of revolts in countries across the Middle East. This quickly turned a once peaceful country into a war-torn land (Akgündüz, Van Den Berg and Hassink, 2015). The conflict has since caused the widespread displacement of Syrian people. Since 2011, lives have been disrupted, and they have been living in a state of constant fear and uncertainty.

Refugees have been displaced for many years now, an estimated 4 million Syrians have fled to neighbouring countries such as Lebanon, Turkey, Iraq and Jordan, with over half of that number being women and children (Achilli, 2015; Ostrand, 2015).

According to the UN Refugees Agency UNHCR (2020), in the last updated report of May 5th 2020, the number of Syrian refugees is about 656.733. Most of them (193.781 thousand Syrians) concentrated in Amman (29.5%). Al-Mafriq governorate registered 162.551 thousand people (24.8%). Irbid governorate registered 134.774 thousand people (20.5%), while Al-Zarqa governorate registered 95.266 thousand people (14.5%). The number and corresponding percentages of refugees in the various governorates are shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Geographical Concentration of Registered Syrian Refugees Living in Hosting Jordanian Governorates.

Location name	%	Population
Amman Governorate	29.5%	193,781
Mafraq Governorate	24.8%	162,551
Irbid Governorate	20.5%	134,774
Zarqa Governorate	14.5%	95,266
Balqa Governorate	2.8%	18,574
Madaba Governorate	2.0%	13,071
Jarash Governorate	1.4%	9,279
Karak Governorate	1.3%	8,453
Maan Governorate	1.3%	8,359
Ajlun Governorate	1.0%	6,538
Aqaba Governorate	0.6%	3,648
Tafilah Govenorate	0.3%	1,716

Source: UNHCR (2020).

According to Olwan and Shiyab (2012), Jordan does not have an explicit law to address issues related to refugees. Syrian refugees in Jordan are treated as foreign nationals and are subject to national laws that govern their entry, residence and

departure (Turner, 2015). Indeed, Jordan is not a signatory member of the UN 1951 Geneva Convention that governs the situation of refugees, but it treats all refugees under its Alien Law (Olwan and Shiyab 2012). Legally, Syrian refugees are not allowed to work without work permits from the Ministry of Labor (Turner, 2015). Non-Jordanians with legal residency and valid passports can obtain work permits only if the prospective employer pays a fee and shows that the job requires experience or skills not found among Jordanians (Achilli, 2015; Turner, 2015). However, Syrian refugees, over time, developed more contacts and relationships with Jordanian employers and made progressive inroads into informal employment (Al-Kilani, 2014). In 2018, approximately 150,000 Syrians were working illegally in Jordan for low wages mainly in the informal sectors of agriculture, construction, and food services (Jordanian Department of Statistics, 2018). Furthermore, the Syrian refugees in Jordan are characterized as poor, rural, and less educated than Jordanians (Ostrand, 2015; Turner, 2015).

The main challenges facing the Jordanian labour market, organizations and refugees are described below.

3.3.2.3 Syrian Refugees Impact on the Jordanian Labour Market

The arrival of large numbers of Syrian refugees of working age into the Jordanian labour market has put constant pressure on the available job opportunities, which led to increasing unemployment rates in the absence of policies that regulate the recruitment of non-Jordanian workers (Bloch, 2008; Turner, 2015; Fallah, et al., 2019). A large number of Syrian workers has led to low wages in some economic sectors due to their acceptance of wages far below the wages accepted by Jordanian workers. Therefore, the Syrian workers in Jordan are typically willing to work for lower wages and longer hours than their Jordanian counterparts (Olwan and Shiyab 2012; Lozi, 2013; Turner, 2015).

The protracted nature of the Syrian crisis and its negative impact on the living conditions of the Jordanian society has forced Jordanians, who, at first, welcomed Syrians as guests, to deal with them as refugees or hostile (Olwan and Shiyab 2012; Lozi, 2013; Akgündüz, et al., 2015). In other words, Jordanian workers believe that refugees are

thriving on scarce local resources causing increasing resentment among Jordanian community (Fakih and Ibrahim, 2016). Indeed, Jordanians often perceive Syrians as competitors for jobs. The public narrative and general impression are that refugees are coming in and stealing jobs from local workers (Olwan and Shiyab 2012), which sparked protests and tensions between refugees and local workers (Achilli, 2015). In this sense, the job market constitutes a clear point of friction (Olwan and Shiyab 2012).

Turner (2015); Fakih and Ibrahim (2016) stated that the Jordanian government policy, at the beginning of the crisis, imposes very strict rules prohibiting the recruitment of refugees, thereby compelling them to work in the informal sector without work permits. Furthermore, Syrian refugees offer cheap labour in sectors, such as agriculture, construction, housekeeping, catering, food and clothing factories, and consequently end up affecting the wages of Jordanians who work in these fields (Maystadt and Verwimp 2014). Later, under the pressure from the institutions of the international community that deal with refugees, the Jordanian government had signed the Jordan Compact in February 2016, which represent a formal political commitment toward integrating Syrian refugees into the formal Jordanian labour market (Lenner & Turner, 2019). Jordan Compact aims to enhance social protection and refugee working conditions and prevent their exploitation (Malaeb & Wahba, 2018; Hartnett, 2018; Lenner & Turner, 2019).

However, gathering political, economic, and humanitarian aspects in one compact is not an easy task. Jordanian political adherence toward engaging Syrian refugees into the formal Jordanian labour market through enhance socioeconomic integration process has been regarded as the main Jordanian government priority. In this regard, Lenner and Turner (2019, p. 65) argued that *'the Jordan Compact should be seen as a policy model that has achieved enough consensus and incorporated enough disparate objectives to be labelled a 'policy success'.*

Interestingly, Jordanian employers have a common certain belief that most Syrian workers are characterized with high skills and possess distinct technical qualifications in specific crafts that Jordanian workers may not enjoy (Lenner & Turner, 2019). Furthermore, Syrian workers, in general, may be perceived as more committed, diligent

and loyal workers, cheap labour force and accepting of long work hours conditions in comparison with Jordanian at the same level (Stave & Hillesund, 2015; Malaeb & Wahba, 2018).

Accordingly, based on the Council's (2015) report, in addition to the official Jordanian government statements, the current data and indicators predict that Syrian refugees are not likely to return to Syria in the near future. It is expected that they will extend their stay in the Jordanian territory for two more decades at least. This prospect is a sign to the Jordanian organizations that call for managerial actions to integrate newcomers into their workforce and redesign their HRM systems to better adapt to the new structure of the labour market, and increased diversity after the Syrian refugees' influx (Aladwan et al., 2014).

Since the beginning of the Syrian crisis, many researchers address the economic impacts brought about by the Syrian refugees' influx on the Jordanian labour market. For example, Lozi (2013) and Fakihi and Ibrahim (2016) highlighted the impact of Syrian refugees by examining macroeconomic indicators, such as employment and unemployment rates. Furthermore, despite the huge influx of Syrian refugees into the Jordanian labour market little attention has been paid to the way the Jordanian organizations are coping with the excess of the workforce supply. As mentioned above, most studies have focused largely on the macroeconomic aspects of the Jordanian labour market, but no research has addressed the challenges the HR managers in the private sector have to handle. In this regard, Abu-Doleh and Salhie (2005) there is a shortage of HRM programs to deal with issues such as cultural sensitivity, stereotyping and managerial skills for those working in a multicultural environment in Jordanian organizations. The authors argue that planning, job analysis, staffing, training and development, performance appraisal, compensation and reward systems are exercised at a minimum level in both public and private sectors in Jordan (Abu-Doleh and Salhie, 2005).

Similarly, most literature focuses on the economic negative sides that refugees create. The main findings indicate how to restrict refugees' negative effect with hard

policies and instructions related to hiring them to protect the interests of native workers (Fakih and Ibrahim, 2016). On the other hand, these studies share the idea that asylum movements result in a great abundance in the supply of workers with different characteristics and a variety of skills and experiences, which change the structure of the host communities' labour markets (Friedberg and Hunt 1995; Al Ariss, Cascio and Paauwe, 2014). This workforce diversity and the challenges brought by refugee workers should draw the HR managers' attention to set appropriate policies under these abnormal circumstances in order to adopt proactive HRM policies and practices to manage them effectively (Aladwan et al., 2014).

As mentioned above, the Syrian crisis resulted in a massive entry of thousands of Syrian refugees to Jordan, most of them are in working age, imposing a big pressure on the Jordanian labour market and creating new challenges and threats to organizations and managers (Aladwan et al., 2014). Effective management of human capital is highly required in this regard. Increased competition and uncertainty require organizations specifically in SMEs to keep changing their traditional methods of conducting business and seek out updated and new technologies (Aladwan et al., 2014). Many authors argued that intellectual capital is a pivotal resource for the success of SMEs and that it is inextricably linked to their performance (Bontis, 1998; Hormiga, Batista-Canino and Sánchez-Medina, 2011; Ullah, Shah, Hassan, and Zaman, 2011). However, there is a lack of understanding about the concept of intellectual capital that imperils the long-term viability of many SMEs, since it is still in its immature stages in Jordan (Aladwan et al., 2014).

Although refugees face a multitude of challenges and hurdles regarding their workforce integration in the receiving countries, they have been ignored in management research, when compared with other groups of workers, such as expatriates (Caligiuri and Bonache, 2016). The negative narratives regarding refugees often lead to discrimination in the labour market and discriminatory practices in the workplace (Lundborg and Skedinger, 2016), resulting in a vicious cycle of marginalization (Lee et al, 2020). Regulatory and institutional frameworks have also created barriers for refugees' effective

integration in the labour market. Therefore, they end up accepting precarious and low-status jobs, which worsens psychological traumas (Colic-Peisker and Tilbury, 2006). The literature recognizes the scarcity of studies on how organizations are tackling the challenges of refugee participation in the labour market and the urgent need to research the organizational level (Lee et al, 2020).

3.4 HRM Role in the Context of Crisis

Human Resources Management is regarded as one of the most critical functions of today's organizations (Manole, Alpopi and Colesca, 2011). This importance is of utmost importance in times of crises, as it makes up an important dimension of crisis management (Naznin and Hussain, 2016; Vardarlier, 2016; Athamneh, 2018).

Researchers argue that HRM policies and practices can vary significantly, especially in uncertain contexts (Huselid et al., 1997; Dessler, 2013). Naznin and Hussain (2016) assert that traditional HR managers' role has to go beyond traditional responsibilities to better adapt to changing work environments. In line with this rationale, Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart and Wright (2012) argued that in changing business environments influenced by external factors, the traditional HR practices are becoming less effective. Thus, the organization should tailor its HR policies and practices to suit the new contexts (Wang and Maani, 2014). Hence, implementing the best fit HRM approach may work differently under uncertain institutional circumstances, such as crises contexts (Correa-Velez, Barnett and Gifford, 2015; Delaporte and Piracha, 2017).

Crises represent a new context for any organization, either financial, political, or natural disaster crises. Over the last years, the increasing number of political crises around the world resulted in the influx of large numbers of forced migrants and refugees, creating confusion in the host societies' labour market (Delaporte and Piracha, 2017). As said before, such crises affect the responsibilities and roles of HR managers within the organizations and force HR departments to restructure and develop their own HRM systems in response to such contingency factors through training, ensuring empowerment and effective leadership (Erburu, Ruz and Arboledas, 2013).

HRM professionals are expected to have a comprehensive view and understanding of organizational processes and structures that are relevant to the business environment where business and human beings operate (Natal'ya, Demchenko, Makushkin, Vinichenko, and Melnichuk, 2016) so that they can adapt their attitudes and behaviours to those unexpected and turbulent environments. Therefore, one of the most striking challenges facing HR managers during a crisis is to know how to adapt the HR policies and practices effectively in order to maintain productivity and prevent it from affecting employees negatively.

Vardarlier (2016) argued that when a crisis strikes, HR managers should play a strategic role, in the sense that their planning can decrease anxiety throughout the organization. Their role should be performed before, during and after the crises. According to Andrianopoulos (2015), crises management can be divided into three main phases, namely: pre-crisis, crisis, and post-crisis. In the pre-crisis phase, the organization has to conduct steps aimed at identifying possible crises and incubate plans on how they can be handled (Athamneh, 2018). This entails scanning the business' internal and external environment to estimate the possible threats that the organization may face in the course of its operations (Nizamidou and Fotios, 2015).

The second stage corresponds to the actual crisis period when the organization is expected to carry out the crisis management plan developed in the pre-crisis stage. The HRM can play here a significant role in planning on how to deal with crises, including crisis prevention, its impact reduction, and recovery after crisis (Adamou, 2017). According to Mitsakis (2014), crisis management planning is an imperative procedure, which enhances the organization's ability to deal with crises, providing guidelines on how to prevent or avert crises and ensure a faster recovery. However, before setting any plan, it is imperative to conduct a SWOT analysis (Vardarlier, 2016). Identifying strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats is critical for HRM planning in crisis management. According to Wang, Hutchins and Garavan (2009), HR managers should cover some important issues regardless of the organization's type and size, either small, medium or large during a crisis. For example, recruitment and selection process should be

reorganized and prioritized, job analysis should be examined and reevaluated, short- and long-term goals should be reviewed, and strategic goals are broken down into smaller steps (Vardarlier, 2016). Of equal importance is training and talent development, considered a primary role of HRM in this stage (Lockwood, 2005). According to Athamneh (2018, p. 15) in the '*Training for crisis management*' the HR managers are expected to instruct and supervise the training process to guarantee that employees are preparing well for possible crises events through placing a comprehensive training plan in which employees are provided with the necessary knowledge and skills to enhance the recovery process.

The last phase is the post-crisis stage that represents the period after the crisis end and is aimed at determining the best approaches and recovery actions to get the organization back to its original state. These three stages combined represent the success of the HRM effectively dealing with a crisis when it occurs (Athamneh, 2018). If the HR managers can successfully master planning and training functions during crisis time, the organization's performance could be enhanced, thus promoting the bottom-line and ability to deal with future crises (Athamneh, 2018).

In political crises, which result in the influx of a large number of refugees there are many challenges organizations may face in the host societies, particularly within the refugees' recruitment and selection process (Phillimore and Goodson, 2006; Correa-Velez, et al., 2015). Such challenges can result from financial costs related to the legal work permissions for refugees' workers, training specialized HR staff to check the correct documentation and legal status, and refugees' need of more initial supervision. Such hurdles may refrain employers from employing refugees to avoid any legal liability later on and possible financial costs (Hurstfield, et al., 2004; Koca, 2016). To overcome such obstacles, and save the organizations' time, money and efforts, Beiser and Hou (2000) suggested that the organization could get help from designated refugees agencies and job centres. These agencies are dedicated to deal with refugees' matters and undertake the initial documentation check, legal status, certificates, job qualifications and references (Koca, 2016). Therefore, they provide the employers with the necessary

information about refugees to protect employers' interests and prevent refugees from potential discrimination of not being appointed to a certain job (Hurstfield, et al., 2004; Koca, 2016).

Interestingly, some researchers stated that some organizations in host countries have recruited refugees unintentionally only because of their skills, competencies and experiences that match the job requirements (Christie, 2002; Hurstfield et al., 2004; Phillimore and Goodson, 2006). Other organizations recruit refugees to comply with the organizational recruitment and selection strategy to fill the shortage of local labour or as a commitment to promote the diversity principle and rely upon a cross-cultural workforce (Hurstfield, et al., 2004; Koca, 2016).

3.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter focused on HRM in Jordan and illustrated the background of this country concerning the geographical, demographic, social, educational and economic status. Due to the geographical location, and its proximity to countries suffering from unstable political circumstances and experiencing several wars and crises (such as Palestinian, Iraq and Syria), Jordan has a long record of immigration and asylum provision. The chapter analyzed the Jordanian experience with the multiple asylum cases, investigating the challenges that the influx of Syrian refugees has imposed on the country, and the way this affected the workforce market structure. The last section presented a brief discussion of the role of HRM and HR managers in a context of crisis.

Chapter Four: Methodology

4.1 Introduction

The main aim of any research process is to find out answers for given research questions and achieving research objectives (De Vaus and de Vaus, 2001; Altarawneh, 2005). Somekh and Lewin (2005, p.346) defined methodology as *'the collection of methods or rules by which a particular piece of research is undertaken'*, and it is *'the principles, theories and values that underpin a particular approach to research'*. According to Walter (2006, p.35) methodology is *'the frame of reference for the research which is influenced by the paradigm in which our theoretical perspective is placed or developed'*. Mackenzie and Knipe (2006, p.5) asserted that methodology is *'the overall approach to research linked to the paradigm or theoretical framework'*. It is related to the way(s) adopted by the researcher to collect data to answer the research question(s) (McBurney and White, 2003; Montgomery, 2004). In this regard, Willis (2007, p.14) asserted that the term methodology, in general, *'is used to define many facets of a research: the design, the procedures for data collection, methods for data analysis, selection of subjects, and details of the specific treatments.'* According to Mohajan (2018, p.4), research methodology could perceive as *'the logic of development of the process used to generate theory that is procedural framework within which the research is conducted'*.

Guba (1981, p. 76) argued that *'it is proper to select a paradigm whose assumptions are best met by the phenomenon being investigated'*. In this regard, there are various research designs, strategies and approaches that could be adopted to conduct research. The nature of the topic under study, the type of research question(s) (either descriptive or explanatory) and the research objectives impose a specific type of research design and strategy to be followed (Altarawneh, 2005).

This chapter aims to present the methodology and design adopted in this research and the rationale underpinning methodological choices. It first presents the paradigm and philosophy that underlies the approach adopted in the research, addressing the researcher's positivistic stance and the choice of a quantitative approach. The research population and sample as well as the method of data collection (pros and cons) comprise

the following sections. The chapter provides a section on the unit of analysis (SMEs) and study participants (HR Managers or their representatives). The main limitations encountered in the fieldwork are also summarized. Then the main aspects regarding the design and pilot testing of the instrument of data collection – questionnaire – are explained, as well as its content, structure, and validity of the research instrument. The statistical data analysis procedures are also presented at the end of the chapter.

4.2 Research Paradigms and Philosophy

The primary critical issue that should be taken into consideration when deciding the research design is the research philosophy or paradigm (Easterby-Smith, Richard and Lowe, 2002; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 1991). In order to conduct and evaluate any research, it is important to know what are the underlying philosophical assumptions that constitute valid research, and which research method(s) is/are appropriate to generate knowledge in a given study (Bryman and Bell, 2015). According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2003) research philosophy reflects the way we think about the development of knowledge, which consequently affects the way we conduct research.

The research design refers to the overall approach adopted to explore the research question(s), it is related to the overall paradigm/worldview of scientific inquiry, which set the philosophical basis for the research. In this regard, Easterby-Smith et al. (2002, p.27) argued that *'there are at least three reasons why an understanding of philosophical issues is very useful. First, because it can help to clarify research designs. Second, knowledge of philosophy can help the researcher to recognize which designs will work and which will not. It should enable a researcher to avoid going up too many blind alleys and should indicate the limitations of particular approaches. Third, knowledge of philosophy can help the researcher identify, and even create, designs that may be outside his or her experience. In addition, it may suggest how to adapt research designs according to the constraints of different subjects of knowledge structures'*.

According to Bryman (1988, p 4) paradigm is *'a cluster of beliefs and dictates which for scientists in a particular discipline influence what should be studied, how research*

should be done, and how the results should be interpreted'. Guba (1990, p. 17) indicated that paradigm is *'a basic set of beliefs that guide action'*. Whereas Willis (2007 p.8) defined paradigm as *'a comprehensive belief system, world view, or framework that guides research and practice in a field'*. More recently, Walliman (2017, p. 175) referred that a paradigm is *'The overall effect of the acceptance of a particular general theoretical approach, and the influence it has on the scientists' view of the world'*.

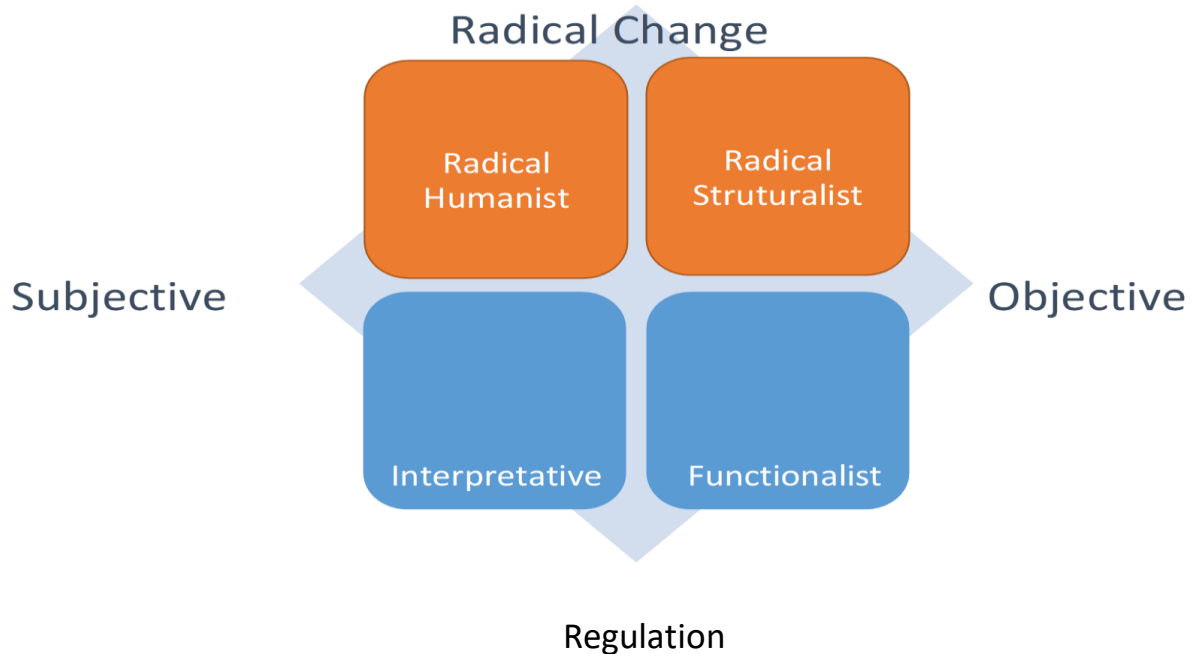
The next section will discuss the philosophical assumptions, and the design strategies underpinning this research.

4.2.1 Social Science Paradigms

One of the most popular models which have attempted to explain paradigms in social science was developed by Burrell and Morgan (1979). The authors suggested that it is useful to conceptualize four sets of assumptions related to ontology, epistemology, human nature and methodology. According to them, all social scientists, implicitly or explicitly, approach their disciplines via assumptions about the nature of the social world and how it should be researched. Assumptions are made about: the very essence of the phenomena under study (ontology), the grounds of knowledge (epistemology), the relationships between human beings (human nature), and how one attempts to investigate and obtain knowledge about the real world (methodology).

Burrell and Morgan' model outlined four worldviews/paradigms for organizational analysis resulting from two dimensions: subjective versus objective debate on one axis and the regulation versus radical change on the other axis. The four paradigms - *functionalist, interpretive, the radical humanist, and the radical structuralist* - correspond to each of the four quadrants, as shown in Figure 4.1. Each paradigm defines different fundamental perspectives for the analysis of social phenomena. The authors approach this endeavour from *'contrasting standpoints and generate quite different concepts and analytical tools'* (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p. 23).

Figure 4.1: Social Science Paradigm - Burrell and Morgan Model (1979)



Source: Burrell, G. and Morgan, G. (1979). *Social Paradigms and Organizational Analysis*. Routledge, New York, p. 23.

The *functionalist paradigm* explains the status quo of the social order; it is based on that society has a real, physical existence and a systematic feature which aims to produce orders and regulations (Hassard, 1991). According to Morgan (1980), the functionalist paradigm is based on the assumption that society has a concrete, real existence, and a systemic character oriented to produce an ordered and regulated state of affairs. It encourages an approach to social theory that focuses upon understanding the role of human beings in society. Behaviour is always seen as being contextually bounded in a real-world of concrete and tangible social relationships. The ontological assumptions encourage a belief in the possibility of an objective and value-free social science in which the scientist is distanced from the scene in which he or she is analyzing through the rigour and technique of the scientific method. The functionalist perspective is primarily regulative and pragmatic in its basic orientation, concerned with understanding society in a way which generates useful empirical knowledge.

In this paradigm, the social science enterprise is considered to be objective and value-free. Thus, it advocates applying the methods of natural sciences to the study of organizations, that a research process in which the scientist is distanced from the subject matter by the rigour of the scientific method. The functionalist paradigm possesses a pragmatic orientation; it is concerned with analyzing society in a way which produces useful knowledge (Hassard, 1991; Easterby-Smith et al., 2002; Saunders et al., 2003).

According to *the interpretive paradigm*, '*the social world possesses a precarious ontological status*' (Hassard, 1991 p. 227). Although the social world is defined by its harmony and coherence and its contribution to the social regulations and orders, it does not possess an external concrete form (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). Instead, it is the product of intersubjective experience, which means that the social world is best understood from the viewpoint of the participant-in-action (Hassard, 1991; Deetz, 1996). This social experience is always a construction that does not exist outside of human consciousness (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). It believes in an inner and true self as an answer to guarantee harmony (Hassard, 1991). The interpretive researcher seeks to dismantle the phenomenological processes through which shared realities are created, sustained and changed. According to Willis (2007), interpretivists are anti-foundation lists, they believe there is no single correct route or particular method to generate knowledge; they believe that attempts to develop a purely 'objective' social science is spurious (Hassard, 1991). Walsham (1993) argued that in the interpretive tradition there are no 'correct' or 'incorrect' theories. Instead, interpretivists should be judged according to how 'interesting' they are to the researcher, as well as those involved in the same areas. They attempt to derive their constructs from the field by an in-depth examination of the phenomenon of interest.

With regard to *the radical humanist paradigm*, the metaphor of this perspective is the revolutionaries of human consciousness emancipation (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). It is compatible with the interpretive paradigm assumption that everyday reality is socially constructed. However, according to Hassard (1991), this social construct is tied to the pathology of consciousness, where the human consciousness is dominated by the

ideological superstructures with which it interacts. This perspective is based on the view that the process of reality creation may be influenced by psychic and social processes, which channel, constrain, and control the minds of human beings, in ways that alienate them from the potentialities inherent in their true nature as humans (Morgan, 1980). This paradigm highlights the alienating modes of thought, which characterizes life in modern industrial societies and try to disrupt the alienation of consciousness and create opportunities for its emancipation (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). Capitalism, in particular, is subject to attack in the humanist's concern to link thought and action as a means of transcending alienation (Hassard, 1991).

Finally, in *the radical structuralist paradigm*, the metaphor is the revolutionaries of materialism or the paranoiacs of the superstructure (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). In contrast to the radical humanist paradigm, is being tied to a materialist conception of the social world (Hassard, 1991). In this regard, Morgan (1980) perceived the reality in the radical structuralist paradigm as possible predominant power, since it is linked to a materialist conception of the hard, realistic and ontologically real structures of the social world. On the other hand, it shares with the functionalist paradigm an objectivist version of the nature of knowledge. The social reality is considered a 'fact'. It has a hard external existence of its own and takes a form, which is independent of the way it is socially constructed. This paradigm considers the social world as rich in contradictions and intrinsic tensions. Such forces generate change through economic and social crises to bring about a radical change in the social system as a whole (Hassard, 1991).

Building on the above statement of social science paradigms, Easterby-Smith et al. (2002) and Saunders et al. (2003) pointed out that there are two main philosophies of epistemologies predominant in the field, namely, positivism and social constructionism (phenomenology). Each of them has a significant role to play in business and management research (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002; Altarawneh, 2005), and therefore will be addressed in more detail in the following section.

4.2.2 Social Science Philosophies 'Epistemologies': Positivism and Interpretivism/Relativism

In social science, there are many research philosophies than can be adopted to lead research methods and analysis, and the most common are positivism and interpretivism. The researcher ability to decide and justify the decision for adopting or discarding a particular research philosophy is an essential part of any research. Thus, it is critical to investigate these philosophies' origins, characteristics and uses to adopt the most appropriate for research in terms of its design, methodology and analysis (Ryan, 2018).

4.2.2.1 Positivism

The positivist approach to scientific research is based on the premise that the world around us is real and related to what we can find out about these realities (McGregor and Murnane, 2010). Based on this perspective, knowledge is produced by using scientific methods and through actual/ real experience gained through experiments or comparative analysis. It aims to reach a distinct description of any chosen field that is regarded as true, regardless of what people perceive. Sciences build on what is already known through developing these scientific facts, thus, knowledge is built up in a cumulative fashion (Altarawneh, 2005; Hasan, 2016). According to Walliman (2017), positivism is built on recognition stance and can be used in social circumstances by applying scientific procedures to measure and reach an understanding of phenomena and its effects.

The positivism proponent scholars defend that as sociology is reducible to psychology, psychology to biology, biology to chemistry and chemistry to physics, then, social sciences can therefore be value-free and objective (McGregor & Murnane, 2010; Walliman, 2017).

According to Remenyi, Williams, Money and Swartz (1998), the researcher within the positivistic paradigm adopts a theory and set of the hypothesis (or hypotheses) about

the relationship between two or more variables under consideration, then try to test empirically by gathering data, thereafter, applying statistical tests to these data to find significant relationships between related variables.

Some social scientists e.g., Hussey and Hussey (1997); Collis and Hussey, (2013); Hasan (2016) have criticized the positivism paradigm arguing that positivist researchers focused on cause-and-effect links between variables, and don't take into consideration how humans interpreted the social world in which these variables occur.

4.2.2.2 Interpretivism / Relativism or Constructivism Philosophy

According to Walliman (2017 p. 173) interpretivism, philosophy is *'The standpoint that recognizes the 'embedded' nature of the researcher, and the unique personal theoretical stances upon which each person bases his/her actions. It rejects the assertion that human behavior can be codified in-laws by identifying underlying regularities, and that society can be studied from a detached, objective and impartial viewpoint by the researcher. Attempts to find understanding in research are mediated by our own historical and cultural milieu'*. This is compatible with Chowdhury (2014, p. 433) argument that interpretivism refers to *'the approaches which emphasize the meaningful nature of people's character and participation in both social and cultural life. It denotes that the methods of the research which adopt the position that people's knowledge of reality is a social construction by human actors, and so it distinctively rules out the methods of natural science'*.

This approach is based on the philosophical dogma of idealism and humanism; it emphasizes that our view of the world around us is the product of our minds' perceptions. In other words, this approach doesn't claim that the outside world is not verifiable, rather, it argues that since researchers are considered as a part of the society they live in and not separated from the human situation under research, they can't be neutral observers. Furthermore, they will try to get to know the external world by means of their beliefs, values, personal perceptions and preconceptions (Walliman, 2017).

In the interpretivist approach, researchers stand up to a world that is already interpreted, thus, the researcher's task is to exhibit the meanings created by humans rather than to discover universal laws (Walliman, 2017). In addition to focusing on the human behaviours which are related to the repetitive, predictable and invariant aspect of society, the researcher concentrates on what is subjective, individual and creative. This could explain the existence of more than one interpretation and perspective of one phenomenon (Walliman, 2017).

According to the interpretivism paradigm, social practices are not natural phenomena (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Instead, they are perceived as social constructions and the consequences of the social practices of organizational participants, which include different interpretations and meanings that individuals attribute to various phenomena. Participants' perceptions and interpretations of phenomena are core issues in the phenomenological paradigm. This could explain why and how people have different perspectives, instead of searching for external causes and fundamental laws to explain their behaviours (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002; Altarawneh, 2005).

Saunders et al. (2000), Easterby-Smith et al. (2002) and Creswell (2003) argued that despite the differences between positivism (quantitative) and interpretivism (qualitative) philosophies, business research is rarely conducted under one specific research paradigm. Thus, many management researchers apply a mixture of two paradigms. Saunders et al. (2000); Altarawneh (2005) asserted that it is not only beneficial to mix two approaches within the same research, but it is often necessary. In this regard, research methodology can be classified as quantitative (positivistic), qualitative (interpretivist) and mixed method approaches (Creswell, 2003).

In light of the above illustration, the present research falls under the functionalist paradigm represented in deductive/ positivist research philosophy where the quantitative research method conducted through a survey questionnaire seems to be the most suitable modality to conduct this research.

For better understanding the methodological choices underlying the present study, a discussion will be provided in the following sections.

4.3 Quantitative Research Design

Bearing in mind the scarcity of studies regarding HRM in Jordan, current HR practices and challenges, and the non-existence of studies focusing on HR practices applied to Syrian refugees, the present research aims to shed light on those topics, by conducting an exploratory study, using a quantitative survey. The research objectives and questions are descriptive in nature and intend to describe and characterize four core HR practices that SMEs are currently implementing regarding Jordanian and Syrian refugees and unveil differences/similarities in the application of those management practices. The HR practices being studied are recruitment and selection, organizational integration and socialization, training and development, and performance appraisal systems. Besides, the study aims to identify the perceived challenges posed/felt by Syrians on each practice from the HR managers (or the person in charge of HRM) perspective. The overall aim is to describe and document the current status of four main HR practices focusing on various aspects of those HR processes, and not to formulate and test hypotheses. The selection of a research design is based on the phenomena under study and the research questions, which are recalled below.

1. What is the status of HRM practices, namely recruitment and selection, organizational socialization and integration, training and development, and performance appraisal system in Jordanian SMEs?
2. What are the main methods used in each HR practice?
3. Are there differences in the methods used in each HRM practice regarding Jordanian and Syrian employees?
4. What are the main challenges faced by HR Managers and the main constraints affecting Syrian employees from HR managers perspective in each practice?

Those questions that were informed by the study main aim and research objectives, as follows:

1. To analyze the HRM practices in Jordanian SMEs, namely recruitment and selection, organizational integration and socialization, training and development, and performance appraisal system.
2. To identify the main methods used in each HRM practice regarding Jordanian and Syrian employees.
3. To examine the similarities or/and differences in the methods used in each practice concerning Jordanian and Syrian employees.
4. To determine the major challenges facing HR managers in each practice.
- 5.

4.3.1. Quantitative Research Approach: Features, Pros and Cons

Rudestam and Newton (2001; 2014) argued that researchers within the quantitative approach are playing as a separate and objective observer of the action; they are trying to govern the field of study as much as possible through limiting the focus into a narrow band of behaviours and set of previously identified variables. A brief characterization of the quantitative research approach is presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Key Features of the Quantitative Research Approach

Quantitative Research	Brief Description
<i>EXAMINES</i>	Phenomena: A fact or situation that is observed to exist or happen, particularly when the cause or explanation is in question.
<i>INTERPRETATION</i>	The quantitative research approach usually refers to the systematic investigation of phenomena through statistical and mathematical analysis and the processing and analysis of numerical data.
<i>USUALLY SELECTED WHEN:</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is necessary to analyze and process a large amount of quantitative data to verify hypotheses and/or test the theory. • There is no uncertainty about the conceptions under consideration. • The research can be carried out with questionnaires that include simple questions and short answers that can easily be quantified and compared.
<i>GENERAL CONTEXT</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Correlation with experiments.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Testing of hypotheses related to phenomena. • Use of advanced statistical tools. • Using questionnaires.
<i>QUESTION FORM</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Closed Questions
<i>DATA FORMAT</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Numeric data (quantified) usually obtained by questionnaires.
<i>ADVANTAGES</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The result is numerical (quantitative) and is therefore often considered objectively (fact-based, measurable and observable). • The quantitative research approach facilitates the processing and analysis of large volumes of data. • Quantitative data makes it easier to highlight changes and differences. • In quantitative research it is easier to compare numerical data. • The quantitative approach facilitates the development of quantitative valuation indicators.

Source: Basias & Pollalis (2018, p.93-94) Quantitative and Qualitative Research in Business & Technology: Justifying a Suitable Research Methodology.

The survey method is considered as the most quantitative strategy adopted, it could be applied through questionnaires and structured interviews tools (Bennett, Glatter and Levacic, 1994). The authors argued that quantitative methods characterize by many features; it could provide a large scale of statistics gathered from large samples that covered a wide range of cases. Thus, quantitative methods could be faster and less expensive.

On the other hand, quantitative methods could have many drawbacks since it concentrates on what is in present, or what happened recently, which make it difficult to know what the changes and the necessary actions is should be adopted in the future (Altarawneh, 2005). This disadvantage renders the quantitative methods to be inflexible and synthetic (Bennett, et al., 1994). Furthermore, quantitative methods are not very effective in understanding processes or the significance that people attach to actions, thus, they are not very helpful in generating theories (Altarawneh, 2005).

4.4 Research Population, Sample, Respondents and Data Collection

4.4.1 Research Population

According to Asiamah, Mensah and Oteng-Abayie (2017, p.1607), the research population refers to '*the group of individuals having one or more characteristics of interest*'. This study was conducted in Jordan and specifically in SMEs. As stated before, the reason for choosing Jordan is the paucity of empirical studies concerning HRM systems in the Middle East countries in general, and in Jordan in particular to provide an answer to various calls from scholars. The previous chapters (2 and 3) reviewed extant literature and showed that the empirical studies in the field of HRM in Jordan are modest and present several weaknesses. The managerial rhetoric emphasizes the relevance of employees in achieving a competitive advantage, but research about HRM in Jordan is still in its infancy as in many developing countries. In addition to the scarcity of studies on the current nature of HRM in Jordan, the challenges brought about the influx of Syrian refugees to organizations, (HR) managers, and employees remain understudied. As stated in the introduction of this thesis, conducting research on HRM practices of Jordanian organizations employing Syrian refugees emerged as an opportunity to fill in some gaps in this field of research. Since SMEs play an essential role in the Jordanian economy and comprise the majority of organizations in the country, they became the object of analysis in this research.

Another reason to choose Jordan is the fact that it is the home country of the researcher. The motivation to contribute to a field that has received little attention and needing urgent research, especially due to the nature of the Syrian crisis has stimulated the research. Other motives have a practical nature, namely during the fieldwork. Being a Jordanian researcher was regarded as facilitating her mission of collecting data, without any obstacles in terms of language, cultural barriers, accommodation, ease of movement, time issues, among other reasons.

Thus, the population of the current study represents all SMEs operating in Jordan that employ Syrian employees, licensed and listed in the Jordanian Ministry of Labor. The total number of active enterprises in Jordan is 167.519. The majority are micro and SMEs,

with a total of 166.638 (Jordanian Department of Statistics, 2018), as shown in table 4.2. Among these, only a few employ Syrian refugees (Table 4.3).

Table 4.2: Distribution of Enterprises in the Private Sector According to the Size

Enterprise' Size	The Employees Number	No. of Enterprises	Percentage
Micro	1-4	150,338	89.7
Small	5-19	13,485	8.0
Medium	20-99	2,815	1.7
Large	100 or more	881	0.52

Source: Department of Statistics, Enterprises Census 2018, Amman, Jordan.

Table 4.3 outlines the distribution of all enterprises (micro, small and medium, and large) employing Syrian workers, with a total number of 2229. According to official data (Jordanian Ministry of Labor, 2019), 344 SMEs employ Syrian refugees, which is the target population of this research.

Table 4.3: Distribution of Enterprises in the Private Sector that Employ Syrian Workers

Enterprise size	Number of enterprises employing Syrian workers
Large	20
Small and Medium	344
Micro	1865
Total	2229

Source: Jordanian Ministry of Labour/ Syrian refugees' unit (2019). Amman, Jordan.

According to data from the Jordanian Department of Statistics (2019), Syrian refugees in Jordan are concentrated in three main industrial zones, namely: Abdullah II

Ibn Al-Hussein Industrial Estate (AIE) in Sahab city, Al-Hassan Industrial Estate (HIE) in Irbid, and Al Muwaqar Industrial Estate (MIE). The researcher adopted the convenience sampling technique, based on the geographical criteria, which will be explained in detail in the next section.

4.4.2 Research Sample and Respondents

In this study and many other pieces of research, it is impossible or impractical to observe the whole population, due to its size and other constraints (Etikan, Musa and Alkassim, 2016). Because of various limitations (such as time, geographical accessibility, and other researcher's resources), the present study has used a sample. According to Etikan, et al. (2016, p.1) the research sample is '*a portion of a population or universe*'.

Mackey and Gass (2015 p.175) define convenience sampling as the '*selection of individuals who happen to be available for study*'. In the convenience sampling method, which is also known as Haphazard Sampling or Accidental Sampling (Etikan, et al., 2016), the members of the targeted population are selected based on the researcher's convenience, at the right place at the right time, making it easier for the researcher to access and collect data from them. According to Kivunja (2015), some specific pre-defined criteria help to decide for a convenience sampling, namely the geographical accessibility, participants' availability at a given time or their willingness to participate and to take part of the study (Acharya, Prakash, Saxena and Nigam, 2013). Thus, the rationale behind using convenience sampling is the ease to reach participants and gather data in a flexible manner (Dörnyei, 2007; Kivunja, 2015).

Since quantitative methods intend to achieve breadth rather than a depth of understanding as in qualitative methods (Patton, 2002), the convenience sampling technique is more commonly applied to quantitative studies than qualitative research (Etikan, et al., 2016). However, the choice of the sampling technique has to take into account the nature of the study (Etikan, et al., 2016).

Although the convenience sampling is regarded as the most commonly used sampling method, due to its lower cost (Acharya et al., 2013), greater speed in collecting data, and availability of participants at a specified time (Kivunja, 2015), it has many

limitations. The most striking is that convenient samples may not be representative of the population and are likely to be biased (Hatch and Lazaraton, 1991). Specifically, the nonrandom selection of participants in convenience sampling can lead to bias and subjectivity in choosing the subjects of the study, which prevents the researcher from extracting inferences about the whole population (Dornyei, 2007; Etikan, et al., 2016). In addition, since the convenience sampling is not regarded as representative of the population the results from the gathered data cannot be generalized beyond the sample (Mackey and Gass, 2015).

Twenty three (23) questionnaires were firstly distributed and analyzed in order to pilot test the items of the questionnaire and not included in the research sample (as explained in detail in a subsequent section).

The final version of the questionnaire was sent to 222 SMEs addressed to the HR manager or the person in charge of the HR department (the most likely to have experience with HR practices). HR managers or those responsible for HRM issues are in a position to reflect upon and provide more accurate information regarding HRM in Jordanian SMEs, current situation and challenges. More specifically, the reason for selecting them was that HR managers or their representatives are the most knowledgeable in terms of planning, implementing and evaluating the HR practices under investigation in this research that are recruitment and selection, training and development, organizational socialization and integration and performance appraisal systems. Thus, obtaining their views and perceptions regarding the HR practices in the use and main challenges associated with Syrian refugees is very critical to understand the whole picture of HRM in these enterprises.

Accordingly, 222 questionnaires were distributed as follow:

- 200 questionnaires were delivered by hand and collected later by the researcher herself. The number of returned questionnaires was 145, the valid of them were 129 questionnaires.

- 22 questionnaires sent via email, the returned were 11, the valid of them were 5 questionnaires. Thus, the total number of valid questionnaires for analysis purposes was

134. Distributing the questionnaire via email has many advantages such as low cost, the ability to conduct it in a short period of time, flexible design, in addition to automatically saving respondents' answers and real-time access to data (Nayak and Narayan, 2019). On the other hand, this method also presents some disadvantages, such as survey fraud possibility, and the potential of data crash in the servers because of websites hacking or other electronic issues (Nayak and Narayan, 2019).

Since the responses via email were taking too long, the researcher decided to conduct the distribution in person. Being close to respondents would allow for an explanation of the research aim and clarification of ambiguous or unclear statements. In some cases, the HR manager or the person in charge of HRM was out of the office or busy and the questionnaire was left with the secretary to be completed later, at his/her convenience.

Thus, of the 222 questionnaires distributed, 134 were completed and returned to the researcher as usable (129 were collected in person and 5 were received by email), resulting in a 60.3% response rate.

In light of the above considerations, it is worth mentioning that SMEs differ from other enterprises employing Syrian workers (micro and large), which undermine the researcher's ability to generalize findings from this sample to organizations with different sizes with Syrian workers.

4.5 The Questionnaire as a Method of Data Collection

The questionnaire is one of the most common methods used to collect data in social science research (Malhotra, 2006). Sekaran (2003, p. 236) defined it as '*a reformulated written set of questions to which respondents record their answers, usually within rather closely defined alternatives*'. According to Malhotra (2006, p. 176), the questionnaire is '*a formalized set of questions for obtaining information from respondents*'.

According to Saunders et al (2003), the questionnaire can be classified into two main categories based on how it is administered:

1. Self-administered questionnaires can be delivered by hand to each respondent and collected later (a personally administered questionnaire) or delivered and returned via email or internet (on-line questionnaires) or posted to respondents who return them by post after completion (posted or mail questionnaire). This type of questionnaire is completed/filled by the respondents.

2. interviewer-administered questionnaires entail a structured interview where the respondents need to answer a predetermined set of questions based on standardized questions where the researcher is the interviewer person.

The researcher decision between these two types of questionnaires depends on many factors such as the size of sample required for analyses, the required response rate, the type and number of questions needed to be asked, the time needed to answer all the questions. Other aspects to be considered are the importance of the characteristics of the respondents from which the researcher wants to obtain data and where the respondents are, in addition to what extent the respondents are in charge of the research topic, and the ease of data entry automating (Saunders et al., 2003; Altarawneh, 2005).

4.5.1 Questionnaire Advantages and Disadvantages and the Choice of Self-Administered

The questionnaire presents many advantages as well as disadvantages compared to other methods of data collection.

They seem to be particularly useful when the sample represents a relatively large research population due to the speed at which it reaches respondents and the fact that it is cheaper for both researcher and respondents (Meadows, 2003). Furthermore, the questionnaire makes use of advanced statistical analysis programs, which allows for an easy comparison and understanding of collected data (Meadows, 2003).

On the other hand, Meadows (2003) argues that questionnaires are more time-consuming regarding design, piloting and results' analysis. Non-response bias or missing data can decrease questionnaire accuracy. In this regard, the respondents may provide the ideal answers and give more socially acceptable responses in some issues (Meadows,

2003). In the self-administered questionnaires, the researcher can't guarantee that the intended respondents are the ones answering the questionnaire. Furthermore, since the questions are standardized, it is not possible to add and explore any other issues related to the research questions and objectives (Oppenheim, 1992).

The present research has adopted the questionnaire as a method of data collection due to the nature and aim of the thesis and the research objectives presented above. Therefore, a self-administered questionnaire addressed to the HR manager was distributed among the selected SMEs and collected again by the researcher herself. This type is also referred to as drop-in and pick-up questionnaire. A few (22) were sent by email and returned after completion. Oppenheim (1992: p. 103) synthesized it as follows: *'the self-administered questionnaire is presented to the respondents by an interviewer or by someone in an official position. The purpose of the inquiry is explained, and the respondent is left alone to complete the questionnaire, which will be picked up later. This method of data collection ensures a high response rate, accurate sampling and a minimum of interviewer bias, and giving the benefit of a degree of personal contact'*.

As previously stated in this research, the questionnaires were addressed to the people who are in charge of HRM activities (HR managers or their representatives) in the targeted organizations. Those persons are most knowledgeable about the HRM issues under study. By the same token, Sekaran (2003) emphasized that this type of questionnaire gives the researcher the chance to introduce his/her topic face to face with the respondents, thus motivating them to answer all the questions, and clarifying any vague question they can encounter in the survey. Additionally, this type of questionnaire is relatively inexpensive and can be distributed and collected in a short period of time.

4.6 The Fieldwork

Since the fieldwork of this study was carried out in Jordan, the researcher had the chance to be in Jordan. She attended a mobility program at Yarmouk University, due to a scholarship granted to the researcher in the context of JAMIE project.

The Jordanian Ministry of Labor is the official body that possesses information related to the research population of this study (SMEs that legally employ Syrian refugees).

Thus, the researcher visited the Ministry to obtain a list of these enterprises and their addresses. The report showed that the presence of Syrian workers is concentrated in the industrial zones distributed along with the Kingdom from North to South, but the greatest concentration was in the following three industrial cities:

1. Abdullah II Ibn Al-Hussein Industrial Estate (AIE) which is located in Sahab City, 12 Km South-east of Amman the capital.
2. Al-Hassan Industrial Estate (HIE) which is located in Irbid Governorate, 72 Km North of Amman the capital.
3. Al Muwaqar Industrial Estate (MIE) which is located along the international highway that links Jordan with Iraq and the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

In addition, the report showed the existence of Syrian workers in retail and service stores in the capital, Amman, especially in the catering and confectionery sector.

The next step was visiting these enterprises where the researcher introduced herself and identified the reason for her visit. In this regard, the formal cover letter from the researcher's university played a significant role in reassuring the participants the academic aim of the research and creating a status of confidence. It stressed that their information would be treated with the utmost confidentiality, and their names, as well as their organizations' names, would be kept confidential too. This seems to have encouraged them to participate in the research and completing the questionnaire.

The pilot testing of the questionnaire took place in the middle of April 2019 and ended up in the last quarter of May 2019. It was completed by 23 HR managers selected outside the sample. After introducing the required amendments (as explained in detail later), the questionnaire distribution process took place from the third quarter of June 2019 till the second quarter of September 2019.

During the questionnaire administration, the researcher asked the participant if he/she could answer it immediately or complete it in another time. If the participant

decided to fill it immediately, it allowed the researcher to have an informal discussion about HRM practices and main problems and challenges they faced during the Jordanian and Syrian hiring process. Such conversations allowed the researcher to take note of valuable information from the respondents. But if the choice was to answer the questionnaire later, the researcher asked about when she could come back and pick up the completed questionnaire. In some cases, the researcher had to call the participants by phone to ask if they had already completed the questionnaire.

During the visits to collect the completed questionnaires, the researcher was keen to pick up the questionnaire in the respondents' office to assure that it was filled by the intended persons. Some HR managers or their representatives completely refused to meet the researcher. Some of them seemed a bit afraid when they heard about Syrian workers, whereas others welcomed the researcher and showed enthusiasm for her research topic. Whenever possible, when picking up the questionnaire, the researcher took the chance to initiate a discussion on the questionnaire content, and once again used the opportunity to take note of other relevant comments. Additionally, some respondents offered their help in case the researcher needed further clarification on the topics under study.

The geographical location of SMEs that employed Syrian workers in specific industrial areas has helped the researcher greatly during the process of distributing the questionnaire, saving her a lot of time. However, distribution in the retail stores in Amman, especially in the catering and confectionery sector, required a great effort and time in addition to the financial cost.

Finally, it is worth mention that the fieldwork was a very meaningful experience for the researcher since it was a good opportunity for her to get closer contact with the practitioners in the HRM field. She had the chance to know a lot of people and enterprises in Jordanian SMEs, which she thinks will be helpful for her in the future when conducting other researches and studies.

4.6.1 Limitations during the Fieldwork

The researcher has encountered various obstacles and challenges in the fieldwork phase that can be summarized as follows:

First: Consuming a lot of time before meeting the respondents. In some SMEs, the researcher had to wait for the respondents until they finish their work, which sometimes extended to one and a half hour to meet him/her. Some of them were outside the office, which forced the researcher to reschedule the visit or leave the questionnaire with the secretary.

Second: During the questionnaires' distribution, the researcher had to move across places, and the fact that she did not own a private car, made this a complex, tiring, and time-consuming stage. This was particularly stressing in the industrial zones characterized by large spaces, due to the distribution of the enterprises under study. The same challenge regarding geographical dispersion of organizations emerged during the distribution of the questionnaires in the catering and confectionery sector in Amman city, which required considerable energy, time, and financial resources.

Third: The place of residence has hindered the researcher's movement, as the researcher lives in the Al-Balqa Governorate/ Salt city (located about 35 Km West of the capital Amman), and the research was conducted in two other governorates, namely the capital of Amman which has two industrial cities, and Irbid governorate which has one industrial zone, in addition to retail stores in the catering and confectionery sector. Travelling between governorates to distribute and collect the questionnaires among several SMEs took a long time from the researcher.

Fourth: The researcher obtained a scholarship from the Erasmus + + ICM (where ICM is the acronym for International Credit Mobility) for the academic year 2018/2019, under the JAMIES project, at Yarmouk University in Jordan as a host university. One month after the beginning of the semester, her supervisor at Yarmouk University Prof. Muhammad Al-Ajlouni passed away. Many procedures have been taken to nominate a new supervisor in cooperation with the International Relations Office at the University of Minho. Dr Alaa Mohammad Mustafa Alqudah from Yarmouk University/Faculty of

Economics and Administrative Sciences was appointed as the new supervisor. This process took a long time, especially regarding correspondences between the two universities. All these events affected the time of data collection for this thesis.

Fifth: During an extension of the mobility programme, a significant amount of time was spent improving the content and format of the questionnaire. Although this took more time than expected, the insights and comments from three Jordanian academics at Yarmouk University/ Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences would be decisive to increase the rigour of the questionnaire development process. Consulting these experts in the field was intended to refine wording and content of questions and items generated from the related literature and its adequacy to the Jordanian context. And to help to identify additional questions and items not included in the questionnaire that could be relevant for the research. Although time-consuming, such assessment and related feedback have proved essential to detect problems that might affect the construct validity of the survey items.

Six: As mentioned in previous chapters in this thesis, the socio-cultural background, traditions, customs, and the lifestyle in Arabic countries, such as Jordan, imposed many social limitations on the researcher. During the data collection stage, the researcher found it particularly difficult to combine research tasks with the social obligations resulting from the family role. Providing care and support to the numerous members of the nuclear and extended family was an everyday challenge.

4.7 Research Questionnaire Design

The main purpose of designing a research questionnaire is to create an instrument that enables answering the research questions and meet the research objectives effectively (Saris and Gallhofer, 2014). The researcher has to take into account numerous aspects when designing the questionnaire, which will determine its success or failure. It is a complex process that involves various steps and requires attention to many content and format details. Those include the language of the questionnaire, wording, order, clarity, depth and length, type of questions, required time to answer all questions, among

other aspects. It is of utmost importance to include a clear and elucidative introduction explaining the purpose of the research and assuring confidentiality and anonymity, and clear instructions on how to answer the questions (Saris and Gallhofer, 2014).

The researcher allocated a huge amount of time and effort to prepare, draft, and pretest the questionnaire before fielding the research. The first step involved in the development of the questionnaire was identifying and deciding what topics were going to be covered. The related literature played a critical role in this regard, guided by the research objectives and questions. The researcher reviewed the extant studies on HRM conducted in Western, Middle East and Jordan, to get familiar with main theoretical, methodological and empirical developments that could help in the questionnaire design stage. The questionnaire development was an iterative process that involved several meetings with the supervisor and conversations with HR experts in Jordanian organizations to discuss drafts of the instrument. The questionnaire resulting from these rounds of revisions was then pretested and some adjustments were introduced before the fieldwork. Further details will be provided in a subsequent section.

The language adopted in the questionnaire is of crucial importance. It has to be compatible with the respondents' language skills, otherwise, it will be very hard for them to answer the questions and avoid providing inaccurate information. Therefore, special attention has to be given to language and wording to minimize difficulties in understanding the questionnaire. Since the respondents of this research are Jordanian managers, and the Arabic language is their mother language, the questionnaire was firstly developed in English and then translated into Arabic. The characteristics of the responding population were taking into consideration, and since it is a specialized group the questionnaire resorted to the technical words and terms used in HRM. Nevertheless, the researcher kept in mind the importance of clear and easy to understand questions and instructions to increase the likelihood of getting more accurate data.

In what concerns the questionnaire order, the researcher adopted the funnel approach that simplifies and helps the respondents to proceed and move between the questionnaire sections. It started with general questions related to demographic data

from respondents (e.g., gender, age, and education) and information on some organizational characteristics, and then moved to specific questions on the topics under analysis. In this regard, Meadows (2003, p. 195) stated that *'Initial questions can influence questions asked later in a questionnaire. As a rule, a series of questions should start with a general introduction to a topic, followed by specific questions related to the topic. This prevents specific questions from biasing responses to the general questions. Going from general to specific is called the funnel approach, because you begin with broader (more general) questions and then ask narrower (more specific) questions, reflecting the shape of a funnel'*.

4.7.1 Research Questionnaire Development

The research questionnaire includes a multitude of questions and statements to cover the various topics of analysis comprising the research questions and objectives. As stated earlier in this chapter, the questionnaire was subjected to review and scrutiny by the supervisor of this research. Additionally, it received the feedback from three members of the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences at Yarmouk University, the host university where the researcher was during a mobility program. This mobility program took place in the final phase of the questionnaire development and continued through the data collection phase. Those scholars are specialized in HRM in the Jordanian context, who reviewed and provided insightful comments on how to improve the questionnaire. As a result, several modifications and corrections were introduced to better adapt to the Jordanian context.

As mentioned earlier, the respondents of this study are Jordanian HR managers in SMEs, thus, the questionnaire was translated into Arabic. The questionnaire was typed in two languages (Arabic and English). Then, the questionnaire was presented to the three scholars at Yarmouk University in Jordan who are familiar with HRM issues, terminology, and cultural idiosyncrasies, and provided their useful comments and insights to improve it. The translation process from English to the Arabic language passed through various stages, the researcher translated the questionnaire by herself, then she sent it to

someone proficient in both languages in order to ensure that there were no differences between the original text (The English version) and the translated version (The Arabic version). The version resulting from the previous steps was pretested and some adjustments were also made.

4.8 Piloting the Questionnaire

According to Saunders et al. (2003: p. 308), the *'purpose of the pilot test is to refine the questionnaire so that respondents will have no problems in answering the questions and there will be no problems in recording the data. In addition, it will enable you to obtain some assessment of the questions' validity and the likely reliability of the data that will be collected'*.

The pilot testing of the questionnaire took place in the middle of April 2019 and ended up in the last quarter of May 2019. The researcher distributed 23 questionnaires in SMEs located in the industrial zone Abdullah II Ibn Al-Hussein Industrial Estate (AIE) located in Sahab-Amman, addressing HR managers or their representatives. Since the respondents were Jordanian and their mother language is Arabic, the questionnaires were distributed in (Arabic version) to reveal any obscure, enigmatic, unclear or messy questions.

4.8.1 Validity and Reliability of Research Tool

In quantitative studies, the evaluation of the validity and reliability of the instrument is fundamental to determine the rigour, accuracy and credibility of the research.

4.8.1.1 Validity

According to Hussey and Hussey (1997: p. 57), validity is *'the extent to which the research findings accurately represent what is really happening in the situation'*. Thus, the researcher should seek to adopt the appropriate research measures and tools that warrant a full understanding of the questions by all respondents (Hussey and Hussey,

1997). To meet the validity and reliability criteria, an extensive literature review was done to identify the constructs and measures that would prove useful for this research. Various items were adopted from existing literature on HRM, namely those pertaining to HR practices, procedures, methods and techniques. Since the study explores some topics that have not been measured before through empirical research (challenges facing HR managers and Syrian refugees), the content validity of these items is difficult to assess. Nevertheless, by looking at extant literature on HRM and Syrian' influx into the labour market, the questionnaire tried to cover main challenges posed to HR managers on each HR practice, emphasizing the aspects that have received greater attention. Jordanian scholars, also experts on HRM in Jordanian organizations, were asked to give their opinions and feedback regarding the questions and measures, thus increasing face validity. Additionally, the variables, items and response options were scrutinized in the several rounds of the questionnaire development, particularly in the pre-testing of the instrument.

Therefore, a pilot study was conducted to test the instruments' psychometric properties and to discover difficulties that might be encountered in the course of actual data collection, and to check the suitability of the data collection instrument to Jordanian culture. The pilot study helped to determine the time needed for the participants to fill the self-reported questionnaire, readiness, and clearness of tools' items. The piloting was done using the responses of 23 participants which constitute approximately 7% of the 334 SMEs employing Syrian refugees. Convenience sampling was used to collect the data from human resources managers or their representative in SMEs. The inclusion and exclusion criteria for the pilot sample was the same as the actual study sample.

The validity of the developed tool was assured via achieving construct and content validity; the researcher has meticulously selected items that cover all relevant parts of study main variables (recruitment and selection, organizational integration and socialization, training and development, and performance appraisal) based on the available relevant literature. As mentioned above, the face validity was conducted using an expert panel consisting of three members of the Faculty of Economics and

Administrative Sciences at Yarmouk University, the host university where the researcher was during a mobility program, namely: Dr Alaa Alqudah, Dr Hussam Alshammari and Dr Saif Alathamneh.

Validity was also addressed through the WHO guidelines of translation, which is equivalent to face validity. The translation and back translation have guaranteed cultural appropriateness, language issues, grammar issues, comprehension, understandability, and clarity. Finally, after conducting the pilot study criterion validity was assured via the testing correlation between each tool results and items using SPSS 24. The following tables present the correlation scale items and their corresponding values of Pearson 'R'. Giving that degree of freedom was 21, tested items were considered valid if the significance value (p-value) is < 0.05 and 'RXY' value is higher than 'R' table product-moment which was 0.413.

The Recruitment and Selection process scale was originally developed from relevant literature (described in detail in the section dedicated to the instrument of data collection). This scale contains 16 items intended to capture the level of (dis)agreement of respondents with statements regarding the company's recruitment and selection process, using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3=neutral, 4= strongly agree, 5= agree). The sentences aim to analyze the respondents' perceptions about the recruitment and selection procedures followed by their company and the factors affecting them. As shown in Table 4.4, the scale has four negative items (item 7, 11, 12, and 13), that have been recorded before calculating the total score. Total scores will range from 16 to 80; with higher scores indicating more positive perceptions regarding recruitment and selection process (See Appendix D).

Table 4.4: Recruitment and Selection Process Validity Test

Item number	Scale Items	Correlation with the total score (R)
1.	Job analysis (job description and job specification) is an integral part of the overall recruitment process.	0.462
2.	When seeking to fill any vacancy, the organization considers the internal candidates that could be promoted to the available post.	0.621

3.	The recruitment process provides a large and adequate pool of applicants.	0.875
4.	When assessing present and future needs, the changes in the external environment (e.g. economics, social or political crises) are taken into account.	0.818
5.	The recruitment process follows the principles of transparency and equity.	0.840
6.	The recruitment process follows the principles of fairness.	0.857
7.	Discrimination (based on gender, age, religion, nationality etc.) is likely to happen at any stage of the recruitment process. (negative item)	0.580
8.	The recruitment process is used to promote heterogeneity in the workplace.	0.515
9.	Predefined criteria are applied at all stages of the recruitment process to eliminate the risks of bias and discrimination.	0.420
10.	The organization follows specific application procedures to provide equal opportunity to applicants.	0.685
11.	Wasta 'favouritism' is used in the recruitment and selection processes and decisions (negative item)	0.619
12.	Wasta 'favouritism' is more valued in the recruitment process than qualifications and work experience. (negative item)	0.628
13.	Wasta 'favouritism' acts against those without connections making it more difficult to get hired. (negative item)	0.604
14.	Changes in the external environment (economic, social and humanitarian factors, such as the Syrian refugees' crisis) affect the selection and recruitment process.	0.466
15.	The hiring process considers diverse candidates that represent the 'minorities'.	0.528
16.	Selection of candidates is strictly based on applicant merit, competence, experience, and professionalism.	0.433

The major challenges regarding the Recruitment and Selection of Syrian refugees' scale comprise five items that were developed from relevant literature. This scale contains sentences presenting some challenges that HR managers are faced with when recruiting and selecting Syrian refugees, that can also be regarded as barriers for the later. A 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3=neutral, 4= strongly agree, 5= agree) was used to elicit respondents' perceptions in terms of their level of agreement or disagreement towards those statements. Total scores will range from 5 to 25; higher

scores mean higher perception (greater awareness) of challenges facing HR managers and Syrian refugees in the R&S process.

Table 4.5: Major Challenges Regarding Recruitment and Selection of Syrian Refugees

Validity Test

Item number	Scale items	Correlation with the total score
1.	It is difficult for HR Managers/organization to recognize Syrian workers' qualifications and certificates.	0.759
2.	Hiring Syrian refugees is complex due to existing policy and legal constraints.	0.753
3.	Syrian refugees are less qualified workers, which prevents them from getting hired.	0.828
4.	Syrian refugees are not hired because they lack professional networks.	0.757
5.	Syrian refugees are highly qualified workers and therefore suffer from prejudices and rejection.	0.782

Similarly, the Integration and Socialization initiatives scale comprises six items that were developed based on the relevant literature. This scale contains statements regarding the integration and socialization initiatives adopted by the organization to facilitate newcomers' integration and socialization. Respondents provided their answers using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3=neutral, 4= strongly agree, 5= agree). Total scores will range from 6 to 30; higher scores indicate more positive views regarding the initiatives aimed at promoting new employees' integration and socialization.

Table 4.6: Integration and Socialization Initiatives Adopted by the Organization

Validity Test

Item number	Scale items	Correlation with the total score (R)
-------------	-------------	--------------------------------------

1.	Periodic meetings are held to promote greater acquaintance between employees.	0.665
2.	Religious festivals and national events are used to familiarize refugee workers with national culture.	0.821
3.	The organization allows and encourages informal network relations among employees during the working day, such as allowing them to celebrate their birthdays or having their meals collectively.	0.912
4.	The organization provides a welcoming environment that enables the free and open expression of ideas, opinions and beliefs for all employees.	0.795
5.	Expectations sessions (talking about role/job expectations) between management, local and new employees are held.	0.695
6.	Specific culture training programs are developed to promote respect and acceptance of others.	0.657

The main challenges regarding Integration and Socialization of Syrian refugees' scale consists of four items derived from the relevant literature. The four statements describe some major challenges/barriers that HR managers and Syrian refugees may encounter. Response provided according to 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3=neutral, 4= strongly agree, 5= agree). Total scores will range from 4 to 20; higher scores indicate a higher perception of challenges associated with the integration and socialization of Syrian Refugees.

Table 4.7: Main Challenges Regarding Integration and Socialization of Syrian Refugees

Validity Test

Item number	Scale items	Correlation with the total score (R)
1.	Syrian workers are excluded from the formal welcoming programs.	0.817
2.	The joint integration of new Jordanian and Syrian employees leads to conflict and frictions.	0.889
3.	The organization does not create opportunities to foster personal interaction and ease newcomers' integration.	0.951
4.	When refugee workers enter the organization, the organization does not appoint a mentor (coach) for them.	0.875

The Training and Development program scale was developed similarly. The scale contains 13 statements aimed at eliciting respondents' views on the aims and procedures adopted by their company regarding T&D. Respondents provided their answers using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3=neutral, 4= strongly agree, 5= agree). The scale has four negative items (item 9, 11, 12, and 13), that have been recoded before calculating the total score. Total scores will range from 13 to 65; a higher score indicates more positive perceptions of the Training and Development program of their company.

Table 4.8: Training and Development Program Validity Test

Item number	Scale items	Correlation with the total score (R)
1.	T&D programs are viewed as a means to enhance learning and as a sharing information process.	0.424
2.	The organization has a specific budget for staff training each fiscal year.	0.688
3.	T&D programs enhance productivity and organizational performance.	0.598
4.	The contents of the training programs are relevant to the changing needs of jobs and business.	0.507
5.	T&D programs are provided for all employees at the same level.	0.670
6.	T&D programs are based on a training needs assessment.	0.596
7.	Training evaluation is a common practice.	0.651
8.	Measurement and feedback of T&D programs reflect the effectiveness of these programs.	0.631
9.	T&D is not considered as a relevant function that contributes to organizational competitiveness and success. (negative item)	0.566
10.	Organization chooses employees for the training programs regardless of their nationality and cultural background.	0.635
11.	Training content and methods are poor and not consistent with the organization strategy. (negative item)	0.687
12.	Training and development objectives are not clear for employees. (negative item)	0.495

13.	Employees do not implement their new ideas, skills and knowledge after training sessions. (negative item)	0.741
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The main challenges regarding Training and Development program of Syrian refugees' scale comprises six items derived from relevant literature. This scale statements are intended to capture the respondents' perceptions about major challenges facing them and Syrian refugees related to the company's training and development program. A 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3=neutral, 4= strongly agree, 5= agree) was used to elicit respondents' answers. Total scores will range from 6 to 30; higher scores indicate higher perceptions (greater awareness) of training and development challenges.

Table 4.9: Main Challenges Regarding Training and Development of Syrian Refugees
Validity Test

Item number	Scale items	Correlation with the total score (R)
1.	Lack of employees' enthusiasm for training.	0.681
2.	Special training programs are not designed to transfer knowledge from Syrian workers to Jordanian workers.	0.855
3.	High turnover rates among Syrian employees prevent the organization to invest in training programs.	0.723
4.	Insufficient financial budget to train Syrian workers (financial constraints)	0.846
5.	Employees perceive time spent in T&D is regarded as unuseful and as a waste of time and money.	0.741
6.	Wasta plays a prominent role in allocating training programs among employees.	0.682

The performance appraisal system scale consists of twelve items developed from relevant literature. This scale contains 12 scaled items describe a company recruitment and selection process. Response provided according to 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3=neutral, 4= strongly agree, 5= agree). Total scores will range from 12 to 60; the higher score means the more efficient performance appraisal

system of a company. The scale has one negative item (items 9) these items need to be re-coded when calculating the total score.

Table 4.10: Performance Appraisal System Validity Test

Item number	Scale items	Correlation with the total score (R)
1.	The performance appraisal (PA) standards are consistent with the organization goals.	0.514
2.	The PA reflects the actual performance of employees at all levels.	0.469
3.	The PA system provides all employees with the opportunity for self-review and feedback on their performance regardless of their nationality.	0.879
4.	The PA system encourages open communication between colleagues, supervisors and management through performance review discussions around main key areas.	0.923
5.	PA results are used to determine future training needs analysis and programs.	0.922
6.	PA results are used to determine promotion, rewards, benefits, and guidance for future career paths.	0.802
7.	There is an appeals process in case of disagreement with the appraisal result available to any employee regardless of his/her position or nationality	0.795
8.	PA process is conducted regularly and on time.	0.820
9.	PA is not fully appreciated, and employees express some negative feelings towards it. (negative item)	0.487
10.	The performance appraisal system applies to all employees regardless of their nationality and cultural background.	0.611
11.	The performance appraisal process is a serious activity, not just as 'Tick-the-Box practice'.	0.428
12.	The PA objectives are clear for all employees	0.617

The main challenges regarding performance appraisal scale originally were developed consisting of four items selected from relevant literature. This scale contains 4 scaled items describe challenges regarding performance appraisal program of Syrian refugees. Response provided according to 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree,

2= disagree, 3=neutral, 4= strongly agree, 5= agree). Total scores will range from 4 to 20; the higher score mean the less efficient performance appraisal system of a company.

Table 4.11: Main Challenges Regarding Performance Appraisal Validity Test

Item number	Scale items	Correlation with the total score (R)
1.	Syrian workers' reactions to his/her assessment result are sometimes negative and violent	0.754
2.	Performance ratings of those employees who can procure managers special services, favours, or benefits (mutual interests/ Wasta factor) are inflated.	0.860
3.	Local/Jordan employees get a higher performance rating than is deserved regardless of their real performance.	0.932
4.	Performance ratings reflect in part the managers'/raters personal biases such as nepotism, sycophancy, unfairness distribution of the ratings, liking or disliking of the employees.	0.924

4.8.1.2 Pilot Study Reliability

According to Heale and Twycross (2015, p. 66), reliability '*relates to the consistency of a measure. A participant completing an instrument meant to measure motivation should have approximately the same responses each time the test is completed*'.

Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to calculate the internal consistency of the items included in the pilot study with 23 respondents. Table 4.12 presents the number of items in each scale and their corresponding coefficients of Cronbach's alpha. Results of the reliability analysis revealed that the items in the eight scales had acceptable internal consistency values ($\alpha > 0.70$).

Table 4.12: Internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha) of Pilot Test Scales (n=23)

Scale name	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Recruitment and selection process	16	0.74

Challenges regarding Recruitment and selection process	5	0.77
Integration and socialization initiatives	6	0.79
Challenges regarding Integration and socialization initiatives	4	0.83
Training and development program	13	0.72
Challenges regarding training and development program	6	0.79
Performance appraisal	12	0.75
Challenges regarding performance appraisal	4	0.83

4.9 Questionnaire Content and Structure

The questions and items used in the questionnaire were derived from previous studies in the HRM field. As evidenced by the extensive literature review conducted for this research, the main developments in this field are predominantly Anglo-Saxon and vastly influenced by the western perspective. In spite of this, questions regarding HR practices and processes tried to consider also the Middle East specificities to better adapt to the Jordanian context. The studies that served as a basis for each question comprising the questionnaire will be indicated in the following paragraphs.

There are two types of questions: closed-ended questions and open-ended questions (Meadows, 2003). In closed-ended questions, the respondent is asked to select his/her answer from a list of predetermined alternatives (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). In open-ended questions, respondents have the chance to give their opinion in their own words (Meadows, 2003).

According to Cooper and Schindler (2003), there are many reasons for applying the closed-ended format. The authors argued that if the research aim is to distinguish the respondents based on specific points of view and objective facts, the closed-ended questions would be the appropriate choice for the researcher. It minimizes the variability of respondent' response, and it is an inexpensive and feasible way to code and analyze data. Some scholars (Boruchovitch and Schall, 1999; Krause, 2002) also emphasized that closed-ended questions usually motivate the respondents to fill the questionnaire with less fear (threat of retaliation or other menaces).

The majority of questions applied in this study had a closed-ended format. In the closed-ended questions, respondents were provided several choices but could also present an option that was not on the list. The category "others, (please specify)" was introduced to allow the respondents adding some personal viewpoints on those specific questions or volunteer additional options not mentioned in the pre-determined categories of response provided.

Three types of closed-ended questions were used in the research questionnaire: "yes" or "no" questions, nominal questions and Likert-scale questions. Nominal questions present respondents with a list comprising multiple choices and are non-numerical. As said before, an open-ended component was added to the nominal questions so that respondents were not limited to the options presented. Likert-type questions intend to evaluate the respondents' level of agreement with statements, using a numerical value (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). The scale contains a point of neutrally ("3" on a 5-point scale) and develops symmetrically, with "1" indicating total disagreement and "5" the opposite: total agreement.

The research questionnaire is composed of five parts (see Appendix A). The cover page presents the theme and aim of this research. Also, it contains a paragraph ensuring the confidentiality of the information provided. The various parts and questions are described as follows:

Part A. General Information. This part consists of eight questions that aim to characterize the respondents and their organizations. Respondents were asked about their age, gender, number of years in the current organization, educational level, and job title. Some remaining questions were intended to characterize the organization, in terms of size, the existence of an HR Department, and the number of Syrian refugees employed.

Part B. Recruitment and Selection (R&S). This part intends to analyze the hiring process of Jordanian and Syrian workers and to identify some recruitment and selection challenges faced by the targeted organization following Syrians' influx. Firstly, it asked respondents about the main sources of recruitment (nominal question) (Zinyemba, 2014 Iova, Cretu and Nastase, 2019), and confronted them with some statements regarding

R&S to capture their views on those processes, using a Likert-type scale (Spector, 1988; Martín-Alcázar et al., 2005; Whiteoak et al., 2006; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011; Sabharwal, 2014; Zinyemba, 2014; Giangreco & Vakkayil, 2016; Ta'Amnha, et al., 2016; Batarlienė, Čižiūnienė, Vaičiūtė, Šapalaitė and Jarašūnienė, 2017; Miles and McCamey, 2018; Iova, et al., 2019; Sharma, et al., 2019). The next questions were nominal and were intended to identify the recruitment methods in use for Jordanian and Syrian candidates (Appiah, et al., 2013; Zinyemba, 2014; Kanu, 2015), followed by the selection procedures applied to each of them (Lockyer and Scholarios, 2004; Appiah et al., 2013; Zinyemba, 2014). In the nominal questions, respondents could check all the options that apply. The final question addresses some main challenges encountered by HR managers in the R&S of Syrian refugees (Spector, 1988; Beiser and Hou, 2000; Hurstfield et al., 2004; Whiteoak, et al., 2006; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011; Correa-Velez, et al., 2015).

Part C. Organizational Integration and Socialization (OIS). This section intends to explore how the new employees (Jordanian workers and Syrian refugees) are welcomed and integrated into the workplace. The first question (nominal) asks the respondents about the way the organization welcomes new employees (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Simadi and Nahar, 2009; Özdemir and Ergun, 2015). The next question comprises several statements regarding OIS initiatives, aimed at getting the respondents level of (dis)agreement, on each item using a Likert-type scale (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Özdemir & Ergun, 2015; Malik & Manroop, 2017). The last question aims to explore some challenges that may face the HR manager/organization in what concerns integration and socialization of Syrian refugees (Simadi and Nahar, 2009; Cooper-Thomas et al., 2011; Malik & Manroop, 2017).

Part D. Training and Development (T&D). This part intends to explore how T&D programs are prepared, conducted and evaluated in the surveyed organizations. The first question has a Likert format with a series of statements on training and development programs (regarding need analysis, T&D implementation, and its evaluation) (Fitzgerald, 1992; Altarawneh, 2005, 2009; Mathews, et al., 2001; Magableh, et al., 2011; Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001). The next question asks respondents about the T&D techniques

that the organization applies for both Jordanian and Syrian workers, whether the organizational assesses T&D (“yes”/”no” question), followed by a nominal question on the techniques used to conduct T&D evaluation (for those who responded positively to the previous question) (Fitzgerald, 1992; Horwitz, 1999; Mathews, et al., 2001; Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001; Tennant, et al., 2002; Altarawneh, 2005, 2009; Magableh, et al., 2011; Elnaga and Imran 2013; Khan, et al., 2017; Azizi and Khan, 2017; Musselwhite, 2017). Finally, the last question aims to analyze respondents’ agreement towards some statements on the challenges brought about Syrian refugees, in the context of T&D (Hurstfield et al., 2004; Desiderio, 2016).

Part E. Performance Appraisal (PAS). This part intends to explore how employees’ performance is evaluated in the targeted organizations. The first question has a “yes”/”no” type and asks the respondents if the organization has a formal PAS (Fletcher, 2001; Rynes et al., 2002; Poon, 2004; Abu-Doleh and Weir, 2007; Shrivastava and Purang, 2011; Abduli, 2013; Idowu, 2017). Those who have responded positively are asked to specify the methods adopted for evaluating the performance of Jordanian and Syrian workers, as well as the criteria used. Both questions are nominal (Lunenburg, 2012). The next questions comprise various statement regarding the PAS and the respondents had to indicate their level of agreement using a Likert-type scale (Tziner, et al., 1996; Fletcher, 2001; Abu-Doleh and Weir, 2007; Shrivastava & Purang, 2011; Abduli, 2013; Oduro - Nyarko, 2013; Na-Nan, Chaiprasit and Pukkeeree, 2017; Giangreco & Vakkayil, 2016; Grochowski and Zwierzchowski, 2016; Idowu, 2017). This part ends with some items intended to explore some challenges posed to HR managers within PAS, with a focus on Syrian refugees (Tziner, et al., 1996; Fletcher, 2001; Abu-Doleh & Weir, 2007; Shrivastava & Purang, 2011; O’Donovan & Linehan, 2012; Abduli, 2013; Oduro-Nyarko, 2013; Giangreco & Vakkayil, 2016; Grochowski & Zwierzchowski, 2016; Na-Nan, Chaiprasit & Pukkeeree, 2017).

4.10 Statistical Data Analysis Procedures

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, several statistical tests were used. Measures of frequency and percent were used to characterize the sample. Descriptive

statistics (frequency and percent, measures of central tendency – mean – and dispersion – standard deviation) were used to analyze the nominal variables and Likert-type items of the questionnaire, respectively. Comparison tests (one way ANOVA and independent t-test) were used to examine the effects of some demographic variables (gender, age, education, years of experience) and organizational variables (size of company and existence of HR department) on respondents' perceptions about HR practices and challenges. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, version 24) was used for running statistical tests and analysing data.

4.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter explained the research methodology used in this research. The first part of this chapter introduced the main differences between paradigms and approaches that can be applied in scientific research and the justifications for choosing a quantitative paradigm and a quantitative method for data collection. The research population, sampling method, research participants and method of data collection (questionnaire) were presented. The main stages of the fieldwork and challenges encountered were identified. The chapter also explained the pilot work of the questionnaire aimed to assess the validity and reliability of the measures. The content and structure of the final version of the questionnaire were described in detail. The next chapter is dedicated to the presentation, analysis and discussion of the results.

Chapter Five: Results Presentation and Discussion

5.1 Introduction

The objective of this research is to investigate HRM practices in Jordanian SMEs in times of humanitarian crisis, and challenges posed by the influx of Syrian Refugees in Jordan labour market. Data was collected in organizations employing Syrian refugees using a self-administered questionnaire answered by the HR Manager or the person responsible for HR activities.

This chapter aims to present, analyze, and discuss the data collected through questionnaires. The chapter begins with the reliability analysis of the scales, followed by the characterization of the respondents and SMEs participating in the study, by summing up demographic and organizational characteristics, respectively. The subsequent sections present the descriptive analysis of results, discussing them in light of extant research that was reviewed in the theoretical chapters of this study. Results presentation and discussion of HR practices and related challenges follow the same order of appearance found in the questionnaire. The issues about current recruitment and selection are discussed first, followed by organizational integration and socialization, then training and development, and finally the performance appraisal system.

5.2 Reliability Analysis of the Measures Used in the Study

In this section, the researcher has to assure that the measures used in the study lead to the same results and observations on different occasions by different researchers. Reliability refers to what extent the measure is bias and error-free (Easterby-Smith et al. 1991; Sekaran, 2003).

Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to calculate the internal consistency of the items included in the questionnaire (n=134). Table 5.1 presents the number of items in each scale and their corresponding coefficients of Cronbach's alpha. Results of the reliability analysis showed that the study scales present coefficients above the acceptable value of 0.70.

Table 5.1: Internal Consistency (Cronbach's Alpha) of the Research Scales

Scale name	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha (n=134)
Recruitment and selection process	16	0.72
Challenges regarding Recruitment and selection process	5	0.72
Integration and socialization initiatives	6	0.77
Challenges regarding Integration and socialization initiatives	4	0.80
Training and development program	13	0.77
Challenges regarding training and development program	6	0.77
Performance appraisal	12	0.77
Challenges regarding performance appraisal	4	0.81

5.3 Demographic and Organizational Characteristics of the Sample

A total of 222 questionnaires were distributed from June to September 2019 (200 by hand and 22 via email). 145 were collected in person and 11 returned by email, but only 129 and 5 were considered valid, respectively. 22 questionnaires were excluded due to very incomplete forms or incorrect completion, totalizing 134 usable questionnaires. As explained in the methodology chapter, most questionnaires were given in person or left with the secretary to be filled out at the respondents' convenience. Therefore, the researcher didn't have the chance to check the missing answers/fields when picking up the questionnaires.

Table 5.2 presents the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents and the characteristics of the SMEs that made up the sample.

In terms of gender, the number of male respondents was dominant comprising 84.3% (n= 113) of the sample compared to 15.7% (n=21) females. This result reflects the large gender differences in the Jordanian labour market, where women participation is very low compared to man and face additional barriers compared to the later, such as finding a job. Extant studies and statistical reports show that unemployment rates among women are very high, they are underrepresented in various ranks, particularly in senior management positions (Abdalla, 2015; World Bank, 2019). This is due to the male power

and dominance resulting from Jordanian socio-cultural background. Gender norms regarding women's and men's roles and responsibilities are strongly influenced by Jordan patriarchal traditions (Al-Faleh, 1987; Ali, 1995; Ali and Weir, 2005; Al-tarawneh, 2005, 2009).

In terms of age groups, the respondents aged 31 to 40 years (n=41) comprise 30.6% of the total. The percentage of respondents aged 18 to 30 (n=39) is 29.1%, those 51 to 60 years (n=31) comprise 23.1%, those 41 to 50 years (n=21) comprise 15.8% and only two were 61 years old or older. The result shows that the majority of respondents are relatively young, which is compatible with Alhorani (2019) claim that SMEs are young enterprises, employing young workers.

The distribution in terms of experience shows that 32.1% (n= 43) of respondents have 1 to 5 years of experience, 26.1% (n= 35) have 6 to 10 years of experience, 17.2% (n= 23) have 16 to 20 years of experience, 12.7% (n= 17) have 11-15 years of experience, 8.2% (n= 11) have less than one year of experience, and 3.7% (n= 5) have more than 21 years of experience. Such distribution reveals that 32.1% of the surveyed HR managers have limited experience in the HRM function (1-5 years). This means that they must address a set of issues and adapt themselves to various challenges that they may not be well prepared to face, such as the Syrian influx. This result is compatible with Alhorani (2019) conclusion, according to which less experienced SMEs managers have less knowledge and skills to deal with different business tasks in comparison with more experienced managers.

In terms of education, Table 5.2 shows that 64.2% (n= 86) of participants hold a bachelor degree, 15.7% (n= 21) of participants have completed high school, 11.2% (n=15) of them hold community or technical college degree, 9% (n= 12) of them hold master's degree, and no one holds a PhD degree. This result echoes extant studies regarding Jordanian SMEs managers' level of education. For example, Alhorani (2019) research reveals that managers in Jordanian SMEs hold predominantly a bachelor, which means that the level of education of the respondents is in line with SMEs reality depicted in prior studies. Furthermore, this result emphasized the real status of education in Jordan, which

witnessed considerable progress over the last decades (Melhem and Isa, 2013; Idris, 2016). On the other hand, the proportion of respondents in charge of HRM holding a high school certificate can be explained within the framework of previous chapters. The literature reviewed has shown that HRM in Jordan is still in its infancy in terms of HR practices. Most of them are conducted for administrative purposes, which locates HRM in Jordan in an early stage of HRM development, being more personnel than strategic (Altarawneh, 2005, 2009; Magableh et al., 2011; Iles, 2012; Ta'Amnha et al., 2016; Budhwar et al., 2018). The qualifications of HR managers match this prevailing feature of HRM in Jordan, that circumscribes his/her role to administrative tasks that do *“not go beyond the administration of candidates’ files from the recruitment process to the retirement age”* (Aladwan, Bhanugopan and Fish, 2014, p. 130). This can help to explain why a proportion of respondents in charge of HRM only hold a high school certificate, underscoring the lack of professional HRM practice in Jordanian SMEs.

Table 5.2 shows that the majority of companies (n=93; 69.4%) comprising the sample are medium enterprises, and the remaining 30.6% (n= 41) are small enterprises. As most of the enterprises are medium-sized, the majority 56.7% (n= 76) has an HR department, which is in line with the literature review. In this regard, extant research has indicated that most Jordanian organizations have HR or personnel departments (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2018). Some researchers claim that Jordan (as other Arabic countries) is witnessing considerable growth in the value attributed to human resource processes and practices and the HR managers’ role (Afana, 2004; Alkalha, et al., Aladwan, et al., 2014; Alamro, 2017; Al-Abbadi, 2018). Nevertheless, in the present research, 43.3% (n= 58) have not HR department, which may suggest that the general managers/owners are probably the ones in charge of human resources functions and activities. Consequently, they may lack the technical skills and professional expertise to design and conduct HRM processes.

When asked about their job title, the results showed that 43% (n=58) of the respondents are human resources manager, 31.1% (n=43) labelled themselves as general manager and 13% (n=18) as the owners, and 6.7% (n=9) combine the functions of financial and HR manager. This result is inconsistent with previous literature showing that

SMEs' owners and general managers are often in charge of human resources functions and activities which suggests that they might have little or no expertise in this field (Greenidge et al., 2012; Asiedu-appiah et al., 2013; Croonen et al., 2016)

With regard to the number of Syrian workers in the surveyed enterprises, it ranged between 1-70 workers, with a mean score of 14.22 (SD= 13.28). According to recent literature, Syrian workers are in great demand by Jordanian employers due to their skills and because they accept working longer hours for less pay than Jordanian workers and other migrants (Mencutek and Nashwan, 2020). The potential discrepancy between the number of Syrian refugees reported and employed may stem from the respondents' understanding of the question. Some might have answered in terms of the number of Syrian refugees employed since the outbreak of the conflict in Syria that prompted their massive entry in Jordan.

Table 5.2: Sample Demographic and Organizational Characteristics

Variables		N	%
Gender	Male	113	84.3
	Female	21	15.7
Age group	18-30	39	29.1
	31-40	41	30.6
	41-50	21	15.8
	51-60	31	23.1
	61 or more	2	1.5
Experience	Less than one year	11	8.2
	1-5	43	32.1
	6-10	35	26.1
	11-15	17	12.7
	16-20	23	17.2
	21 or more	5	3.7
Education	High school	21	15.7
	Community/technical	15	11.2
	Bachelor	86	64.2
	Master	12	9.0
	PhD	00	00
	Micro	00	00

Organization size	Small enterprise				41		30.6		
	Medium enterprise				93		69.4		
Existence of the HR Department	Yes				76		56.7		
	No				58		43.3		
Job title	General Manager				43		31.1		
	Human Resource Manager				58		43.0		
	Human Resource Staff				2		1.5		
	Public Relation Manager				4		3.0		
	Owner				18		13.3		
	Financial and Human Resource Manager				9		6.7		
	Quality Assurance Engineer				1		1.4		
Number of Syrian employees	M	SD	MIN	MAX	P ₂₅		P ₅₀		P ₇₅
	14.22	13.28	1	70	6		9		19.25

5.4 HR Management Practices and Challenges

This section presents the results and discussion of human resources practices of SMEs from the HR managers' perspective, and the main challenges facing them in each practice with a focus on Syrian refugees. According to literature in this field, employee HR perceptions have been conceptualized and operationalized in various ways (Wang, Kim, Rafferty and Sanders, 2020). The present study focuses on the perceived existence of certain HR practices within an organization ("what" or content), from the lenses of HR managers or the person responsible for HR issues. A few items address the perceived employer's intention/motivation behind the implementation of HR practices ("why"). Challenges facing HR managers focus on the extent to which the respondents evaluated some factors and situations as potentially detrimental to each HR practice, with a particular emphasis on refugees.

5.4.1 Recruitment and Selection Sources and Process Characterization

The sections below are intended to identify the current state of R&S in SMEs. They aim to unveil potential differences in the application of R&S methods and procedures

regarding Jordanian and Syrian refugees. Another aim is to better understand the opinions of the respondents about the R&S processes in their SMEs. The final section is dedicated to the main challenges that HR managers encounter in R&S associated with Syrian refugees. The results are discussed in light of the existing studies that were explored in the theoretical chapters of this research. The same order and logic apply to the presentation of the results and discussing the other three HR practices.

5.4.1.1 Sources of Recruitment

Table 5.3 represents the sources used by organizations to fill in the job vacancies. Sixty-four respondents (47.8%) claim that their SMEs use both internal and external sources, followed by 43 (29.8%) saying that they resort mostly to internal sources and 27 (23.1%) to external sources. The literature shows that both sources present advantages and disadvantages. Privileging internal sources to fill a vacant position is sometimes referred to as a mean to save money and increase loyalty and commitment of current employees while resorting to external sources entails several costs (Greenidge et al., 2012; Zinyemba, 2014).

The results show that 29.8% of the surveyed SMEs prefer internal recruitment, which means that they announce job openings within the organization so that employees can apply and fill job vacancies. Since the majority are Jordanians, the internal job opportunities will most likely be occupied by Jordans. Twenty-seven (23.1%) indicate their SMEs prefer to use outside sources, the source that increases the chances for non-Jordanian candidates to be recruited. The use of external sources is said to pump new blood for the enterprise, as well as knowledge and skills (Hunter et al., 2017). In the context of Jordanian organizations, the use of external sources, specifically Syrian refugees, would allow them to save money due to lower wages paid to Syrians. In this regard, Shteiwi, Walsch and Klassen (2014) argued that the Syrian workers depressed wages as they accept working for lower wages compared to Jordanians. From a strictly cost-saving perspective, SMEs could recruit Syrian refugees as a means to cut current expenses with pay and rewards.

Table 5.3: Sources of Recruitment

Source	Frequency	Percentage
Mostly internal	43	29.8
Most external	27	23.1
Both	64	47.8

5.4.1.2 Recruitment and Selection Processes Applied in SMEs

This section aims to get a better understanding of the R&S processes from the respondents' perspective. As explained in the previous chapter, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement toward a list of items, using a Likert-type scale.

Table 5.4 presents the mean and standard deviations obtained in a group of sentences aimed at eliciting respondents' perception of the hiring process. To gain a better understanding of the features, characteristics and aims of the recruitment process and selection, HR Managers were asked to indicate their level of agreement on statements about the way the recruitment process is designed and implemented, namely its foundations (e.g. "Job analysis (job description and job specification) is an integral part of the overall recruitment process"), criteria (e.g. "Selection of candidates is strictly based on applicant merit, competence, experience and professionalism", principles (e.g. "The recruitment process follows the principles of transparency and equity"), aims (e.g. "The recruitment process is used to promote heterogeneity in the workplace").

According to the results shown in Table 5.4, respondents have very positive perceptions regarding the R&S process in place in the surveyed SMEs. Overall, they tend to agree with the favourable statements and disagree with the items suggesting the opposite, such as the occurrence of Wasta and discrimination against minority groups. Results indicated that respondents agreed most strongly with the following statement: "Selection of candidates is strictly based on applicant merit, competence, experience and professionalism" ($M=4.50$, $SD=0.92$). This finding suggests that R&S in the surveyed SMEs echo what various authors have emphasized that the recruitment should be built on qualified, competent people regardless of the source of recruitment (Ofori and Aryeetey,

2011; Kumari, 2012; Kanu, 2015). In the same vein, Buller and McEvoy (2012), Appiah et al. (2013), and Hunter et al. (2012) argued that the purpose of recruitment is to attract skilled and experienced employees for organizations. The studies reviewed in the theoretical chapters of this thesis contradict this finding. HRM studies in the Middle East and Jordan assert that R&S is rarely based on the merit and skills of the candidates, and as lacking objectivity (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011; Aladwan, et al., 2014; Ta'Amnha et al., 2016; Budhwar and Mellahi, 2018).

The other three statements with the highest levels of agreement (mean above 4) were as follows: "The recruitment process follows the principles of fairness." (M=4.30, SD=1); "Job analysis (job description and job specification) is an integral part of the overall recruitment process" (M=4.25 and SD=0.86) and "The recruitment process follows the principles of equity." (M=4.18 SD=0.95). Interestingly, the literature does not support such findings regarding the transparency, fairness and merit, due to the influence of Wasta (explored in detail in the literature review). Its application means that personal relationships are more important than objective criteria, preventing the R&S processes from being transparent, fair and equitable. The same applies to the finding on the role of job analysis in R&S. The few studies reviewing HRM practices in Jordan (Aladwan, et al., 2014; Ta'Amnha et al., 2016; Budhwar and Mellahi, 2018) state precisely the opposite. Drawing on the scarce literature in Jordan, the authors claim that job analysis and job descriptions are frequently carried out but not used for R&S purposes (Abu-Doleh and Weir, 2007; Budhwar and Mellahi, 2018). The justification lies in the same line of reasoning presented before asserting that most HR practices in Jordan are mere routine and conducted for bureaucratic reasons as part of the personnel procedures. According to Appiah et al. (2013), SMEs making a good use of job analysis are in the right track regarding the R&S process. Job analysis should be the priority of (HR) managers (Rahman and Nower, 2020) in the sense that it facilitates the rejection of candidates that do not meet the job description and requirements. Moreover, job analysis plays a crucial role in the development of other HR practices, such as T&D (Abu-Doleh, 2000; Byars and Rue, 2004; Altarawneh, 2009; Rahman and Nower, 2020).

Respondents also agree with two statements related to workplace diversity and heterogeneity, namely: “The hiring process considers diverse candidates that represent the ‘minorities’.” (M=3.84, SD=0.89); and “The recruitment process is used to promote heterogeneity in the workplace.” (M=3.80, SD=0.90). These findings suggest that SMEs are aware of the importance of workplace diversity and heterogeneity. The literature on diversity showed that it encourages creativity and innovation in the workplace and can help increasing competitiveness (Benschop, 2001; Annesley and Gains, 2013). Some scholars argued that a heterogeneous group, with different nationalities, can have a positive impact on organizational performance (Triguero-Sanchez, et al., 2016). The existence of diverse viewpoints, perspectives, knowledge, skills, abilities and experiences enrich the workplace with innovative ideas and facilitate the development of new solutions to solve problems (Benschop, 2001; Muchiri and Ayoko, 2013; Opstrup and Villadsen, 2015). Furthermore, Scott et al. (2011) and Sharma (2016) asserted that organizations employing diverse nationality staff may construct a good reputation and attract more customers. Diversity in terms of nationalities endows the organizations with more comprehensive skills to better understand their consumers’ demands and thus gain their trust (Triguero-Sanchez, et al., 2016).

Results also indicated the respondents’ agreement with the following statements: “The organization follows specific application procedures to provide equal opportunity to applicants.” (M=3.81, SD= 0.93); “Predefined criteria are applied at all stages of the recruitment process to eliminate the risks of bias and discrimination.” (M=3.49, SD= 1.26). As stated before, although they perceive SMEs to act according to those principles, existing studies have presented a different scenario. The transparency and fairness in those procedures are crucial to attracting skilled workers (Hunter et al., 2017), decrease bias or discrimination, ensure privacy and provide equal opportunity and compliance (Hunter, 2012; Hunter et al., 2017; Zinyemba, 2014).

According to findings, respondents exhibit a high level of agreement with the statement: “When seeking to fill any vacancy, the organization considers the internal candidates that could be promoted to the available post.” (M=3.71, SD=1.31). The

literature shows that considering first the internal candidates for a vacant position can minimize the turnover of employees and therefore increase HR stability (Jokisaari and Nurmi, 2009; Desiderio, 2016; Malik et al., 2014).

Respondents also agree with the following statement: “Changes in the external environment (economic, social and humanitarian factors, such as the Syrian refugees’ crisis) affect the selection and recruitment process.” (M=4, SD=1). This indicates SMEs are relatively aware of the effects of the external environment in the R&S process. As seen in the literature, the political, social and humanitarian change introduce transformations in the structure of the labour market (Simadi and Nahar, 2009; Achilli, 2015), such as increased demand for jobs.

As stated before, respondents tend to disagree with the statements that portray the negative side of R&S in SMEs. The mean scores of the items related to Wasta and discrimination are lower than “3” (the neutral point of the scale), falling on the disagreement side of the Likert-scale, as follows: “Wasta ‘ favouritism’ acts against those without connections making it more difficult to get hired.” (M=2.83, SD=0.93), “Discrimination (based on gender, age, religion, nationality etc.) is likely to happen at any stage of the recruitment process.” (M=2.51, SD=1.15), “Wasta ‘ favouritism’ is used in the recruitment and selection processes and decisions” (M=2.91, SD=1.04), and “Wasta ‘ favouritism’ is more valued in the recruitment process than qualifications and work experience.” (M=2.07, SD=1.01).

As evidenced by the literature review, Wasta affects negatively the decisions regarding recruitment, selection, training programs, career development and advancement opportunities (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011). When asked to express their level of agreement with the items indicating the occurrence of this phenomenon in their organizations, the respondents showed disagreement towards those statements. Such findings indicate that respondents are quite optimistic or in denial about the occurrence of discriminatory decisions and influence of wasta, contradicting prior studies. The literature review has clearly shown that vacant jobs/positions are usually offered to those

with good connections, either friends, relatives or family members (Budhwar and Melahi, 2006; Aladwan, Bhanugopan and Fish, 2014). Although the mean scores suggest that wasta and discrimination are not likely to interfere and negatively affect the hiring process, the standard deviations for each of the items' scores indicate that respondents' perceptions varied considerably across the sample.

Table 5.4: Respondents' Views on the Recruitment and Selection Process in SMEs

Item	Mean	St. Dev.
Job analysis (job description and job specification) is an integral part of the overall recruitment process.	4.25	0.86
When seeking to fill any vacancy, the organization considers the internal candidates that could be promoted to the available post.	3.71	1.31
The recruitment process provides a large and adequate pool of applicants.	3.13	1.31
When assessing present and future needs, the changes in the external environment (e.g. economics, social or political crises) are taken into	3.28	1.26
The recruitment process follows the principles of transparency and equity.	4.18	0.95
The recruitment process follows the principles of fairness.	4.30	1
Discrimination (on the basis of gender, age, religion, nationality etc.) is likely to happen at any stage of the recruitment process.	2.51	1.15
The recruitment process is used to promote heterogeneity in the workplace.	3.80	.90
Predefined criteria are applied at all stages of the recruitment process in order to eliminate the risks of bias and discrimination.	3.49	1.26
The organization follows specific application procedures to provide equal opportunity to applicants.	3.81	0.93

Wasta 'favouritism' is used in the recruitment and selection processes and decisions.	2.91	1.04
Wasta 'favouritism' is more valued in the recruitment process than qualifications and work experience.	2.07	1.01
Wasta 'favouritism' acts against those without connections making it more difficult to get hired.	2.83	0.93
Changes in the external environment (economic, social and humanitarian factors, such as the Syrian refugees' crisis) affect the	4	1
The hiring process considers diverse candidates that represent the 'minorities'.	3.84	0.98
Selection of candidates is strictly based on applicant merit, competence, experience and professionalism.	4.50	0.92

5.4.1.3 Recruitment Methods and Procedures

This section presents the methods used to attract candidates for job vacancies. Since the research aims to uncover differences in HR practices regarding Jordanian and Syrian workers in SMEs, respondents were asked to answer for both candidates the methods applied to each. They could check all methods that applied to their organizations.

Figure 5.1 shows the recruitment methods adopted by the respondents' SMEs. The overall results on the recruitment methods suggest SMEs' preference for the cheapest ways for finding and attracting candidates, those that minimize the expenses involved in the process. In SMEs, the cost of R&S matters (Greenidge et al., 2012; Zinyemba, 2014). Altogether (Jordanian and Syrian), the most popular methods are resorting to relatives and friends (67.2%), followed by employee referrals (64.2%), and word of mouth (58.2%). Possible reasons for using these methods are the low cost involved and the ease of reaching job seekers among informal networks (family and friends). Prior research, such as the studies conducted by Butt and Zeb (2016) and Ongori and Temtime (2010),

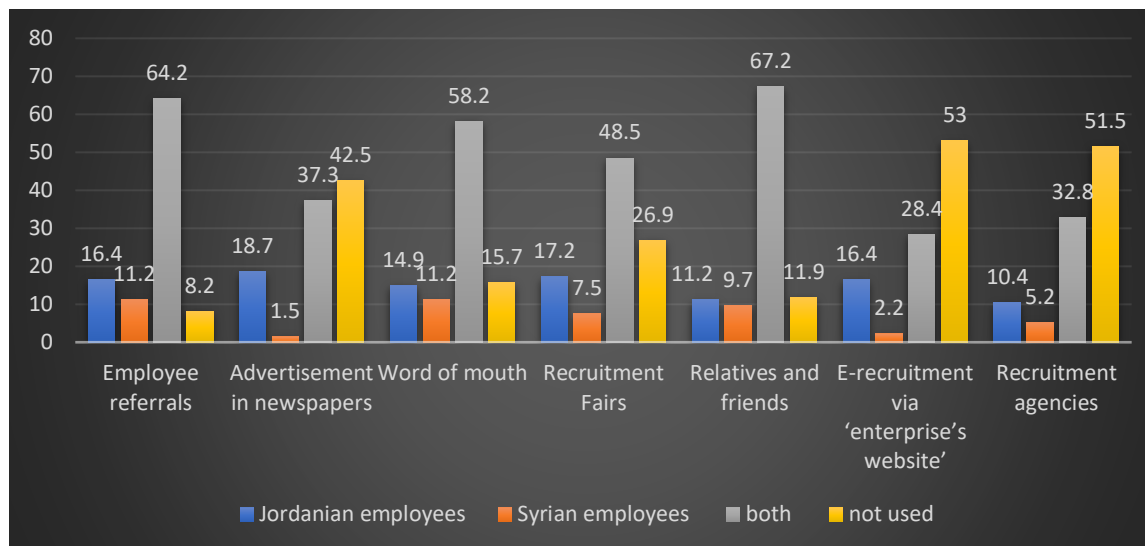
found that 70% SMEs preferred informal methods to hire workers, namely the word of mouth, relatives and friends and employee referrals.

Some methods are less likely to be used by SMEs in Jordan as they entail financial costs for organizations. Among those methods that are less popular (and indicated as “not used”) due to high fees are recruitment agencies (51.5%) and newspaper advertisements (42.5%). Surveyed SMEs seem to make some use of recruitment fairs (48.5%) but prefer less E-recruitment through the webpage (28.4%). Butt and Zeb (2016) and Ongori and Temtime (2010) found that less than 30% of SMEs used paid methods such as newspapers.

The most popular methods used to recruit Jordanians are the advertisements in newspapers (18.7%), followed by recruitment fairs (17.2%), and employee referrals and E-recruitment via enterprise’ website methods, both with 16.4%. Some recruitment methods (advertisements in newspapers and E-recruitment via enterprise’ website) seem unpopular to reach Syrian workforce.

The most popular methods used by SMEs to recruit Syrian refugees are both word-of-mouth and via employee referrals methods (both with 11.2%), and relatives and friends (9.7%). One possible reason for the popularity of informal methods to recruit Syrians is SMEs’ intention to avoid violating Jordanian Labor Law, besides minimizing recruitment costs (Aldaibat et al., 2019).

Figure 5.1: Recruitment Methods and Procedures Applied to Jordanian and Syrian Candidates



5.4.1.4 Selection Methods and Procedures

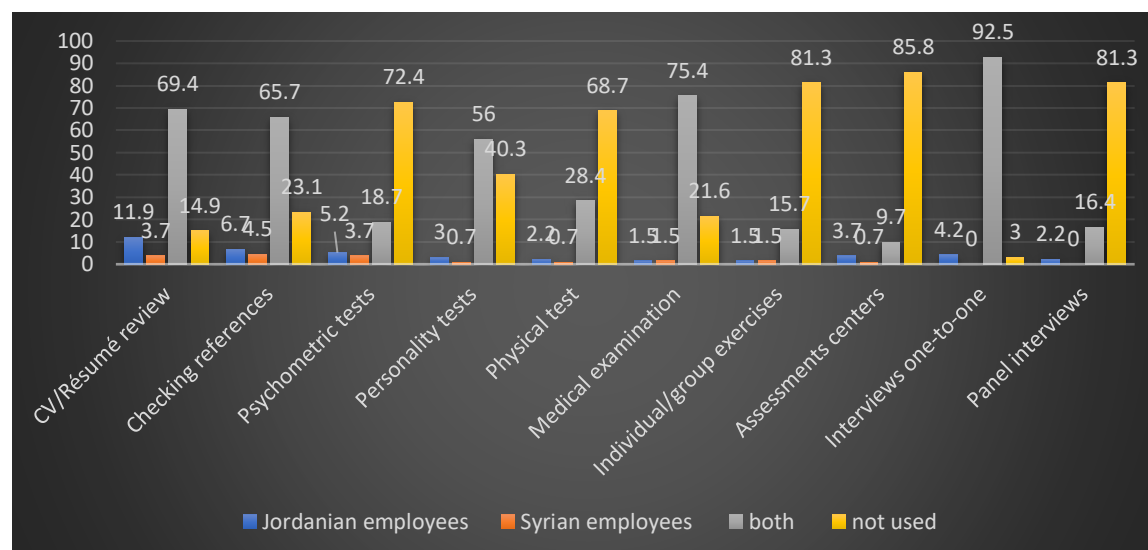
This section is about the methods used by SMEs to select employees using the same logic and sequence previously used (in the recruitment methods).

The overall percentages, as well as percentages for Jordanian and Syrian on each selection method adopted by SMEs, are presented in Figure 5.2. Results showed that the most popular methods are the one-to-one interview (92.5%), followed by the medical examination (75.4%), and then the CV/resume (69.4%). The literature shows that interviewing candidates is commonly used to minimize the number of unqualified applicants (Chungyalpa and Karishrna, 2016). It is also considered a tool that enables debating with applicants to figure out their experiences (Ryan and Tippins, 2004). The other two important methods used are checking references (65.7%) and personality tests (56%). Ryan and Karishrna (2016) have shown that checking the references will facilitate the verification of accuracy in the application. It is relevant to note that several selection methods were not checked by any of the respondents, which means that they are not used in those SMEs. The selection methods with high percentages of "not used" are assessment centres (85.8%), panel interviews and individual/groups exercises (both with 81.3%), and psychometric tests (72.4%). Possible reasons for this are the complexity and costs involved in some of the selection methods (Greenidge el at., 2012; Zinyemba, 2014;

Muscalu, 2015). SMEs may not be able to afford them or not having professionals with technical expertise in HR to apply such tools and methodologies (Zinyemba, 2014). As discussed in the sample characterization, a large proportion of those responsible for the HR function are general managers or the SMEs' owners, who may lack the required knowledge, technical expertise as well as practical experience to succeed in the HR role. Staffing skills (both technical and soft skills) are needed to make the best use of selection methods, particularly when they are complex or sophisticated.

When analyzing results separately for Jordanian, the most popular selection methods applied to them are as follows: CV/resume (11.9%), checking references (6.7%), and psychometric tests (5.2%) and one-to-one interview (4.2%), while for Syrian applicants the most common seem to be: checking references (4.5%), followed by both CV/resume and psychometric tests with (3.7%).

Figure 5.2: The Selection Methods Applied to Jordanian and Syrian Candidates



5.4.1.5 Challenges Facing the HR Managers in the Context of Recruitment and Selection Regarding Syrian Candidates

In this section, respondents had to indicate their level of agreement with some statements portraying challenges in the context of hiring Syrian refugees. The mean in all the items was below "3", the neutral point of the scale, thus suggesting respondents'

tendency to disagree with the situation depicted in the items (Table 5.5). In other words, they do not seem to believe that those situations may represent challenges to them during the R&S process. Once again, the standard deviations for each of the items' scores suggest that respondents' perceptions varied considerably across the sample.

The mean values on those statements are as follows: "Hiring Syrian refugees is complex due to existing policy and legal constraints." (M=2.93, SD=1.45). The employment policies and legal issues can refrain HR managers from recruiting Syrian refugees, an aspect that has been reported as a barrier for Syrian refugees' integration in the labour market (Achilli, 2015; Turner, 2015). The Jordanian government has signed agreements with international bodies to facilitate the integration of Syrian workforce in Jordanian enterprises and promoting the wellbeing of this vulnerable group (Shteiwi et al., 2014). Such institutional steps can have changed HR managers' perceptions of the difficulties and complexities surrounding Syrian refugees' recruitment. Specifically, the 2016 Jordan Compact has alleviated the bureaucratic procedures and made it easier for Syrian refugees to participate in the Jordanian labour market. Another presumed challenge asserted that: "It is difficult for HR Managers/organization to recognize Syrian workers' qualifications and certificates." (M=2.74, SD=1.29). In other words, respondents' do not seem Syrian workers' qualifications and certificates hard to verify. The mean values in the remaining items are: "Syrian refugees are highly qualified workers and therefore suffer from prejudices and rejection." (M=2.5, SD=1.10). "Syrian refugees are not hired because they lack professional networks." (M=1.97, SD=1.08). "Syrian refugees are less qualified workers, which prevents them from getting hired." (M=1.69, SD=0.90). Recent studies on the integration of Syrian refugees' in Jordanian labour market show a mismatch between refugees' skills and qualifications and the needs of Jordanian organizations, which prevents them from working in certain sectors and applying for certain jobs (Mencutek and Nashwan, 2020). The existing literature also indicates that Syrian refugees' access to the labour market is marked by prejudices and discrimination, and the fact that they lack the benefits of *wasta*. Despite the literature, and according to the respondents of this study, those aspects do not seem to translate into their

organizations and therefore do not present challenges to the surveyed SMEs. The fact that they might be losing talented employees due to employment restrictions (either legal or other) and the prevalence of an anti-refugee discourse (Fakih & Ibrahim, 2016) does not seem to negatively affect R&S.

Table 5.5: Main Challenges Facing the HR Managers in the Context of Recruitment and Selection of Syrian Candidates

Item	Mean	St. Dev.
It is difficult for HR Managers/organization to recognize Syrian workers' qualifications and certificates.	2.74	1.29
Hiring Syrian refugees is complex due to existing policy and legal constraints.	2.93	1.45
Syrian refugees are less qualified workers, which prevents them from getting hired.	1.69	0.90
Syrian refugees are not hired because they lack professional networks.	1.97	1.08
Syrian refugees are highly qualified workers and therefore suffer from prejudices and rejection.	2.5	1.10

5.4.2 Organizational Integration and Socialization

This section presents the procedures applied in SMEs to promote the integration and socialization of newcomers. It starts with the procedures applied to welcome Jordanian and Syrian workers, followed by the respondents' views on the initiatives conducted by their organizations in these domains. Finally, the challenges encountered by them in the context of integration and socialization of Syrian refugees.

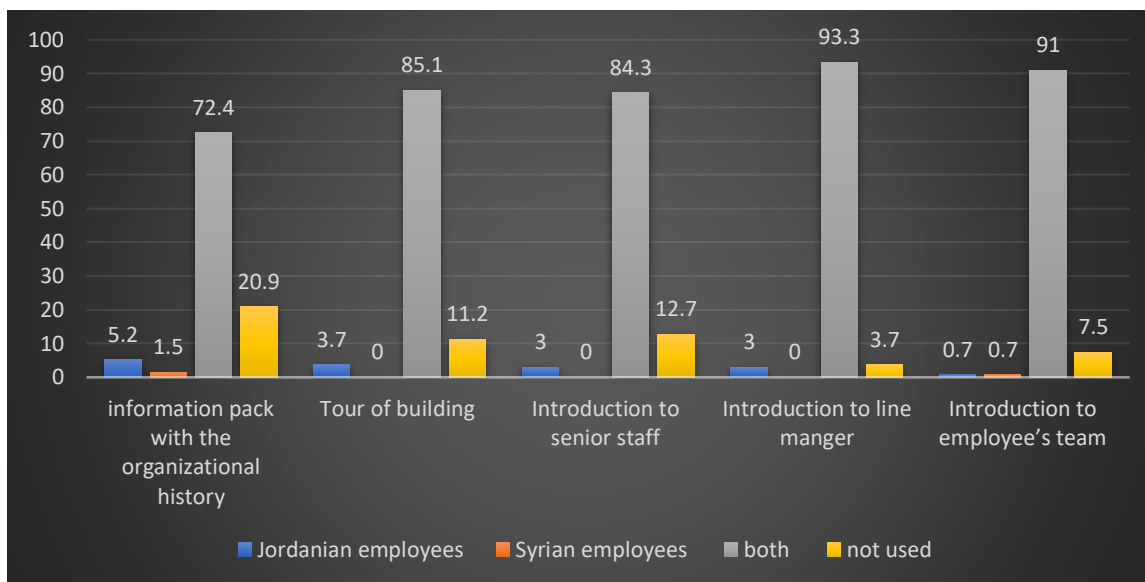
5.4.2.1 Welcoming New Employees

The results showed that, according to the respondents, the welcoming procedures are applied jointly for Jordanian and Syrian employees (Figure 5.3). The most commonly used among the surveyed SMEs are: "introduction to line manager" (93.3%), and "introduction to employee's teams" (91%), and to a lesser extent, "tour (of building)"

(85.1%). The remaining welcoming practices also present high percentages as follows: “introduction to senior staff (84.3%)” and providing an “information pack with the organization history, rules and expectations” (72.4%).

The results also suggest that in a few numbers of SMEs some specific welcoming procedures are only applied to Jordanian employees, namely: “tour (of building)” (3.7%), both “introduction to line manager” and “introduction to senior staff” (3.0 %). The literature in this field highlights the importance of welcoming newcomers, in the sense that facilitates the new employees’ understanding of his/her role and the adjustment to the organizational culture (Klein & Weaver, 2000). One possible reason for the similarities found in the welcoming sessions is the lack of linguistic and religion variances among Jordanian and Syrian newcomers. The respondents may believe that Syrian workers do not need special socialization procedures to integrate them in the new organization context (Cooper-Thomas, Anderson & Cash, 2011; Tselios et al., 2015; Enoksen, 2016; Malik & Manroop, 2017; Song et al., 2017).

Figure 5.3: Welcoming Procedures Applied to Jordanian and Syrian Employees



5.4.2.2 Integration and Socialization Initiatives Adopted

The respondents present quite favourable views regarding the initiatives adopted by SMEs to better integrate and socialize newcomers, as they tend to show agreement toward the various statements (Table 5.6). Results indicated that respondents agreed more with the following statement: “The organization provides a welcoming environment that enables the free and open expression of ideas, opinions and beliefs for all employees.” ($M=3.67$, $SD=0.93$). This suggests that the surveyed SMEs tend to create an inclusive and open environment where each employee has the chance to express his/her ideas. According to Song et al. (2017), the enterprise should provide help for employees to overcome obstacles related to cultural differences and facilitate their contribution with their thoughts, views and methods to develop work.

The respondents also tend to agree that “The organization allows and encourages informal network relations among employees during the working day, such as allowing them to celebrate their birthdays, or having their meals collectively.” ($M=3.43$, $SD=1.31$). Malik and Manroop (2017) showed that promoting informal relations tend to increase employee awareness of social patterns and stimulate accepting behaviours among employees. Moreover, Saridakis et al. (2013) showed that informal relationships widen personal relations, improve trust among the employees, and led them to share values, perceptions and knowledge in SMEs. The informality regarding organization integration in the surveyed SMEs suggests their awareness of the importance of informal relations among employees.

Another statement that exhibited a moderate level of agreement is: “Religious festivals and national events are used to familiarize refugee workers with national culture.” ($M=3.40$, $SD=1.26$). Most Jordanian and Syrian workers have the same religion, and this finding suggests that SMEs use such events and ceremonies to deepen the relations among employees.

In the same vein, respondents tend to agree, although to a lesser extent, with the remaining statements, as follows: “Specific culture training programs are developed to

promote respect and acceptance of others.” (M=3.36, SD=1.11), “Expectations sessions (talking about role/job expectations) between management, local and new employees are held.” (M=3.31, SD= 1.08) and “Periodic meetings are held to promote greater acquaintance between employees.” (M=3.21, SD=1.32). A possible explanation for the lowest level of agreement on this statement could be the preference of SMEs for informal initiatives, and meeting on a periodical basis suggests a formal way of promoting newcomers’ integration and socialization. As the literature on HRM in Jordan has shown, most practices in that domain are strongly influenced by informal relations and informality (Malik & Manroop, 2017). Cultural training programs provide an opportunity for new employees to learn more about the new organizational culture and external/national culture (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006). The process of sharing and exchanging expectations among the different organizational parties (managers, current and new employees) can also help them developing interpersonal relationships in the workplace.

Table 5.6: Respondents’ Views on the Integration and Socialization Initiatives Adopted by SMEs

Item	Mean	St. Dev.
Periodic meetings are held to promote greater acquaintance between employees.	3.21	1.32
Religious festivals and national events are used to familiarize refugee workers with national culture.	3.40	1.26
The organization allows and encourages informal network relations among employees during the working day, such as allowing them to celebrate their birthdays or having their meals collectively.	3.43	1.31
The organization provides a welcoming environment that enables the free and open expression of ideas, opinions and beliefs for all employees.	3.67	0.93
Expectations sessions (talking about role/job expectations)between management, local and new employees are held.	3.31	1.08
Specific culture training programs are developed to promote respect and acceptance of others.	3.36	1.11

5.4.2.3 Challenges Facing the HR Managers in the Context of Integration and Socialization Regarding Syrian Workers

In this section, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with some statements portraying challenges in the context of integration and socialization of Syrian refugees. The mean scores in all the items were below “3”, the neutral point of the scale, thus suggesting respondents’ tendency to disagree with those statements (Table 5.7). The same trend was already found in the challenges regarding R&S, thus suggesting that respondents don’t see those aspects as presenting a menace for effective integration and socialization of Syrian refugees in SMEs.

The mean values are as follows: “When refugee workers enter the organization, the organization does not appoint a mentor (coach) for them.” (M=2.22, SD=1.19). “The joint integration of new Jordanian and Syrian employees leads to conflict and frictions.” (M=1.93, SD=0.96), “The organization does not create opportunities to foster personal interaction and ease newcomers’ integration.” (M=1.80, SD=0.90), and “Syrian workers are excluded from the formal welcoming programs.” (M=1.56, SD=0.73). A possible reason for this disagreement could be the fact that respondents believe that their organizations are already implementing the right procedures to successfully integrate and socialize Syrian refugees. Based on their previous responses, SMEs use most of the welcoming procedures to both Jordanian and Syrian newcomers, leading to an overall good impression on the current initiatives aimed at integrating and socializing them.

Table 5.7: Main Challenges Facing the HR Managers in the Context of Integration and Socialization of Syrian Workers

Item	Mean	St. Dev.
Syrian workers are excluded from the formal welcoming programs.	1.56	0.73
The joint integration of new Jordanian and Syrian employees leads to conflict and frictions.	1.93	0.96
The organization does not create opportunities to foster personal interaction and ease newcomers’ integration.	1.80	0.90
When refugee workers enter the organization, the organization does not appoint a mentor (coach) for them.	2.22	1.19

5.4.3 Training and Development

This section shows the results and discussion of T&D practices in the surveyed SMEs from the perspective of HR managers. It starts with respondents' views on several aspects of the T&D process. Then it addresses the techniques used to train and develop employees' knowledge and skills, followed by the T&D evaluation techniques. The last subsection analysis the challenges in the context of T&D driven by Syrian refugees.

5.4.3.1 Training and Development Process Applied in SMEs

This section aims to get a comprehensive picture of the T&D programs implemented in SMEs from the HR managers' perspective. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement on several items (using a 5-point Likert scale) regarding T&D objectives, needs, applications, among other aspects.

According to the results shown in Table 5.8, respondents have a very positive global perception of T&D programs in their organizations. The mean values are above "3" in all statements, except one, indicating their agreement with them. The findings indicate that HR managers agreed mostly with the following statement: "Organization chooses employees for the training programs regardless of their nationality and cultural background." (M=4.05, SD=0.98). According to Nadler and Nadler (1990), the priority of SMEs to achieve success is to have skilled workers that can meet the objectives of the enterprise and customers. In this regard, the employees' nationality and cultural background should not be a priority in T&D choice of its recipients. According to existing literature, in Jordan, T&D is not viewed as a relevant function, and when implemented tends to privilege high-status employees or those with good networks (Altarawneh, 2005, 2009; Aladwan, et al., 2014). As discussed in depth in the theoretical chapters of this research, Wasta ends up affecting most of the HRM practices, with T&D being no exception.

Respondent also agree that "T&D programs are viewed as a means to enhance learning and as a sharing information process." (M=3.88, SD=0.93) and "T&D programs

enhance productivity and organizational performance.” ($M=3.96$, $SD=0.95$). The literature emphasizes the crucial role of T&D on individual and organizational performance (Carnevale, 1993; Read and Kleiner, 1996; Aragón-Sánchez et al., 2003). Although various studies sustain that a training program aims to improve organizational performance and competitiveness (Chiaburu & Tekleab, 2005; Kanelopoulos & Akrivos, 2006; Magableh et al., 2011; Elnaga & Imran, 2013), and this study respondents perceive them in a similar way, extant literature in Jordan indicates precisely the contrary (Magableh, et al., 2011). This study respondents tend to disagree with the statement: “T&D is not considered as a relevant function that contributes to organizational competitiveness and success.” ($M=2.80$, $SD=1.28$). This finding is not in line with existing literature on T&D in Jordanian organizations where T&D is seen as an irrelevant, unuseful, and unnecessary function (Magableh, et al., 2011; Altarawneh, 2005, 2009; Budhwar and Mellahi, 2018).

Results also indicated that respondents agree that “T&D programs are based on a training needs assessment.” ($M=3.73$, $SD= 0.98$) which is not supported by previous research in Jordan (Abdalla, Maghrabi, & Raggad, 1998; Altarawneh, 2005, 2009; Budhwar and Mellahi, 2018). Various studies emphasize the relevance of training needs analysis to the overall success of the program (Khan et al., 2017), and as a meaningful tool to solve the enterprise problems (Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001), but this is not echoed in Jordanian organizations. Respondents also agreed with the statement: “The contents of the training programs are relevant to the changing needs of the jobs and business.” ($M=3.72$, $SD=0.91$), but this is not consistent with the literature (Magableh, et al., 2011).

In the same trend, HR managers agreed that “Training evaluation is a common practice.” ($M=3.68$, $SD=0.99$), which is not supported by extant literature in Jordan (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2018), and that “Measurement and feedback of T&D programs reflect the effectiveness of these programs.” ($M=3.54$, $SD=0.86$). Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001) indicated that the evaluation is a very important step to measure the suitability of the programs for the workers. Other researchers claimed that training programs should be measured in the short and long run (Tennant et al. 2002), and that evaluation is a tool to measure the change, and the level of improvement in trainees’

behaviour (McCracken and Wallace, 2000). Once again, literature contradicts the views of respondents, since training assessment is described as infrequent and an uncommon practice in Jordanian organizations (Altarawneh, 2009; Magableh, et al., 2011).

Respondents also show some level of agreement with the following statement: "T&D programs are provided for all employees at the same level." (M=3.53, SD=0.97), which is not supported by HRM literature in Jordan (Altarawneh, 2009). The statement above reflects the concern to provide all employees with equal capabilities to perform the assigned tasks efficiently (Kadiresan et al. 2015). As discussed before, those who are in high-status positions or with privileged relations and networks are more likely to participate in training programs, due to the phenomenon of Wasta (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2018) that was described in detail in the theoretical framework.

Respondents tend to agree that "Training and development objectives are clear for employees." (M=3.57, SD=0.98). Although T&D can be critical for HR in the Middle East countries, little time and money are spent in the development of such programs (Altarawneh, 2009). Moreover, the prevailing idea is that it means leisure time or a vacancy, and this message can lead to misunderstandings among employees (Magableh, et al., 2011; Budhwar and Mellahi, 2018).

Respondents also agree with the following statement: "Training content and methods are strong and consistent with the organization strategy." (M=3.46, SD=1.08). Given the little attention dedicated to training, this function could hardly be considered strategically. In the same vein, the allocation of a budget for training purposes would depend on the enterprise financial conditions and the regularity of training needs (Whitaker, 2002; Zetter, 2012; Fakhri & Ibrahim, 2016; Budhwar and Mellahi, 2018). In this regard, the respondents' level of agreement is as follows: "The organization has a specific budget for staff training each fiscal year." (M=3.05, SD=1.06).

Respondents show some level of agreement, although to a lesser extent, with the following statement: "Employees implement their new ideas, skills and knowledge after training sessions." (M=3.19, SD=1.04). Given that T&D programs are rarely evaluated in

Jordanian organizations, it is very difficult to assess the degree to which employees transfer and apply the acquired knowledge, skills and behaviours to their jobs.

Overall, respondents have very positive views on T&D in their organizations suggesting that the importance attributed to this function in the surveyed SMEs is in line with the best practices of T&D in developed countries. Bearing in mind the few studies conducted in Jordan, the scenario differs significantly from the respondents' perspective portrayed above.

Table 5.8: Respondents' Views on Training and Development Programs in SMEs

Item	Mean	St. Dev.
T&D programs are viewed as a means to enhance learning and as a sharing information process.	3.88	0.93
The organization has a specific budget for staff training each fiscal year.	3.05	1.06
T&D programs enhance productivity and organizational performance.	3.96	0.95
The contents of the training programs are relevant to the changing needs of jobs and business.	3.72	0.91
T&D programs are provided for all employees at the same level.	3.53	0.97
T&D programs are based on a training needs assessment.	3.73	0.98
Training evaluation is a common practice.	3.68	0.99
Measurement and feedback of T&D programs reflect the effectiveness of these programs.	3.54	0.86
T&D is not considered as a relevant function that contributes to organizational competitiveness and success. Organizational competitiveness and success.	<u>2.80</u>	1.28
Organization chooses employees for the training programs regardless of their nationality and cultural background.	<u>4.05</u>	0.98
Training content and methods are strong and consistent with the organization strategy	3.46	1.08
Training and development objectives are clear for employees.	<u>3.57</u>	0.98

Employees implement their new ideas, skills and knowledge after training sessions.	3.19	1.04
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5.4.3.2 Training and Development Techniques in SMEs

This section shows the results of T&D techniques applied in SMEs. It aims to get a picture of the most popular ways of implementing T&D (Figure 5.4).

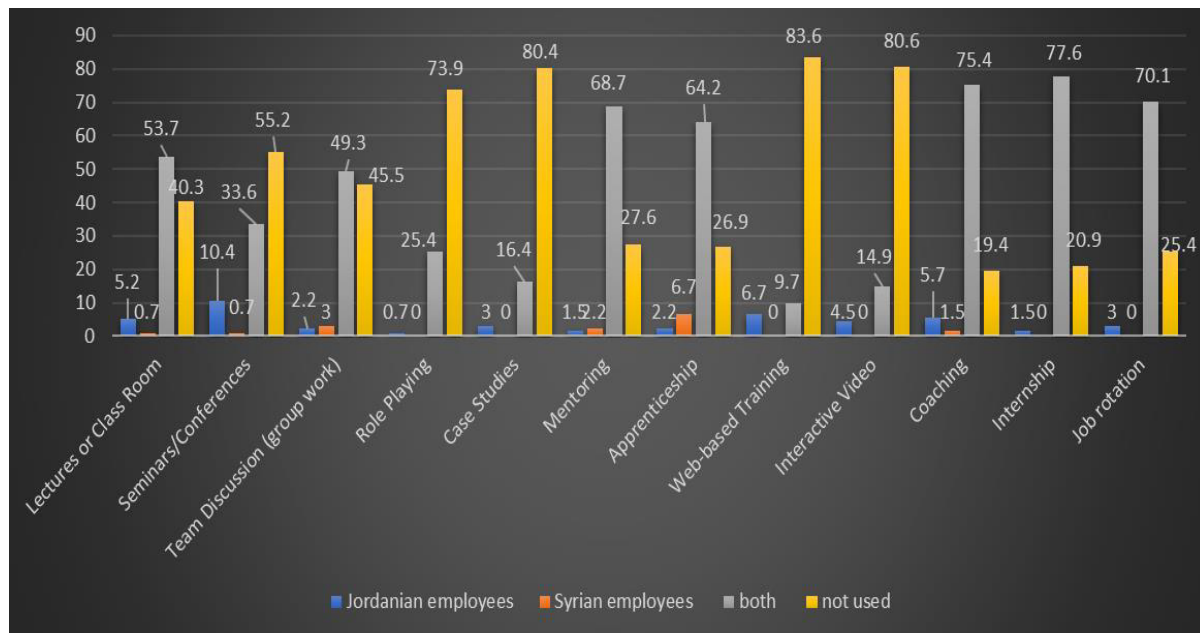
The overall results suggest SMEs preference for internships (77.6%), followed by coaching (75.4%) and mentoring (68.7%). The other training techniques are job rotation (70.1%), apprenticeship (64.2%), lectures or classrooms (53.7%), team discussion (49.3%), seminars or conferences (33.6%), role-playing (25.4%), cases studies (16.4%), interactive video (14.9%) and web-based training (9.7%). The most popular techniques seem to privilege instructor-trainee proximity, are conducted on-the-job, and less technology-based (assisted by computers and multimedia).

It is relevant to note that several T&D techniques were not checked by any of the respondents, which means that they are not used in those SMEs. The T&D techniques with high percentages of “not used” are web-based training (83.6%), interactive video (80.6%), case studies (80.4%), and role-playing (73.9%). The remaining techniques also exhibit considerable percentages on the “not used” category. As discussed in the previous section, T&D is not regarded as a crucial function in Jordan. Therefore, it is not conducted systematically and strategically (Altarawneh, 2005; 2009; Magableh et al., 2011; Budhwar and Mellahi, 2018). These figures probably reflect the incipient nature of T&D in Jordanian SMEs. Therefore, most T&D techniques may not apply to developing countries, due to inherent complexities and cost-related reasons (Altarawneh, 2005, 2009; Husan et al., 2009; Glass; 2013).

There are some techniques applied to Jordanian employees but not to Syrian refugees. These techniques are: seminars (10.4%), web-based training (6.7%), coaching (5.7%), lectures or classroom (5.2%), and interactive video (4.5%). For Syrians, the technique that seems more popular is apprenticeship (6.7%). This may be because Syrians

are provided apprenticeships to acquire the needed skills to perform their jobs (Fakih and Ibrahim, 2016; Desiderio, 2016).

Figure 5.4: Training and Development Techniques Applied to Jordanian and Syrian Employees



5.4.3.3 Evaluation of Training and Development Process in SMEs

Respondents were asked whether their organizations conducted a training evaluation process. According to them, 73.9% of the SMEs evaluate T&D while 26.1% do not conduct this evaluation process (Table 5.9).

Table 5.9: Evaluation of Training and Development in SMEs

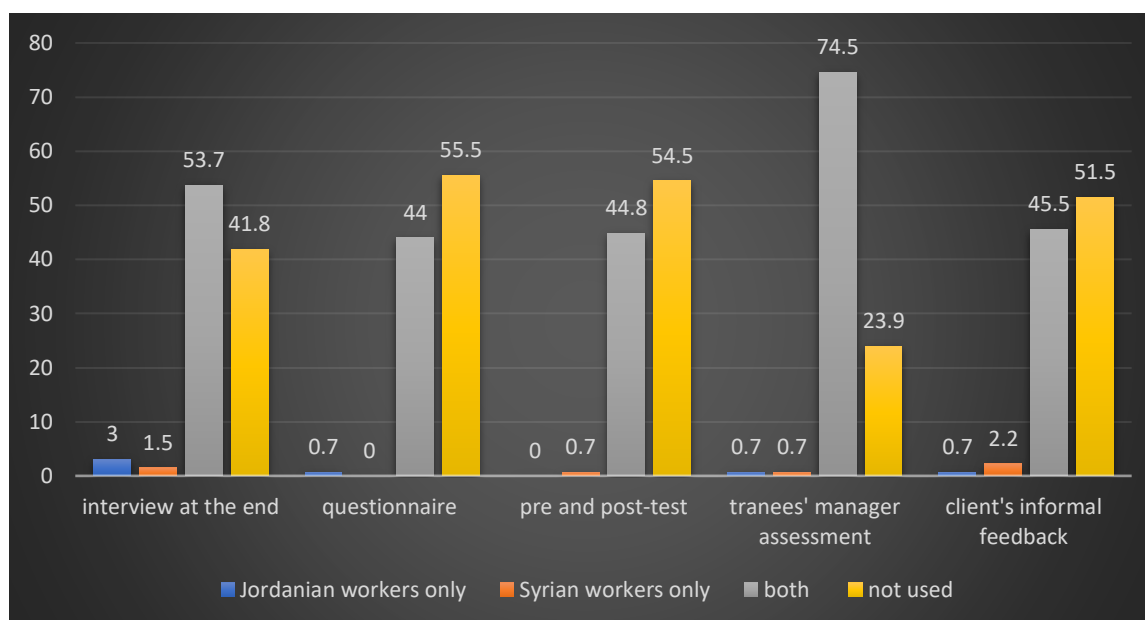
Evaluation of Training and Development in SMEs	Freq.	%
Yes	99	73.9%
No	35	26.1%

5.4.3.3.1 Training and Development Evaluation Techniques

The literature in this field has clearly shown that it is of utmost importance to evaluate the impact of T&D programs. Therefore, the respondents were asked to indicate

the techniques used in the training evaluation process. The overall results (Figure 5.5) showed that the most frequently used is “Asking the trainees’ managers or supervisors to assess the trainees’ learning.” (74.5%), followed by "Interviewing employees at the end of the program" (53.7%). The least preferred methods (applied to both Jordanian and Syrian employees) are "Testing the trainees before and after the training programs (pre and post-test)" (44.8%) and “Asking employees to fill a questionnaire at the end of the training program” (44%). The same trend was found here regarding the high percentages in “not used” category. The same line of reasoning applies here: T&D is infrequent and uncommon which implies that its evaluation is also rare.

Figure 5.5: Training and Development Evaluation Techniques



5.4.3.4 Challenges Facing the HR Managers in the Context of T&D Regarding Syrian Refugees

In this section, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with some statements portraying challenges in the context of T&D of Syrian refugees. Once again, the mean scores in all the items was below “3”, the neutral point of the scale, thus representing the respondents’ disagreement with those statements (Table 5.10). The

mean values are as follows: “Insufficient financial budget to train Syrian workers (financial constraints)” (M=2.80, SD=1.30); “High turnover rates among Syrian employees prevent the organization to invest in training programs” (M=2.60, SD=1.24), “Employees perceive time spent in T&D is regarded as useless and as a waste of time and money.” (M=2.61, SD=1), “Lack of employees’ enthusiasm towards training.” (M=2.47, SD=1.27). “Special training programs are not designed to transfer knowledge from Syrian workers to Jordanian workers.”(M=2.42, SD=1.20), and finally “Wasta plays a prominent role in allocating training programs among employees.” (M=1.93, SD=1.21).

Possible reasons for this disagreement follow the rationale used in the analysis of the challenges posed to R&S and OI&S. Respondents don’t seem aware of any circumstances or are reluctant to admit the existence of challenges that can act against HR practices, either because they truly believe that the processes underlying those practices are truly effective or refuse to point out negative aspects in HRM. For example, the item with the highest level of disagreement refers to Wasta and is the least convincing in light of extant literature. The phenomenon was vastly and strongly described as affecting HRM in the Middle East, particularly in Jordan. Its impact on T&D was also underscored in previous studies, as “normally given to the managers’ friends or relatives” (Aladwan, Bhanupan and Fish, 2014, p. 132). This phenomenon is so widespread that is likely to affect Syrian refugees’ participation in training programs.

Table 5.10: Main Challenges Facing the HR Managers in the Context of Training and Development of Syrian Workers

Item	Mean	St. Dev.
Lack of employees’ enthusiasm towards training.	2.47	1.27
Special training programs are not designed to transfer knowledge from Syrian workers to Jordanian workers.	2.42	1.20
High turnover rates among Syrian employees prevent the organization to invest in training programs.	2.60	1.24
Insufficient financial budget to train Syrian workers (financial constraints).	2.80	1.30
Employees perceive time spent in T&D is regarded as useless and as a waste of time and money.	2.61	1

<i>Wasta</i> plays a prominent role in allocating training programs among employees.	1.93	1.21
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5.4.4 Performance Appraisal

This section presents the results and discussion of performance appraisal system (PAS) used in SMEs, from the HR perspective. Firstly, respondents were asked whether their organization has a formal PAS. Then it addresses the methods used to evaluate employees' performance. Finally, the perceived challenges posed to HRM in the context of PAS are analysed.

5.4.4.1 Existence of Formal Performance Appraisal System

The results show that most SMEs have a formal performance appraisal system (70.1%), against 29.9% that do not conduct PA in a formal manner (Table 5.11). Despite the little attention dedicated to HRM in Jordan, extant studies demonstrate that the PAS is not appreciated in Jordan and also highlight the negative attitudes of Jordanian employees toward it (Aladwan, et al., 2014). This practice has a bad reputation among employees that react with cynicism and disbelief, due to perceived unfairness and discrimination during performance appraisal (Aladwan et al., 2014; Abu Shiekhah, et al., 2015).

Table 5.11: Existence of a Formal Performance Appraisal System

	Freq	Percentage
Yes	94	70.1%
No	40	29.9%

5.4.4.2 Performance Appraisal Methods and Procedures

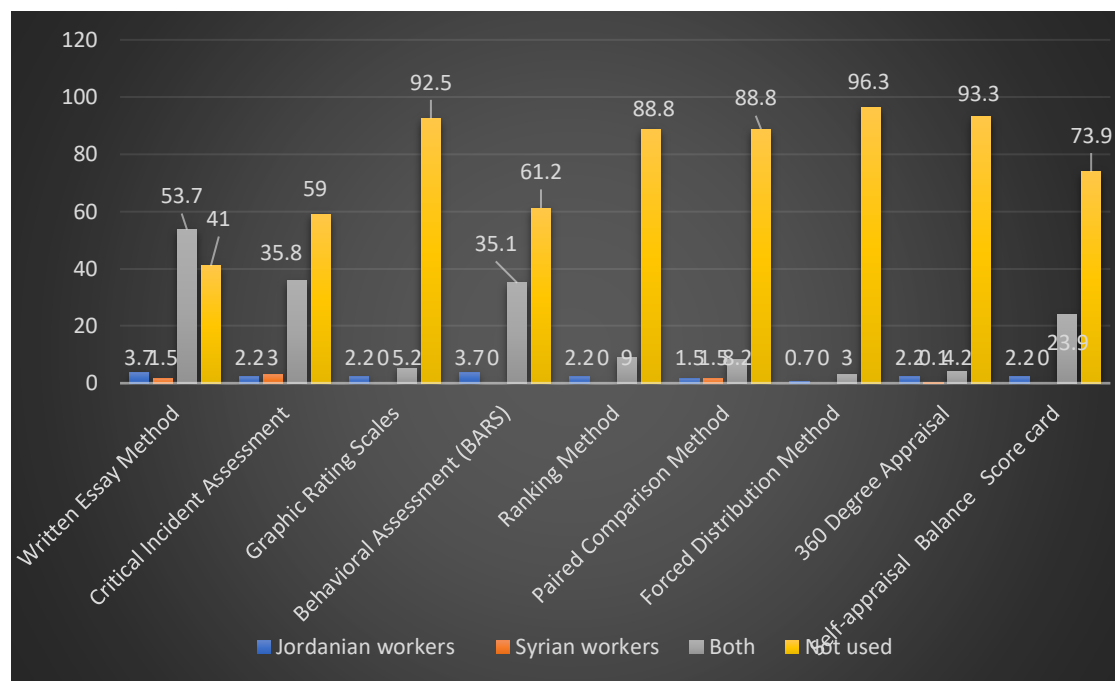
This section presents the results of the PA methods applied in SMEs, to get a better understanding of the current situation in Jordanian SMEs and identify eventual differences in its applications (Jordanian and Syrian employees).

Figure 5.6 shows that most SMEs do not apply any of the PA methods presented to respondents, namely: forced distribution method (96.3%), 360 degrees appraisal

(93.3%), graphic rating scales (92.5%), ranking method and paired comparison method (both with 88.8%). The highest percentages correspond to the “non-applicable” category which is in line with the findings in previous HR practices and extant literature (Abu-Doleh and Weir; 2007). The same arguments apply here: PAS in Jordan is incipient and SMEs do not make use of the array of methods commonly used in the developed countries (Abu-Doleh and Salhieh, 2005).

The most popular PA methods in the surveyed SMEs are written essay method (53.7%), followed by critical incident assessment (35.8%), behavioural assessment (BARS) (35.1%). Some methods are not applied to Syrian refugees: ranking method, behavioural assessment (BARS), self-appraisal balanced scorecard, graphic rating scales and forced distribution method.

Figure 5.6: Performance Appraisal Methods Applied to Jordanian and Syrian Employees

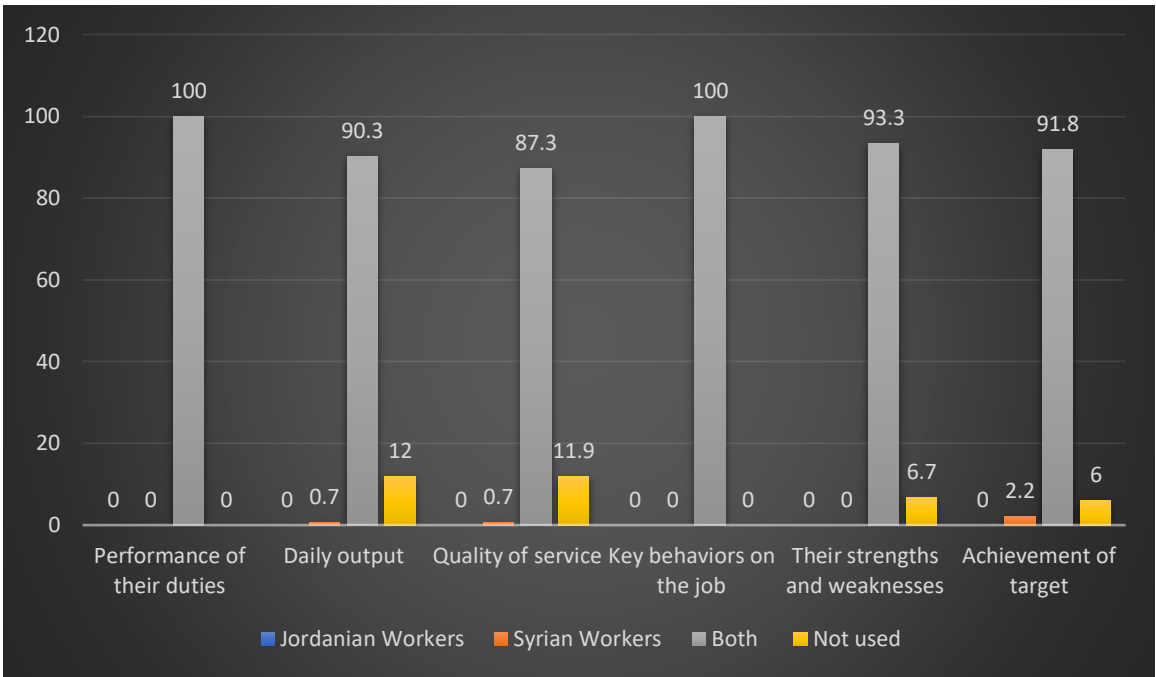


5.4.4.3 Key Indicators in the Performance Appraisal Process

The overall results showed that key performance indicators are applied to both Jordanian and Syrian employees (Figure 5.7). The highest percentages are as follows: the performance of their duties (100%) and key behaviours on the job (100%), followed by their strengths and weaknesses (93.3%) and daily output (90.3%). The target achievement

was used by 91.8% of SMEs, and the quality of service by 87.3%. Interestingly, some performance indicators seem to apply solely to Syrian employees, but the percentages are very low, that is daily output (0.7%), the quality of service (0.7%), followed with the achievement of the target (2.2%).

Figure 5.7: Key Indicators of Performance Appraisal Applied to Jordanian and Syrian Employees



5.4.4.4 Performance Appraisal System Applied in SMEs

This section aims to get a better understanding of the current PAS in SMEs from the HR perspective. Therefore, it covered several features regarding the implementation, criteria, PAS applications, among other aspects. According to the results shown in Table 5.12, respondents have very positive perceptions regarding the PAS in place in the surveyed SMEs. The mean values are above “3” in all statements, and in some cases above “4”, indicating high agreement.

The findings indicate HR managers agreed mostly with the following statements: “The performance appraisal system applies for all employees regardless of their nationality and cultural background” ($M=4.49$, $SD=0.87$), and “The performance appraisal (PA) standards are consistent with the organization goals” ($M=4.14$, $SD=0.76$). In this regard, West et al. (2002) indicated that the objective of the PA is to steer employees’ efforts toward the organizational objectives. The respondents strongly agreed that “The PA system provides all employees the opportunity for self-review and feedback on their performance regardless of their nationality.” ($M=4.10$, $SD=0.99$). Such emphasis on the need to apply the PAS without discriminating against employees’ nationality is in line with the managerial rhetoric of fair treatment, particularly in contexts of diversity (Al-Zawahreh and Khasawneh, 2013; Aladwan et al., 2014).

Respondents also showed a high level of agreement regarding the usefulness of this practice to other HR practices, namely pay, rewards and benefits and career development, and training needs analysis, as follows: “PA results are used to determine promotion, rewards, benefits, and guidance for future career paths. ($M=4.07$, $SD= 0.89$) and “PA results are used to determine future training needs analysis and programs.” ($M=3.19$, $SD=1.13$). Other scholars have emphasized the importance of PAS to other HR practices. For example, West et al. (2002) have shown that PA allows for rewarding high performers and helps to guide and improve the poor performers.

They also considered that “The PA objectives are clear for all employees” ($M=3.95$, $SD=0.93$), and that “The performance appraisal process is a serious activity, not just as ‘Tick-the-Box practice’.” ($M=3.04$, $SD=0.87$). They also agreed that: “The PA reflects the actual performance of employees at all levels.” ($M=3.89$, $SD=0.77$).

Respondents also agreed that “There is an appeals process in case of disagreement with the appraisal result available to any employee regardless of his/her position or nationality” ($M=3.76$, $SD=0.98$), and that “The PA system encourages open communication between colleagues, supervisors and management through performance review discussions around main key areas.” ($M=3.35$, $SD=1.15$).

Finally, the statements that exhibited less agreement are: “PA process is conducted regularly and on time.” (M=3.24, SD=1.28), and “PA is not fully appreciated and employees express some negative feelings towards it.” (M=2.90, SD=1.24). The study of Abu-Doleh and Weir (2007) in public and private Jordanian organizations clearly showed that those companies conduct PAS once a year. The negative feelings and reactions are not exclusive of Jordanian workers since the literature reviewed in previous chapters present it as a “global” problem (Al-Adamat and Alserhan, 2020).

Table 5.12: Respondents’ Views on the Performance Appraisal System in SMEs

Item	Mean	St. Dev.
The performance appraisal (PA) standards are consistent with the organization goals.	4.14	0.76
The PA reflects the actual performance of employees at all levels.	3.89	0.77
The PA system provides all employees with the opportunity for self-review and feedback on their performance regardless of their nationality.	4.10	0.99
The PA system encourages open communication between colleagues, supervisors and management through performance review discussions around main key areas.	3.35	1.15
PA results are used to determine future training needs analysis and programs.	3.19	1.13
PA results are used to determine promotion, rewards, benefits, and guidance for future career paths.	4.07	0.89
There is an appeals process in case of disagreement with the appraisal result available to any employee regardless of his/her position or nationality	3.76	0.98
PA process is conducted regularly and on time.	3.24	1.28
PA is not fully appreciated, and employees express some negative feelings towards it.	2.90	1.24
The performance appraisal system applies to all employees regardless of their nationality and cultural background.	4.49	0.73
The performance appraisal process is a serious activity, not just as ‘Tick-the-Box practice’.	3.04	0.87
The PA objectives are clear for all employees	3.95	0.93

5.4.4.5 Challenges Facing the HR Managers in the Context of Performance Appraisal Regarding Syrian Workers

In this section, respondents were asked to express their level of agreement with some statements portraying challenges in the context of PAS of Syrian refugees. The results show clearly the same trend observed in the other practices, with the various mean values below “3”. Once again, the mean scores in all the items was below “3”, the neutral point of the scale, thus representing the respondents’ disagreement with those statements (Table 5.13). The mean values are as follows: “Performance ratings reflect in part the managers’/raters personal biases such as nepotism, sycophancy, unfairness distribution of the ratings, liking or disliking of the employees.” (M=2.24, SD=1.13), followed by “Syrian workers’ reactions to his/her assessment results are sometimes negative and violent” (M=2.16, SD=0.98), and “Performance ratings of those employees who can procure managers special favours or benefits (mutual interests/Wasta factor) are inflated.” (M=2.14, 1.19) and finally “Local/Jordan employees get a higher performance rating than is deserved regardless of their real performance.” (M=1.65, 0.94).

These findings suggest that the respondents do not regard Wasta as influencing performance appraisal. This has been thoroughly discussed in previous HR practices in the corresponding sections analyzing the challenges posed to managers (Bakhtari, 1995; Abu-Doleh and Weir, 2007; Aladwan et al., 2014; Abu Shiekhah, 2015; Giangreco and Vakkayil, 2016; Al-Serhan, 2019; Al-Abbadi, 2018). They also disagree that raters can evaluate their employees’ performance in a biased way, due to favouritism. Also, the respondents show the highest level of disagreement with the statement suggesting a preferential treatment of Jordanian employees that results in higher performance ratings compared to Syrian refugees.

Table 5.13: Main Challenges Facing HR Managers in the Context of Performance Appraisal Regarding Syrian Workers

Item	Mean	St. Dev.
Syrian workers' reactions to his/her assessment result are sometimes negative and violent	2.16	0.98
Performance ratings of those employees who are able to procure managers special services, favours, or benefits (mutual interests/ Wasta factor) are inflated.	2.14	1.19
Local/Jordan employees get a higher performance rating than is deserved regardless of their real performance.	1.65	0.94
Performance ratings reflect in part the managers'/raters personal biases such as nepotism, sycophancy, unfairness distribution of the ratings, liking or disliking of the employees.	2.24	1.13

5.5 Effects of Demographic and Organizational Variables on Respondents' Perceptions of HR Practices and Challenges

As previously indicated, one-way ANOVA and t-test were run to analyze the impact of some demographic variables (gender, age, education and years of experience) and organizational variables (size of company and existence of HR department) on respondents' perceptions by comparing the means in the HR Practices and challenges.

5.5.1 One-way ANOVA Test

To examine differences in recruitment and selection process, challenges regarding recruitment and selection, integration and socialization initiatives, challenges regarding integration and socialization, training and development programs, challenges regarding training and development, performance appraisal process, and challenges regarding performance appraisal related to age group, years of experience, and educational level, one-way ANOVA was conducted.

The results presented in Table 5.14 didn't show any significant differences in recruitment and selection process, challenges regarding recruitment and selection, integration and socialization initiatives, challenges regarding integration and socialization, training and development programs, challenges regarding training and

development, and challenges regarding performance appraisal among respondents' different age groups; ($F = .26, p = .90$), ($F = .64, p = .64$), ($F = 2.14, p = .08$), ($F = .83, p = .51$), ($F = 2.13, p = .08$), ($F = .61, p = .66$), ($F = .26, p = .90$), respectively. As indicated in Table 5.14, ANOVA shows that there are significant differences among the different age groups with regard to performance appraisal system ($F = 2.95, p = .02$). To determine which of these age groups differ from each other, a post hoc comparison test (Scheffe) was used. When the post-hoc test was run, the only difference found was between participants in the age group 18 - 30 ($M = 42.25, SD = 5.72$) and those aged 41 - 50 ($M = 44.94, SD = 4.71$).

Table 5.14 also shows that there was no statistically significant differences between groups (years of experience) with regard to recruitment and selection process, challenges regarding recruitment and selection, integration and socialization initiatives, challenges regarding integration and socialization, training and development programs, challenges regarding training and development, performance appraisal system, and challenges regarding performance appraisal. The F-ratio and p value illustrate this finding ($F = .66, p = .66$), ($F = .64, p = .67$), ($F = 1.66, p = .15$), ($F = .84, p = .52$), ($F = .27, p = .93$), ($F = .51, p = .77$), ($F = 1.01, p = .41$), ($F = .82, p = .54$), respectively.

The ANOVA conducted to examine the relationship between educational level and recruitment and selection process, integration and socialization initiatives, training and development programs, performance appraisal system, and challenges regarding performance appraisal related shows that no differences exist among groups ($F = .35, p = .79$), ($F = 1.89, p = .14$), ($F = .48, p = .70$), ($F = .29, p = .83$), ($F = 1.76, p = .15$, respectively). The F-ratio and p-value show that there are significant differences among the different groups in terms of their perceived challenges regarding recruitment and selection, challenges regarding integration and socialization, and challenges regarding training and development ($F = 6.02, p = .001$) ($F = 4.01, p = .009$), ($F = 5.94, p = .001$), respectively. To determine which of these groups differ from each other a post-hoc test was used. Scheffe's test pinpointed that the only significant difference occurred is between the group of participants who finished high school ($M = 11.57, SD = 2.79$) and those holding bachelor's degree ($M = 8.78, SD = 2.74$) on the perceived challenges regarding R&S, where

the first seem to be more aware of the challenges compared to the later. Also, post-hoc test showed that participants who finished high school ($M= 8.86$, $SD= 3.24$) differed from the bachelor's degree group ($M= 6.93$, $SD= 2.36$) regarding their perceptions of organizational integration and socialization challenges. Likewise, the post-hoc test showed that perceived challenges regarding training and development differed significantly between the high school group ($M= 18.38$, $SD= 4.26$) and the bachelor's degree group ($M= 13.76$, $SD= 4.93$). These findings suggest that participants with a lower level of education seem more aware of the challenges facing HR Managers and refugees than those with a bachelor degree.

Table 5.14: ANOVA for Age, Experience and Education

Main Study Variables	Main Demographic Variables					
	Age Group		Experience		Education	
	F	P	F	P	F	P
Recruitment and selection process	0.26	0.90	0.66	0.66	0.35	0.79
Challenges regarding recruitment and selection	0.64	0.64	0.64	0.67	6.02	0.001
Integration and socialization initiatives	2.14	0.08	1.66	0.15	1.89	0.14
Challenges regarding integration and socialization	0.83	0.51	0.84	0.52	4.01	0.009
Training and development programs	2.13	0.08	0.27	0.93	0.48	0.70
Challenges regarding training and development	0.61	0.66	0.51	0.77	5.94	0.001
Performance appraisal process	2.95	0.02	1.17	0.32	1.27	0.28
Challenges regarding performance appraisal	0.26	0.90	0.82	0.54	1.76	0.15

5.5.2 Independent T-Test

To examine differences in recruitment and selection process, challenges regarding recruitment and selection, integration and socialization initiatives, challenges regarding integration and socialization, training and development programs, challenges regarding training and development, performance appraisal process, and challenges regarding

performance appraisal related to gender, company size, and the existence of HR department, independent t-test was used.

The results presented in Table 5.15 revealed that there was no significant differences in recruitment and selection process, challenges regarding recruitment and selection, challenges regarding integration and socialization, training and development programs, challenges regarding training and development, performance appraisal system, and challenges regarding performance appraisal between male and female. This means that respondents' perceptions about HR practices and challenges abovementioned did not differ according to their gender ($t = 1.05, p = .30$), ($t = 1.07, p = .29$), ($t = 1.21, p = .23$), ($t = .70, p = .48$), ($t = 1.39, p = .17$), ($t = -0.02, p = .98$), ($t = .87, p = .39$) respectively. T-test showed that perceptions about integration and socialization initiatives differed based on gender ($t = 2.94, p = .004$), with male participants showing higher agreement (more favorable views) with those initiatives ($M = 20.88, SD = 4.58$) compared to female participants ($M = 17.62, SD = 5.17$).

Results revealed that there was no significant differences in recruitment and selection process, challenges regarding recruitment and selection, integration and socialization initiatives, training and development programs, performance appraisal system, and challenges regarding performance appraisal related to existence of HR department [$(t = -.13, p = .90)$, ($t = -.55, p = .59$), ($t = 1.65, p = .10$), ($t = 1.56, p = .12$), ($t = 1.47, p = .14$), ($t = -1.84, p = .07$), respectively]. Significant differences were found in challenges regarding integration and socialization initiatives and challenges regarding training and development programs related to existence of HR department ($t = 2.94, p = .004$) ($t = -1.84, p = .07$), respectively. Respondents from companies without HR department show higher agreement with the challenges facing them in the context of integration and socialization ($M = 8.16, SD = 8.01$) compared to those in companies with HR department ($M = 7.01, SD = 3.35$). A similar pattern was found on the perceived challenges facing them in T&D, where those in SMEs without HR department presented a mean score ($M = 16.09, SD = 4.63$) higher than those in SMEs with HR department ($M = 13.87, SD = 4.87$).

There was no significant differences in recruitment and selection process quality, integration and socialization initiatives quality, challenges regarding integration and socialization, challenges regarding training and development, and challenges regarding performance appraisal related to company size (small versus medium). T values and p values are as follows: (t= -1.17, p= .25), (t= -.1, p= .92), (t= -1.53, p= .12), (t= 1.91, p= .06), (t= -.04, p= .97), (t= .62, p= .53), respectively. But there was a significant difference in training and development programs and performance appraisal system related to company size; (t= -2.34, p = .02) (t= -4.01, p< .001) respectively. Analysis revealed that mean scores regarding perceived training and development programs differ significantly, with respondents from medium-sized companies showing a higher agreement with the scale (M= 33.10, SD= 5.89) than those in small-sized companies (M= 30.32, SD= 7.29). A similar trend was found for performance appraisal system: medium-sized companies (M= 44.31, SD= 4.62) small-sized companies (M= 40.41, SD= 6.30).

Table 5.15: T-test for Gender, HR Presence and Company Size

Main Study Variables	Demographic Variables					
	Gender		HR Presence		Company Size	
	T	P	t	P	t	P
Recruitment and selection process	-1.05	0.30	-0.13	0.90	-1.17	0.25
Challenges regarding recruitment and selection	1.07	0.29	-0.55	0.59	-0.1	0.92
Integration and socialization initiatives	2.94	0.004	1.65	0.1	-1.53	0.12
Challenges regarding integration and socialization	1.21	0.23	-2.03	0.02	1.91	0.06
Training and development programs	0.70	0.48	1.56	0.12	-2.34	0.02
Challenges regarding training and development	1.39	0.17	-2.67	0.009	-0.04	0.79
Performance appraisal process	-0.02	0.98	1.47	0.14	-4.01	<0.001
Challenges regarding performance appraisal	0.87	0.39	-1.84	0.07	0.62	0.53

Chapter Six: Conclusions, Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

6.1 Introduction

Human Resource Management in the Middle East region witnesses the paucity of studies in comparison to the amount of research in the developed economies and societies. In Jordan, extant research in the field of HRM has been depicted as mainly anecdotal and lacking empirical support. The Syrian influx following the conflict in Syria presented Jordan with numerous challenges (social, political, and economic) that exacerbated some preexisting internal conditions, such as resources scarcity, high levels of unemployment, overburdened education and healthcare services, among others. The present work investigates the current HR practices implemented in Jordanian SMEs regarding Jordanian and Syrian refugees. It aims to contribute to the scarce literature on HRM in Jordan, particularly in the domain of SMEs. It also addresses the main challenges posed to HR managers in the previously mentioned context.

This chapter aims to wrap up the present study, by identifying the main empirical findings and addressing the extent to which they answer the research questions bearing in mind the research objectives. The contributions to knowledge and practice will be presented as well as the main limitations of the research. The questions left unanswered or needing further investigation will set the basis for proposing new avenues for research in the domain of HRM in Jordanian organizations.

6.2 Main Research Findings

In light of the above and guided by the lacunae identified in the literature review, this study aimed to examine four HRM practices in Jordanian SMEs that employ Syrian refugees, as well as some main challenges regarding each. The major findings on each HR practice will be summarized according to the main research objectives:

1. To analyze the HRM practices in Jordanian SMEs, namely recruitment and selection, organizational integration and socialization, training and development, and performance appraisal system.

2. To identify the main methods used in each HRM practice regarding Jordanian and Syrian employees.
3. To examine the similarities or/and differences in the methods used in each practice with regard to Jordanian and Syrian employees.
4. To determine the major challenges facing HR managers in each practice.

6.2.1 Recruitment and Selection

The study findings showed that the HR managers in the surveyed SMEs hold very positive opinions about the recruitment and selection process currently implemented in their organizations. According to their answers, R&S follows the principles of transparency, fairness and equity, and the criteria underlying the processes of attracting and selecting candidates is aimed to eliminate biased decisions and discrimination. Job analysis is said to be an integral part of the R&S process. And the procedures are intended to promote diversity and heterogeneity in the workplace. On the other hand, the respondents suggested that *wasta* does not interfere in the R&S process. Overall, these findings contradict the existing studies in Jordan that highlight various problems regarding this practice (Magableh and Al-Mahrouq, 2007; Aladwan, et al., 2014; Ta'Amnha et al., 2016; Alsarhan, and Valax, 2020). In this regard, R&S is described as strongly influenced by personal connections (*Wasta*), and the hiring decisions are rarely based on objective criteria such as merit, skills, and knowledge. Besides, job analysis is presented as a mere administrative task and is not used for R&S purposes.

One possible reason for the discrepancy between the respondents' answers and the scenario presented in the literature might be the effect of "social desirability bias". This phenomenon leads respondents to provide inaccurate answers, particularly when dealing with sensitive issues. After all, the respondents are talking about the practices implemented by their departments in their employing organizations. Another reason can be the fact that *wasta* refers to obtaining favours at the expense of other individuals, which is a punishable crime in Jordan (Budwar et al, 2019). Admitting its occurrence would mean that SMEs are willing to bypass the law.

In terms of the R&S methods and procedures, the study findings showed that SMEs usually rely on informal procedures to attract candidates, both Jordanian and Syrian refugees. The most popular methods involve resorting to relatives and friends, employee referrals, and word of mouth, which entail low financial costs for the organization. Some are not commonly used to reach Syrian candidates, namely newspaper advertisements and e-recruitment. The one-to-one interview is the most popular selection method to select Jordanian and Syrian candidates while the most expensive and complex, such as assessment centres and panel interviews, are not used to select candidates.

Finally, the respondents did not find any of the situations presented to them as potentially challenging. It seems that R&S runs smoothly and hiring Syrian refugees does not pose them specific challenges. Paradoxically, official reports and extant research on Syrian refugees in Jordan indicate that they face numerous barriers, and employers in the host country as well. For example, some studies reveal that Jordanian employers lack accurate information about Syrian refugees' skills, and the latter also lack information about job opportunities (Achilli, 2015; Kattaa and Byrne, 2018; Lenner and Turner, 2019). This means that some challenges are two-sided in the sense that they affect both Jordanian organizations and Syrian refugees. Consequently, some situations can be a barrier both for employers and refugees.

6.2.2 Organizational Integration and Socialization

The results findings indicated that the respondents also have very positive views regarding the SMEs initiatives designed to integrate and socialize newcomers, regardless of their nationality. According to the results, SMEs tend to rely on informal practices as a means to welcome and integrate new employees and make them familiar with organizational values, rules, and expectations. This is in line with the literature in Jordan that shows that (HR) management practices are strongly influenced by informality and informal relations (Ta'Amnha et al., 2016).

The results showed that the most frequent welcoming practices (introducing them to the line manager, to the employee's team and senior staff) are applied to both

Jordanian and Syrian. Similarities in language and religions seem to explain the application of similar procedures to integrate newcomers.

The respondents did not find the situations presented to them in the context of integration and socialization challenges. One possible reason could be their belief that SMEs are implementing the right practices aimed at a successful integration of new employees, regardless of their nationality.

6.2.3 Training and Development

According to the study findings, the respondents depict T&D in SMEs in a very favourable way. Overall, they perceive that the T&D programs are objective and available to everyone, are based on training needs analysis, the contents are useful and consistent with the organizational strategy. These results are not in line with the extant literature that portrays T&D in Jordan as a non-relevant practice, and therefore useless. The studies also show that Wasta affects this practice since the high-status individuals are the ones invited to participate in what is regarded as vacation and leisure time activity (Altarawneh, 2005, 2009; Magableh, et al., 2011).

With regard to T&D techniques, the findings show that SMEs prefer those that promote instructor-trainee proximity, are conducted on-the-job and are less technology-based (e.g. internship, coaching, job rotation and mentoring). In this regard, the techniques that are assisted by computers and multimedia (e.g. web-based training and interactive video) seem unpopular and presented the highest percentages in the “non-applicable” category of response. This means that Jordanian SMEs tend to avoid or cannot afford to pay for some T&D techniques that involve trainers with some technological expertise. The fact that it is not regarded as a crucial function seems to prevent SMEs from investing in such methodologies.

According to the study findings, respondents are not aware or refuse to admit that the situations presented to them might act against T&D. For example, one of the items referred to Wasta and its role in the allocation of training programs. Since Syrian refugees don't have access to the most influential people and prestigious networks (Stevens, 2016) this could make even more difficult for them to participate in T&D. In spite of this,

respondents showed clear disagreement with the statement. The question remains: is it because they truly believe in the way HR practices are being implemented in SMEs or such positive views reflect the desirability phenomenon?

6.2.4 Performance Appraisal System

According to the study findings, the respondents' views regarding performance appraisal implementation, criteria, applications, among other aspects, are very positive. They have found PAS as a practice conducted once a year, it does not discriminate employees, is consistent with the organizational goals, is based on rigorous criteria, and can be useful in decision-making regarding pay, rewards, and career development. They also indicated that it is conducted regularly. In this regard, literature shows that PAS is not appreciated in Jordan, and needs further attention (Aladwan, et al., 2014; Abu-Doleh and Weir, 2007).

Concerning the methodologies used in PA, the findings present the same trend that was found in previous HR practices. SMEs do not seem to use most of the PA methods, particularly the most costly ones, and the highest percentages appear in the "non-applicable" category of response. Apart from the written essay method, BARS, and critical incident assessment (which seem to apply to both Jordan and Syrian), the remaining methods were seldomly used. Although these methods – graphic rating scales, forced distribution, ranking method, 360° appraisal, are quite common in developed countries, they have almost no application in developing countries or different local contexts. This provides evidence that some HR concepts and best practices originated in the Anglo-Saxon context are not universal. Therefore, the straightforward application of such HR practices and concepts to other realities is questionable because it ignores the country-specific nature of HRM, and the unique factors (e.g. cultural, social, institutional) affecting HRM concepts, models and practices.

The findings suggested that the challenges indicated in the PAS are not regarded as such by the respondents. PAS in the surveyed SMEs seems immune to the effects of Wasta, as well as any form of favouritism and biased decisions. Its meaning and effects

have been thoroughly discussed in the theoretical chapters and the presentation of results, and the reasons for the apparent disregard from the respondents too.

6.3 Contributions to Knowledge and Practice

This research has analyzed four HR practices in Jordanian SMEs and how they are being implemented, to provide a comprehensive view of the current status of those practices in that context. Although it only touched the surface of challenges, it ends up contributing to the knowledge in a country where the available studies are scarce. The analysis of HRM practices after the massive entry of Syrian refugees in the Jordanian labour market was aimed at providing a better understanding of the current applications of HRM in those circumstances. By looking at four major HR practices: recruitment and selection (R&S), organizational integration and socialization (OI&S), training and development (T&D), and performance appraisal system (PAS), the research has provided some insights on a topic requiring empirical investigation and useful insights.

Based on the findings, SMEs do not seem to be applying those HR practices very differently to Jordanian and Syrian refugees, treating all employees the same. Although a few exclude the latter from specific procedures and methodologies inherent to each practice (as indicated in the presentation of the results), most SMEs do not seem to differentiate between employees. As stated before, this might not truly reflect the current situation, since respondents tend to be affected by the social desirability effect when answering to delicate and sensitive topics. The present research has just brought to light an issue deserving urgent attention. Unveiling the “real” scenario of HRM in Jordanian organizations will contribute to the development of relevant practices, particularly in these challenging times for organizations, Jordanians and Syrian refugees.

A contribution to both academics and practitioners is that HR managers should make a rigorous analysis of their actual HR practices and think of conducting them in a systematic and integrated way, to produce long-run outcomes. It is of utmost relevance that SMEs critically analyze the role played by each HR practice and the way it relates to the other organizational functions. Until they identify the main HR practices, key

determinants, and effective ways of implementing them, it is not likely that they will be able to improve the HRM function and reputation.

Although these study findings revealed an optimistic view of HRM, literature has indicated that HRM in Jordan is embedded and rooted in cultural aspects (e.g., *wasta*), and the majority of practitioners seem sceptical of the relevance and core functions of some HR (western) practices. HRM is regarded as a low-status function compared to other management areas, thus not requiring professional skills and expertise (Mellahi and Budhwar, 2006). Bearing this in mind, this study proposes a shift from “traditional” attitudes toward HRM and routinized ways of doing things to a systematic application of HR practices that goes beyond its bureaucratic implementation. CEOs and other top managers in organizations should participate in educational/training programs (postgraduate courses in HRM) designed to increase their awareness of the crucial role of HRM. Besides, appropriate training will enable both HR managers and top executives to develop the skills deemed essential for managing current and future HR challenges.

6.4. Limitations of the Research

Like any piece of research, the present study presents various shortcomings. One of the limitations is related to the sample, which has a convenience nature. Therefore, the analysis and interpretation of data are limited by the fact that is not representative of the population under study. This prevents the research findings from generalization or at least requires caution until further evidence is provided. Although 134 SMEs were surveyed in this research, the distribution of questionnaires did not reach various SMEs in other geographic locations.

This is an exploratory study, mainly descriptive, therefore should be supplemented by more sophisticated statistical analysis. The fact that HRM studies in Jordan are almost non-existent and access to reliable data a challenge to researchers, particularly regarding some HR practices, also made it difficult to conduct explanatory research.

Another limitation stems from the methodological approach, and the reliance on a quantitative survey addressed to HR managers. Since the study aimed at uncovering

challenges posed to HRM, particularly HR practices, conducting exploratory interviews with HR managers and other experts in the field could have contributed to improve some sections of the questionnaire. As explained in the methodology chapter, the development of the questionnaire has received the input from academic experts, but obtaining the insights of HR practitioners could have improved the instrument of data collection. In this regard, challenges posed to HRM and Syrian refugees ended up a bit mixed up, although various situations can simultaneously affect HR managers' functions and refugee's entry and permanence in the labour market.

The voices of Syrian refugees are missing in this study. Conducting focus groups and/or interviews with Syrian refugees could have helped to uncover the main challenges they are faced with in labour market integration, namely when searching for a job, and as new members of Jordanian organizations. The identification of potential barriers to recruitment and selection, organizational integration and socialization, training and development as well as performance assessment from Syrians' perspective could have resulted in the clear identification of HR practices as promoters of integration or sources of disadvantages.

6.5. Suggestions for Future Research

Bearing in mind this study's findings and limitations, the researcher suggests some areas should be explored in future researches. In order to conduct a more robust analysis of the HRM role in Syrian integration and retention, it would be critical to include the Syrians' perspective in future investigations. Putting them at the centre of analysis would allow for the identification of meaningful recommendations and strategies to facilitate refugees' formal participation in Jordanian organizations.

Researchers should also move away from measures mainly developed in the Western countries, and adopt constructs validated in the Middle East. Although some scholars refuse the existence of a "Middle Eastern HRM model" (Mellahi and Budhwar, 2007), due to the discrepancies found in HRM in different Middle Eastern countries, research and practice cannot ignore the peculiarities of HRM in the Middle East.

It is hoped that the present work may trigger additional research, with a view to develop theoretical models and frameworks as well as empirical analysis, and provide practical recommendations to help HR professionals maximizing Jordanian and Syrian workers' potential.

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Appendices

Appendix A: The Study Covering Letter and Questionnaire in the English Language

Questionnaire

Human Resources Management Practices and Challenges: A Quantitative Study of HR Managers' Perceptions of Jordanian Workers and Syrian Refugees in Jordanian Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs).

The present study aims to analyse some HRM practices in Jordanian SMEs and to identify the main challenges posed by the influx of Syrian refugees in Jordan. Below you will find questions and statements related to HRM practices. Please spare some minutes of your valuable schedule to complete the questionnaire, sharing your opinion and true feelings on those issues.

Confidentiality of the information provided will be ensured since it will be used only for my PhD research entitled "Human Resources Management Practices and Challenges: A Quantitative Study of HR Managers' Perceptions of Jordanian Workers and Syrian Refugees in Jordanian Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs).".

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Part A: General Information

Please mark (✓) at the box that reflects your answer.

1. Your age :

- ☐ 1) 18-30
- ☐ 2) 31-40
- ☐ 3) 41-50
- ☐ 4) 51-60
- 5) 61 or more

2. Your Gender

- ☐ 1) Male
- ☐ 2) Female

3. How long have you been working for this organization?

- ☐ 1) Less than one year
- ☐ 2) 1-5
- ☐ 3) 6-10
- ☐ 4) 11-15
- ☐ 5) 16-20
- 6) 21 or more

4. Your education level:

- ☐ 1) High school
- ☐ 2) Community/technical college
- ☐ 3) Bachelor
- ☐ 4) Master
- ☐ 5) PhD or equivalent

☐ 6) Other. Please specify:_____

5. Please indicate the size/category of your organization:

- 1) Micro enterprise: 1-4 employees
- 2) Small enterprise: 5-19 employees
- 3) Medium-sized enterprise: 20-99 employees
- 4) Large enterprise: 100 employees or more

6. Your job title: _____

General manager 1

HR manager 2

Staff Officer 3

PR officer 4

7. Does this organization have a specific Human Resources department?

- 1) Yes
- 2) No

a. If you have answered 'No', please indicate the department responsible for
HRM

**8. Please indicate the number of Syrian workers currently employed in this
organization:**

_____ employees.

Part B. Recruitment and Selection 'R&S'

This section intends to analyze the hiring process of Jordanian and Syrian workers and to identify some recruitment and selection challenges faced by the organization.

1. Which source does the HR department adopt to recruit employees?

- 1) Mostly internal
- 2) Mostly external
- 3) Both

2. The recruitment and selection process

Read each of the following sentences about the recruitment and selection process in your organization and select the number that better reflects your answer using the following scale:

1. Strongly Disagree; 2. Disagree; 3. Neutral; 4. Agree; 5. Strongly Agree

Job analysis (job description and job specification) is an integral part of the overall recruitment process.	1	2	3	4	5
When seeking to fill any vacancy, the organization considers the internal candidates that could be promoted to the available post.	1	2	3	4	5
The recruitment process provides a large and adequate pool of applicants.	1	2	3	4	5
When assessing present and future needs, the changes in the external environment (e.g. economics, social or political crises) are taken into account.	1	2	3	4	5
The recruitment process follows the principles of transparency and equity.	1	2	3	4	5
The recruitment process follows the principles of fairness.					
Discrimination (on the basis of gender, age, religion, nationality etc.) is likely to happen at any stage of the recruitment process.	1	2	3	4	5
The recruitment process is used to promote heterogeneity in the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5
Predefined criteria are applied at all stages of the recruitment process in order to eliminate the risks of bias and discrimination.	1	2	3	4	5

The organization follows specific application procedures to provide equal opportunity to applicants.	1	2	3	4	5
Wasta 'favouritism' is used in the recruitment and selection processes and decisions	1	2	3	4	5
Wasta 'favouritism' is more valued in the recruitment process than qualifications and work experience.	1	2	3	4	5
Wasta 'favouritism' acts against those without connections making it more difficult to get hired.	1	2	3	4	5
Changes in the external environment (economic, social and humanitarian factors, such as the Syrian refugees' crisis) affect the selection and recruitment process.	1	2	3	4	5
The hiring process considers diverse candidates that represent the 'minorities'.	1	2	3	4	5
Selection of candidates is strictly based on applicant merit, competence, experience and professionalism.	1	2	3	4	5

3. Which of the following recruitment methods and procedures are used to recruit Jordanian and Syrian candidates? Please check (✓) all that apply

Recruitment Method	Jordanian Candidates	Syrian Candidates
Employee referrals		
Advertisement in newspapers		
Word of mouth		
Recruitment Fairs		
Relatives and friends		
E-recruitment via 'enterprise's website'		
Recruitment agencies		
Others, please specify:		

4. Which of the following selection procedures and methods are used to select Jordanian and Syrian candidates? Please check (v) all that apply.

Selection Method	Jordanian candidates	Syrian candidates
CV/Résumé review		
Checking references		
Psychometric tests		
Personality tests		
Physical test		
Medical examination		
Individual/group exercises		
Assessments centres		
Interviews one-to-one		
Panel interviews		
Others, please specify:		

5. Main challenges regarding recruitment and selection of Syrian refugees.

Read each of the following sentences and select the number that better reflects your answer using the following scale:

1. Strongly Disagree; 2. Disagree; 3. Neutral; 4. Agree; 5. Strongly Agree

It is difficult for HR Managers/organization to recognize Syrian workers' qualifications and certificates.	1	2	3	4	5
Hiring Syrian refugees is complex due to existing policy and legal constraints.	1	2	3	4	5
Syrian refugees are less qualified workers, which prevents them from getting hired.	1	2	3	4	5
Syrian refugees are not hired because they lack professional networks.	1	2	3	4	5

Syrian refugees are highly qualified workers and therefore suffer from prejudices and rejection.	1	2	3	4	5
Other. Please specify (and select the number to indicate the level of agreement):	1	2	3	4	5

Part C. Organizational Integration and Socialization

This section intends to explore how the new employees (Jordanian workers and Syrian refugees) are welcomed and integrated into the workplace.

1. How does the organization welcome new employees? Please check (v) all that apply.

Information provided and activities	Jordanian workers	Syrian workers
Information pack with the organization history, rules and expectations.		
Tour (of building)		
Introduction to senior staff		
Introduction to line manager		
Introduction to employee's team		
Other events, Please specify:		

2. Integration and socialization initiatives adopted by the organization.

Read each of the following sentences and select the number that better reflects your answer using the following scale:

1. Strongly Disagree; 2. Disagree; 3. Neutral; 4. Agree; 5. Strongly Agree

Periodic meetings are held in order to promote greater acquaintance between employees.	1	2	3	4	5
Religious festivals and national events are used to familiarize refugee workers with national culture.	1	2	3	4	5

The organization allows and encourages informal network relations among employees during the working day, such as allowing them to celebrate their birthdays or having their meals collectively.	1	2	3	4	5
The organization provides a welcoming environment that enables the free and open expression of ideas, opinions and beliefs for all employees.	1	2	3	4	5
Expectations sessions (talking about role/job expectations) between management, local and new employees are held.	1	2	3	4	5
Specific culture training programs are developed to promote respect and acceptance of others.	1	2	3	4	5
Other initiatives. Please specify (and select the number to indicate the level of agreement) : _____	1	2	3	4	5

3. Main challenges regarding integration and socialization of Syrian refugees

Read each of the following sentences and select the number that better reflects your answer using the following scale:

1. Strongly Disagree; 2. Disagree; 3. Neutral; 4. Agree; 5. Strongly Agree

Syrian workers are excluded from the formal welcoming programs.	1	2	3	4	5
The joint integration of new Jordanian and Syrian employees lead to conflict and frictions.	1	2	3	4	5
The organization does not create opportunities to foster personal interaction and ease newcomers' integration.	1	2	3	4	5
When refugee workers enter the organization, the organization does not appoint a mentor (coach) for them.	1	2	3	4	5
Other challenges. Please specify: (and select the number to indicate the level of agreement):	1	2	3	4	5

Part D. Training and Development 'T&D'

This section intends to explore how T&D programs are prepared, conducted and evaluated in this organization.

1. Training and development programs

Read each of the following sentences and select the number that better reflects your answer using the following scale

1. Strongly Disagree; 2. Disagree; 3. Neutral; 4. Agree; 5. Strongly Agree

T&D programs are viewed as a means to enhance learning and as a sharing information process.	1	2	3	4	5
The organization has a specific budget for staff training each fiscal year.	1	2	3	4	5
T&D programs enhance productivity and organizational performance.	1	2	3	4	5
The contents of the training programs are relevant to the changing needs of the jobs and business.	1	2	3	4	5
T&D programs are provided for all employees at the same level.	1	2	3	5	5
T&D programs are based on a training needs assessment.	1	2	3	4	5
Training evaluation is a common practice.	1	2	3	4	5
Measurement and feedback of T&D programs reflect the effectiveness of these programs.	1	2	3	4	5
T&D is not considered as a relevant function that contributes to organizational competitiveness and success.	1	2	3	4	5
Organization chooses employees for the training programs regardless of their nationality and cultural background.	1	2	3	4	5
Training content and methods are poor and not consistent with the organization strategy.	1	2	3	4	5
Training and development objectives are not clear for employees.	1	2	3	4	5
Employees don't implement their new ideas, skills and knowledge after training sessions.	1	2	3	4	5

2. What are the training and development techniques that the organization applies for both Jordanian and Syrian workers? Please check (v) all that apply.

Training and development techniques	Jordanian Workers	Syrian Workers
-------------------------------------	-------------------	----------------

Lectures or Class Room		
Seminars/Conferences		
Team Discussion (group work)		
Role Playing		
Case Studies		
Mentoring		
Apprenticeship		
Web-based Training		
Interactive Video		
Coaching		
Internship		
Job rotation		
Other. Please specify:		

3. Does the organization evaluate the effectiveness of training and development?

- 1) Yes
- 2) No

3.1 If you have answered yes, please indicate the techniques used in T&D evaluation.

Please check (v) all that apply:

Training and development Evaluation Technique	Jordanian Workers	Syrian Workers
Interviewing employees at the end of the program.		
Asking employees to fill a questionnaire at the end of the training program.		
Testing the trainees before and after the training programs (pre and post-test).		
Asking the trainees' managers or supervisors to assess the trainees' learning.		
Clients' informal feedback		
Other. Please specify:		

4. Main challenges regarding Training and development of Syrian refugees

Read each of the following sentences and select the number that better reflects your answer using the following scale:

1. Strongly Disagree; 2. Disagree; 3. Neutral; 4. Agree; 5. Strongly Agree

Lack of employees' enthusiasm towards training.	1	2	3	4	5
Special training programs are not designed to transfer knowledge from Syrian workers to Jordanian workers.	1	2	3	4	5
High turnover rates among Syrian employees prevent the organization to invest in training programs.	1	2	3	4	5
Insufficient financial budget to train Syrian workers (financial constraints).	1	2	3	4	5
Employees perceive time spent in T&D is regarded as useless and as a waste of time and money.	1	2	3	4	5
Wasta plays a prominent role in allocating training programs among employees.	1	2	3	4	5
Other challenges. Please identify: (and select the number to indicate the level of agreement): _____	1	2	3	4	5

Part E. Performance Appraisal

This section intends to explore how employees' performance is assessed and evaluated.

1. Does this organization have a formal performance appraisal system?

- 1) Yes
- 2) No

1.1 If you have answered yes, please indicate the methods adopted within the appraisal process for Jordanian and Syrian workers: Please check (✓) all that apply.

Performance Appraisal Methods	Jordanian Workers	Syrian Workers
-------------------------------	-------------------	----------------

Written Essay Method		
Critical Incident Assessment		
Graphic Rating Scales		
Behavioural Assessment (BARS)		
Ranking Method		
Paired Comparison Method		
Forced Distribution Method		
360 Degree Appraisal		
Self-appraisal Balance Score Card		
Other. Please specify_____		

2. Employees performance is based on: Please check (✓) all that apply.

Performance Appraisal Standards	Jordanian Workers	Syrian Workers
Performance of their duties		
Daily output		
Quality of service		
Key behaviours on the job		
Their strengths and weaknesses		
Achievement of target		

3. Performance Appraisal system in use

Read each of the following sentences and select the number that better reflects your answer using the following scale:

1. Strongly Disagree; 2. Disagree; 3. Neutral; 4. Agree; 5. Strongly Agree

The performance appraisal (PA) standards are consistent with the organization goals.	1	2	3	4	5
The PA reflects the actual performance of employees at all levels.	1	2	3	4	5

The PA system provides all employees with the opportunity for self-review and feedback on their performance regardless of their nationality.	1	2	3	4	5
The PA system encourages open communication between colleagues, supervisors and management through performance review discussions around main key areas.	1	2	3	4	5
PA results are used to determine future training needs analysis and programs.	1	2	3	4	5
PA results are used to determine promotion, rewards, benefits, and guidance for future career paths.	1	2	3	4	5
There is an appeals process in case of disagreement with the appraisal result available to any employee regardless of his/her position or nationality	1	2	3	4	5
PA process is conducted regularly and on time.	1	2	3	4	5
PA is not fully appreciated and employees express some negative feelings towards it.	1	2	3	4	5
The performance appraisal system applies to all employees regardless of their nationality and cultural background.	1	2	3	4	5
The performance appraisal process is a serious activity, not just as 'Tick-the-Box practice'.	1	2	3	4	5
The PA objectives are clear for all employees	1	2	3	4	5
<p>4. Main challenges of performance appraisal regarding Syrian workers.</p> <p><i>Read each of the following sentences and select the number that better reflects your answer using the following scale:</i></p> <p>1. Strongly Disagree; 2. Disagree; 3. Neutral; 4. Agree; 5. Strongly Agree</p>					
Syrian workers' reactions to his/her assessment result are sometimes negative and violent	1	2	3	4	5

Performance ratings of those employees who are able to procure managers special services, favours, or benefits (mutual interests/ <i>Wasta</i> factor) are inflated.	1	2	3	4	5
Local/Jordan employees get a higher performance rating than is deserved regardless of their real performance.	1	2	3	4	5
Performance ratings reflect in part the managers'/raters personal biases such as nepotism, sycophancy, unfairness distribution of the ratings, liking or disliking of the employees.	1	2	3	4	5
Other challenges. Please identify (and select the number to indicate the level of agreement).	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B: The Study Covering Letter and Questionnaire in Arabic Language

استبيان

ممارسات وتحديات إدارة الموارد البشرية: دراسة كمية لتصورات مديري الموارد البشرية عن العمال الأردنيين واللاجئين السوريين في الشركات الأردنية الصغيرة والمتوسطة (SMEs)

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى تحليل بعض ممارسات إدارة الموارد البشرية في الشركات الأردنية الصغيرة والمتوسطة من خلال التحديات الرئيسية التي يفرضها تدفق اللاجئين السوريين في الأردن. لتحقيق هذه الغاية، يرجى تخصيص بعض الدقائق من وقتكم الكريم للإجابة على الأسئلة والبيانات المتعلقة بممارسات إدارة الموارد البشرية من خلال مشاركة آرائكم وتصوراتكم بشأن تلك الممارسات. أرجو التأكد بأنه سيتم ضمان سرية المعلومات المقدمة، حيث سيتم استخدامها فقط في لغايات إجراء بحث الدكتوراه بعنوان " ممارسات وتحديات إدارة الموارد البشرية: دراسة كمية لتصورات مديري الموارد البشرية عن العمال الأردنيين واللاجئين السوريين في الشركات الأردنية الصغيرة والمتوسطة (SMEs) "

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القسم الأول: معلومات عامة

يرجى وضع إشارة (√) عند الإجابة التي تعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل:

1. العمر

- 30 – 18 (1)
- 40-31 (2)
- 50-41 (3)
- 60-51 (4)
- 61 فما فوق (5)

2. الجنس

- ذكر (1)
- أنثى (2)

3. مدة عملكم في المنظمة:

- (1) منذ أقل من سنة
- (2) 5-1
- (3) 10-6
- (4) 15 - 11
- (5) 20-16
- (6) 21 سنة فأكثر

4. المستوى التعليمي :

- (1) الثانوية العامة
 - (2) كلية مجتمع
 - (3) بكالوريوس
 - (4) ماجستير
 - (5) دكتوراه أو ما يعادلها
 - (6) غير ذلك، الرجاء تحديدها
-

5. بناءً على عدد الموظفين، أرجو تحديد حجم/تصنيف هذه المنظمة

- (1) مشروع ناشئ: 1-4 موظف
- (2) منشأة صغيرة: 5-19 موظف
- (3) منشأة متوسطة: 20-99 موظف
- (4) منشأة كبيرة: 100 موظف أو أكثر

6. المسمى الوظيفي الخاص بك

7. هل يوجد دائرة خاصة لإدارة الموارد البشرية في هذه المنظمة

- (1) نعم
- (2) لا

إذا كانت إجابتك في السؤال السابق بـ (لا)، يرجى تحديد الدائرة/ القسم/الجهة المسؤولة عن إدارة الموارد البشرية:

8. يرجى تحديد عدد العاملين السوريين في هذه المنظمة _____ عامل.

القسم الثاني: الاستقطاب والاختيار

يهدف هذا القسم إلى تحليل عملية توظيف العمال الأردنيين والسوريين، وتحديد التحديات التي تواجهها المنظمة خلال هذه العملية.

1. ما هو المصدر الذي تعتمد إدارة الموارد البشرية في استقطاب الموظفين؟

- (1) مصدر داخلي (الأغلب)
- (2) مصدر خارجي (الأغلب)
- (3) كلاهما

2. عملية الاستقطاب والاختيار:

يرجى قراءة كل من الجمل التالية حول عملية الاستقطاب والاختيار في منظمتك، وتحديد الرقم الذي يعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل باستخدام المقياس التالي:

1. لا أوافق بشدة 2. غير موافق 3. محايد 4. أوافق 5. أوافق بشدة

5	4	3	2	1	يعتبر تحليل الوظيفة (وصف الوظيفة ومواصفات الوظيفة) جزءاً لا يتجزأ من عملية التوظيف الشاملة.
5	4	3	2	1	عند ملء أي شاغر في المنظمة، يتم الأخذ بعين الاعتبار المرشحين الداخليين (الموظفين الحاليين) الذين يمكن ترقية إلى الوظيفة المطلوبة.
5	4	3	2	1	توفر عملية الاستقطاب مجموعة كبيرة وملائمة من المتقدمين المرشحين لملء الوظيفة.
5	4	3	2	1	عند تقييم الاحتياجات الحالية والمستقبلية من الموظفين، يؤخذ في عين الاعتبار التغيرات في البيئة الخارجية للمنظمة (مثل الاقتصاد، أو الأزمات الاجتماعية أو السياسية).
5	4	3	2	1	تتبع عملية استقطاب والاختيار مبادئ الشفافية والمساواة.
5	4	3	2	1	تتبع عملية الاستقطاب والاختيار مبادئ العدالة.
5	4	3	2	1	من المرجح أن يحدث التمييز في أي مرحلة من مراحل عملية الاستقطاب والاختيار (على أساس الجنس أو السن أو الدين أو الجنسية وما إلى ذلك).
5	4	3	2	1	يتم التعامل مع عملية الاستقطاب على أساس أنها وسيلة لتعزيز التنوع في مكان العمل.
5	4	3	2	1	تطبق معايير محددة مسبقاً في جميع مراحل عملية التوظيف والاختيار من أجل القضاء على مخاطر التحيز والمحاباة.
5	4	3	2	1	تتبع المنظمة إجراءات محددة لتوفير فرص متكافئة للمتقدمين للترشح للوظيفة.
5	4	3	2	1	يتم استخدام "الواسطة" في قرارات الاستقطاب والاختيار.
5	4	3	2	1	يتم إبطاء الوساطة قيمة أكبر من المؤهلات وخبرات العمل للمتقدمين للوظيفة خلال عملية الاستقطاب والاختيار.
5	4	3	2	1	تشكل الوساطة عقبة ضد أولئك المرشحين للوظيفة والذين ليس لديهم اتصالات وشبكة علاقات مما يزيد من صعوبة حصولهم على فرصة عمل.
5	4	3	2	1	تؤثر التغيرات في البيئة الخارجية (العوامل الاقتصادية والاجتماعية والإنسانية، مثل أزمة اللاجئين السوريين) على عملية الاستقطاب والاختيار.
5	4	3	2	1	عملية التوظيف تأخذ بعين الاعتبار تمثيل التنوع بين المرشحين للوظيفة الذين يمثلون مختلف شرائح المجتمع.
5	4	3	2	1	يعتمد اختيار المرشحين بشكل أساسي على الكفاءة والخبرة والمهنية.

3. أي من طرق وإجراءات الاستقطاب التالية تستخدم لاستقطاب كل من المرشحين الأردنيين والسوريين؟ يرجى وضع إشارة (√) عند الطريقة التي تعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل:

طريقة الاستقطاب	المرشحين الأردنيين	المرشحين السوريين
مراجع / معارف المرشح		
الإعلان في الصحف		
توصية شفوية		
معارض التوظيف		
المعارف والأصدقاء		
التوظيف الإلكتروني عبر الموقع الإلكتروني الخاص بالمنظمة		
وكالات التوظيف		
غير ذلك، ارجو تحديده		

4. أي من إجراءات وأساليب الاختيار التالية تُستخدم لاختيار المرشحين الأردنيين والسوريين؟ يرجى وضع إشارة (√) عند الطريقة التي تعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل:

طريقة الاختيار	المرشحين الأردنيين	المرشحين السوريين
مراجعة السيرة الذاتية		
التحقق والتواصل مع المراجع		
الاختبارات النفسية		
الاختبارات الشخصية		
اختبارات جسدية		
اختبارات طبية		
تمارين فردية / جماعية		
مراكز متخصصة في تقييم المرشحين		
مقابلات فردية وجهاً لوجه		
مقابلات جماعية		
غير ذلك، ارجو تحديدها		

5. التحديات الرئيسية المتعلقة باستقطاب واختيار اللاجئين السوريين. يرجى قراءة كل من الجمل التالية، وتحديد الرقم الذي يعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل باستخدام المقياس التالي:

1. لا أوافق بشدة 2. غير موافق 3. محايد 4. أوافق 5. أوافق بشدة

5	4	3	2	1	من الصعب على مدراء الموارد البشرية التعرف على مؤهلات العمال السوريين وشهاداتهم.
5	4	3	2	1	إن توظيف اللاجئين السوريين أمر معقد بسبب السياسة القائمة والقيود القانونية.
5	4	3	2	1	اللاجئون السوريون هم عمال أقل تأهيلاً وكفاءة ومهارة مما يمنع توظيفهم في المنظمة
5	4	3	2	1	لا يتم توظيف اللاجئين السوريين لأنهم يفتقرون إلى الشبكات والمراجع والعلاقات الاجتماعية.

5	4	3	2	1	اللاجئون السوريون هم عمال مؤهلين تأهيلاً عالياً وبالتالي يعانون من التحييزات والرفض.
5	4	3	2	1	غير ذلك، يرجى ذكره (مع تحديد الرقم الذي يعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل):

القسم الثالث: التكامل التنظيمي والاندماج الاجتماعي

يهدف هذا القسم إلى استكشاف كيفية استقبال الموظفين الجدد (العمال الأردنيين واللاجئين السوريين) ودمجهم في مكان العمل.

1. كيف ترحب المنظمة بالموظفين الجدد؟

يرجى وضع إشارة (√) عند الطريقة التي تعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل

معلومات وأنشطة الترحيب بالموظفين الجدد	العمال الأردنيين	العمال السوريين
معلومات خاصة بتاريخ المنظمة، والقواعد التنظيمية فيها		
جولة ميدانية في مباني ومرافق المنظمة		
تعريف الموظفين الجدد بالموظفين / المدراء الأعلى رتبة		
تعريف الموظفين الجدد بالمدراء والمشرفين المباشرين		
تعريف الموظفين الجدد بأعضاء الفريق		
أنشطة ترحيب أخرى، يرجى تحديدها _____		

2. مبادرات التكامل التنظيمي والاندماج الاجتماعي التي تعتمدها المنظمة

يرجى قراءة كل من الجمل التالية، وتحديد الرقم الذي يعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل باستخدام المقياس التالي:

1. لا أوافق بشدة 2. غير موافق 3. محايد 4. أوافق 5. أوافق بشدة

5	4	3	2	1	يتم عقد اجتماعات دورية من أجل تعزيز التعارف بين الموظفين.
5	4	3	2	1	يتم الاستفادة من المناسبات الدينية والأحداث الوطنية لتعريف العمال الجدد بالثقافة الوطنية.
5	4	3	2	1	تشجع المنظمة علاقات شبكة التواصل غير الرسمية بين الموظفين خلال يوم العمل، مثل السماح لهم بالاحتفال بأعياد ميلادهم ، أو تناول وجباتهم بشكل جماعي.
5	4	3	2	1	توفر المنظمة بيئة مناسبة تسمح بالتعبير الحر والمفتوح عن الأفكار والآراء والمعتقدات لجميع الموظفين.
5	4	3	2	1	تقوم المنظمة بعقد جلسات التوقع (الحديث عن الأدوار/ توقعات العمل) بين الإدارة والموظفين المحليين والجدد.
5	4	3	2	1	تقوم المنظمة بعقد وتطوير برامج تدريب ثقافية تهدف إلى تعزيز احترام وقبول الآخرين.
5	4	3	2	1	مبادرات أخرى، يرجى ذكرها (مع تحديد الرقم الذي يعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل):

3. التحديات الرئيسية المتعلقة بالتكامل التنظيمي والاندماج الاجتماعي للاجئين السوريين

يرجى قراءة كل من الجمل التالية، وتحديد الرقم الذي يعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل باستخدام المقياس التالي:

1. لا أوافق بشدة 2. غير موافق 3. محايد 4. أوافق 5. أوافق بشدة

5	4	3	2	1	يتم استبعاد العمال السوريين من برامج الترحيب الرسمية.
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5	4	3	2	1	الدمج بين الموظفين الأردنيين والسوريين الجدد يؤدي إلى الصراع والاحتكاكات فيما بينهم.
5	4	3	2	1	لا تعمل المنظمة على خلق فرص لتعزيز التفاعل وتيسير دمج الموظفين الجدد.
5	4	3	2	1	لا تقوم المنظمة بتعيين (مدرّب/مشرف/مراقب) خاص للموظفين الجدد.
5	4	3	2	1	تحديات أخرى. يرجى ذكرها: (مع تحديد الرقم الذي يعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل) :

القسم الرابع: التدريب والتطوير

يهدف هذا القسم إلى التعرف على كيفية إعداد وتنفيذ برامج التدريب والتطوير وتقييمها في المنظمة.

1. برامج التدريب والتطوير

يرجى قراءة كل من الجمل التالية وتحديد الرقم الذي يعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل باستخدام المقياس التالي:

1. لا أوافق بشدة 2. غير موافق 3. محايد 4. أوافق 5. أوافق بشدة

5	4	3	2	1	تعتبر برامج التدريب والتطوير وسيلة لتعزيز التعلم وتبادل المعلومات.
5	4	3	2	1	يتم تخصيص جزء من ميزانية المنظمة لتدريب الموظفين في كل سنة مالية.
5	4	3	2	1	برامج التدريب والتطوير تعزز الإنتاجية والأداء التنظيمي.
5	4	3	2	1	محتويات برامج التدريب والتطوير ذات صلة وثيقة بالاحتياجات المتغيرة للوظائف.
5	4	3	2	1	يتم تقديم برامج التدريب والتطوير لجميع الموظفين الذين هم على نفس المستوى الوظيفي.
5	4	3	2	1	تستند برامج التدريب والتطوير إلى التقييم الفعلي لاحتياجات التدريب الفعلية.
5	4	3	2	1	يتم تقييم برامج التدريب والتطوير بعد الانتهاء من عقدها.
5	4	3	2	1	تعكس التغذية الراجعة لبرامج التدريب والتطوير فعالية وجدوى هذه البرامج.
5	4	3	2	1	لا يتم التعامل مع برامج التدريب والتطوير على أنها أداة فعالة تسهم في تعزيز القدرة التنافسية للمنظمة.
5	4	3	2	1	يتم إشراك الموظفين في البرامج التدريبية بغض النظر عن جنسياتهم.
5	4	3	2	1	محتوى برامج التدريب والتطوير وطرق تنفيذها ضعيفة ولا تتفق مع استراتيجية المنظمة.
5	4	3	2	1	أهداف التدريب والتطوير ليست واضحة بالنسبة للموظفين.
5	4	3	2	1	لا يقوم الموظفون بتبني وتنفيذ الأفكار والمهارات والمعارف الجديدة المكتسبة من البرامج التدريبية بعد انتهائها في أداء واجباتهم الوظيفية.

2. ما هي أساليب التدريب والتطوير التي تطبقها المنظمة لكل من العمال الأردنيين والسوريين؟ يرجى وضع إشارة (✓) عند الطريقة التي تعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل.

تقنيات التدريب والتطوير	العمال الأردنيين	العمال السوريين
محاضرات/ غرفة الصف		

		الندوات / المؤتمرات
		مناقشة الفريق (العمل الجماعي)
		لعب الأدوار (تبادل الأدوار)
		دراسات الحالة
		التوجيه/ المراقبة
		التمهن/ التلمذ
		التدريب عن طريق شبكة الإنترنت
		الفيديو التفاعلي
		الإرشاد المهني
		فترة تدريب
		الدوران/ التناوب الوظيفي
		غير ذلك، أرجو ذكرها _____

3. هل تقوم المنظمة بتقييم فعالية برامج التدريب والتطوير؟

- (1) نعم
- (2) لا

1.3 إذا كانت أجابتك في السؤال السابق بـ (نعم)، يرجى توضيح الأساليب المستخدمة في تقييم برامج التدريب والتطوير. يرجى وضع إشارة (✓) عند الطريقة التي تعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل.

العمال الأردنيين	العمال السوريين	
		إجراء المقابلات مع الموظفين في نهاية البرنامج التدريبي.
		الطلب من الموظفين تعبئة استبانة في نهاية البرنامج التدريبي.
		اختبار المتدربين قبل وبعد برامج التدريب.
		تقييم تدريب الموظفين من قبل مدراءهم ومشرفيهم.
		تقييم تدريب الموظفين من خلال ملاحظات العملاء غير الرسمية
		غير ذلك، أرجو ذكره _____

4. التحديات الرئيسية المتعلقة بتدريب وتطوير اللاجئين السوريين

يرجى قراءة كل من الجمل التالية وتحديد الرقم الذي يعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل باستخدام المقياس التالي:

1. لا أوافق بشدة 2. غير موافق 3. محايد 4. أوافق 5. أوافق بشدة

5	4	3	2	1	قلة حماس الموظفين نحو التدريب.
5	4	3	2	1	برامج التدريب والتطوير ليست مصممة لنقل المعرفة من العمال السوريين إلى العمال الأردنيين.
5	4	3	2	1	ارتفاع معدل دوران الموظفين السوريين يمنع المنظمة من الاستثمار في برامج التدريب الخاصة بهم.
5	4	3	2	1	عدم وجود ميزانية مالية كافية مخصصة لتدريب العمال السوريين (قيود مالية)

5	4	3	2	1	يعتبر الموظفون أن الوقت الذي يقضونه في البرامج التدريبية غير مفيد و مضيعة للوقت والمال.
5	4	3	2	1	تلعب الوساطة دورا بارزا في تخصيص البرامج التدريبية بين الموظفين.
5	4	3	2	1	تحديات أخرى. يرجى تحديد ها (مع تحديد الرقم الذي يعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل.

القسم الخامس: تقييم الأداء

يهدف هذا القسم إلى البحث في كيفية تقييم أداء الموظفين العاملين في المنظمة

1. هل تتبع هذه المنظمة نظام تقييم أداء رسمي للموظفين العاملين لديها؟

- 1) نعم
- 2) لا

1.1 إذا كانت إجابتك في السؤال السابق بـ (نعم)، يرجى الإشارة إلى الطرق المعتمدة ضمن عملية تقييم الأداء للعمال الأردنيين والسوريين: يرجى وضع إشارة (√) عند الطريقة التي تعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل

العمال الأردنيين	العمال السوريين	طرق تقييم الأداء
		طريقة المقالة المكتوبة
		طريقة تقييم احداث معينة
		جداول التقييم البياني
		التقييم السلوكي
		طريقة التصنيف
		طريقة المقارنة
		طريقة التوزيع القسري
		تقييم 360 درجة
		التقييم الذاتي
		غير ذلك، ارجو ذكرها _____

2. على ماذا يعتمد تقييم أداء كلاً من الموظفين الأردنيين والسوريين؟ يرجى وضع إشارة (√) عند الطريقة التي تعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل.

العمال الأردنيين	العمال السوريين	معايير تقييم الأداء
		أداء واجباتهم الموكلة إليهم
		قياس الانتاج اليومي
		جودة الخدمة المقدمة للمستهلكين
		السلوكيات الرئيسية في مكان العمل
		نقاط القوة والضعف لدى الموظفين
		تحقيق / إنجاز الوحدات المستهدفة

3. نظام تقييم أداء الموظفين الذي يتم تطبيقه في المنظمة

يرجى قراءة كل من الجمل التالية، وتحديد الرقم الذي يعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل باستخدام المقياس التالي:

1. لا أوافق بشدة 2. غير موافق 3. محايد 4. أوافق 5. أوافق بشدة

5	4	3	2	1	معايير تقييم الأداء تتفق مع أهداف المنظمة.
5	4	3	2	1	يعكس نظام تقييم الأداء الأداء الفعلي للموظفين على جميع المستويات.
5	4	3	2	1	يوفر نظام تقييم الأداء الفرصة لجميع الموظفين المراجعة الذاتية وردود الفعل على أدائهم بغض النظر عن جنسيتهم.
5	4	3	2	1	يشجع نظام تقييم الأداء التواصل المفتوح بين الزملاء، المشرفين، المدراء من خلال عقد جلسات مناقشات لمراجعة الأداء حول المجالات الرئيسية.
5	4	3	2	1	تستخدم نتائج تقييم الأداء لتحديد برامج التدريب المستقبلية.
5	4	3	2	1	تستخدم نتائج تقييم الأداء لتحديد الترفيات والمكافآت والمزايا للمسارات الوظيفية المستقبلية لكافة الموظفين العاملين في المنظمة.
5	4	3	2	1	يتم السماح بالإعتراض على نتيجة تقييم الأداء في حال عدم الاتفاق مع نتيجة التقييم وذلك لأي موظف بغض النظر عن موقعه الوظيفي أو جنسيته.
5	4	3	2	1	يتم إجراء عملية تقييم الأداء بشكل منتظم وفي الوقت المحدد.
5	4	3	2	1	عملية تقييم الأداء ليست محل تقدير واهتمام من قبل الموظفين حيث يعربون عن بعض المشاعر السلبية تجاهها.
5	4	3	2	1	يتم تطبيق نظام تقييم أداء الموظفين على جميع الموظفين بغض النظر عن جنسيتهم وخلفيتهم الثقافية.
5	4	3	2	1	يتم التعامل مع عملية تقييم الأداء بشكل جدي من قبل المدراء / المقيمين، وليس فقط كممارسة إدارية روتينية.
5	4	3	2	1	أهداف عملية تقييم الأداء واضحة لجميع الموظفين.

4. التحديات الرئيسية المتعلقة بتقييم أداء العمال السوريين.

يرجى قراءة كل من الجمل التالية، وتحديد الرقم الذي يعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل باستخدام المقياس التالي:

1. لا أوافق بشدة 2. غير موافق 3. محايد 4. أوافق 5. أوافق بشدة

5	4	3	2	1	ردود أفعال العمال السوريين تكون أحياناً سلبية وعنفية اتجاه نتيجة تقييم أدائهم
5	4	3	2	1	الموظفين القادرين على تقديم خدمات أو مزايا خاصة للمديرين (المصالح المشتركة / عامل الوساطة) يحصلون تقييمات أداء أعلى من غيرهم.
5	4	3	2	1	يحصل الموظفون الأردنيون على تقييم أداء أعلى من المستحق بغض النظر عن أدائهم الحقيقي.
5	4	3	2	1	تعكس تقييمات الأداء -ولو بشكل جزئي- التحيزات الشخصية للمديرين / المقيمين مثل المحسوبية، التمييز أو التوزيع غير العادل للتصنيفات ، أو الإعجاب أو عدم الإعجاب بالموظفين.
5	4	3	2	1	تحديات أخرى. يرجى ذكرها (مع تحديد الرقم الذي يعكس إجابتك بشكل أفضل) :

Appendix C

The Sources Used to Build the Questionnaire

Item	Sources
Part B. Recruitment and Selection 'R&S'	
1. Which source does the HR department adopt to recruit employees?	(Zinyemba, 2011; Iova, Cretu and Nastase, 2019).
2. The recruitment and selection process	
Job analysis (job description and job specification) is an integral part of the overall recruitment process.	(Spector, 1988; Martín-Alcázar et al., 2005; Whiteoak et al., 2006; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011; Sabharwal, 2014; Zinyemba, 2014; Giangreco & Vakkayil, 2016; Ta'Amnha, et al., 2016; Batarlienė, Čižiūnienė, Vaičiūtė, Šapalaitė and Jarašūnienė, 2017; Miles and McCamey, 2018; Iova, et al., 2019; Sharma, et al., 2019)
When seeking to fill any vacancy, the organization considers the internal candidates that could be promoted to the available post.	
The recruitment process provides a large and adequate pool of applicants.	
When assessing present and future needs, the changes in the external environment (e.g. economics, social or political crises) are taken into account.	
The recruitment process follows the principles of transparency equity.	
The recruitment process follows the principles of fairness.	
Discrimination (on the basis of gender, age, religion, nationality etc.) is likely to happen at any stage of the recruitment process.	
The recruitment process is used to promote heterogeneity in the workplace.	
Predefined criteria are applied at all stages of the recruitment process in order to eliminate the risks of bias and discrimination.	
The organization follows specific application procedures to provide equal opportunity to applicants.	
Wasta 'favoritism' is used in the recruitment and selection processes and decisions	
Wasta 'favoritism' is more valued in the recruitment process than qualifications and work experience.	
Wasta 'favoritism' acts against those without connections making it more difficult to get hired.	
Changes in the external environment (economic, social and humanitarian factors, such as the Syrian	

refugees’ crisis) affect the selection and recruitment process.	
The hiring process considers diverse candidates that represent the ‘minorities’.	
Selection of candidates is strictly based on applicant merit, competence, experience and professionalism.	
3. Which of the following recruitment methods and procedures are used to recruit Jordanian and Syrian candidates?	
Employee referrals	(Appiah, Poku & Bamfo, 2013; Zinyemba, 2014; Kanu, 2015).
Advertisement in newspapers	
Word of mouth	
Recruitment Fairs	
Relatives and friends	
E-recruitment via ‘enterprise’s website’	
Recruitment agencies	
4.Which of the following selection procedures and methods are used to select Jordanian and Syrian candidates?	
CV/Résumé review	(Lockyer and Scholarios, 2004; Appiah et al., 2013; Zinyemba, 2014)
Checking references	
Psychometric tests	
Personality tests	
Physical test	
Medical examination	
Individual/group exercises	
Assessments centers	
Interviews one-to-one	
Panel interviews	
5.Main challenges regarding recruitment and selection of Syrian refugees.	
It is difficult for HR Managers/organization to recognize Syrian workers’ qualifications and certificates.	(Spector, 1988; Beiser and Hou, 2000; Hurstfield et al., 2004; Whiteoak, et al., 2006; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011; Correa-Velez, et al., 2015).
Hiring Syrian refugees is complex due to existing policy and legal constraints.	
Syrian refugees are less qualified workers, which prevents them from getting hired.	
Syrian refugees are not hired because they lack professional networks.	
Syrian refugees are highly qualified workers and therefore suffer from prejudices and rejection.	
Part C. Organizational Integration and Socialization	

1. How does the organization welcome new employees?	
Information pack with the organization history, rules and expectations.	(Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Simadi and Nahar, 2009Özdemir & Ergun, 2015; Malik & Manroop, 2017).
Tour (of building)	
Introduction to senior staff	
Introduction to line manager	
Introduction to employee’s team	
2. Integration and socialization initiatives adopted by the organization:	
Periodic meetings are held in order to promote greater acquaintance between employees.	Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Özdemir & Ergun, 2015; Malik & Manroop, 2017
Religious festivals and national events are used to familiarize refugee workers with national culture.	
The organization allows and encourages informal network relations among employees during working day, such as allowing them to celebrate their birthdays, or having their meals collectively.	
The organization provides a welcoming environment that enables the free and open expression of ideas, opinions and beliefs for all employees.	
Expectations sessions (talking about role/job expectations) between management, local and new employees are held.	
Specific culture training programs are developed to promote respect and acceptance of others.	
3. Main challenges regarding integration and socialization of Syrian refugees	
Syrian workers are excluded from the formal welcoming programs.	Hurstfield et al., 2004).
The joint integration of new Jordanian and Syrian employees lead to conflict and frictions.	Hurstfield et al., 2004).
The organization does not create opportunities to foster personal interaction and ease newcomers’ integration.	Hurstfield et al., 2004).
When refugee workers enter the organization, the organization does not appoint a mentor (coach) for them.	Hurstfield et al., 2004).
Part D. Training and Development Section	
1. Training and development programs	
T&D programs are viewed as a means to enhance learning and as a sharing information process.	

The organization has a specific budget for staff training each fiscal year.	(Fitzgerald, 1992; Altarawneh, 2005, 2009; Mathews, et al., 2001; Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001; Magableh, et al., 2011).
T&D programs enhance productivity and organizational performance.	
The contents of the training programs are relevant to the changing needs of the jobs and business.	
T&D programs are provided for all employees at the same level.	
T&D programs are based on a training needs assessment.	
Training evaluation is a common practice.	
Measurement and feedback of T&D programs reflect the effectiveness of these programs.	
T&D is not considered as a relevant function that contributes to organizational competitiveness and success.	
Organization chooses employees for the training programs regardless of their nationality and cultural background.	
Training content and methods are poor and not consistent with the organization strategy.	
Training and development objectives are not clear for employees.	
Employees don't implement their new ideas, skills and knowledge after training sessions.	
2. What are the training and development techniques that the organization applies for both Jordanian and Syrian workers?	
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Lectures or Class Room• Seminars/Conferences• Team Discussion (group work)• Role Playing• Case Studies• Mentoring• Apprenticeship• Web-based Training• Interactive Video• Coaching• Internship• Job rotation	(Fitzgerald, 1992; Horwitz, 1999; Mathews, et al., 2001; Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001; Tennant, et al., 2002; Altarawneh, 2005, 2009; Magableh, et al., 2011; Elnaga and Imran 2013; Khan, et al., 2017; Azizi and Khan, 2017; Musselwhite, 2017).
3. Training and development Evaluation Technique:	
Interviewing employees at the end of the program.	(Fitzgerald, 1992; Horwitz, 1999; Mathews, et al., 2001; Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001; Tennant,
Asking employees to fill a questionnaire at the end of the training program.	

Testing the trainees before and after the training programs (pre and post-test).	et al., 2002; Altarawneh, 2005, 2009; Magableh, et al., 2011; Elnaga and Imran 2013; Khan, et al., 2017; Azizi and Khan, 2017; Musselwhite, 2017).
Asking the trainees’ managers or supervisors to assess the trainees’ learning.	
Clients’ informal feedback	
4. Main challenges regarding Training and development of Syrian refugees	
Lack of employees’ enthusiasm towards training.	(Hurstfield et al., 2004; Desiderio, 2016).
Special training programs are not designed to transfer knowledge from Syrian workers to Jordanian workers.	
High turnover rates among Syrian employees prevent the organization to invest in training programs.	
Insufficient financial budget to train Syrian workers (financial constraints).	
Employees perceive time spent in T&D is regarded as un useful and as a waste of time and money.	
Wasta plays a prominent role in allocating training programs among employees.	
Part D. Performance Appraisal System Section ‘PAS’	
1. Does this organization have a formal performance appraisal system?	(Fletcher, 2001; Rynes et al., 2002; Poon, 2004; Abu-Doleh and Weir, 2007; Shrivastava and Purang, 2011; Abduli, 2013; Idowu, 2017).
1.1 If you have answered yes, please indicate the methods adopted within the appraisal process for Jordanian and Syrian workers	
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Written Essay Method• Critical Incident Assessment• Graphic Rating Scales• Behavioral Assessment (BARS)• Ranking Method• Paired Comparison Method• Forced Distribution Method• 360 Degree Appraisal• Self-appraisal Balance Score Card	(Zheng, O'Neill & Morrison, 2009; Lunenburg, 2012; Oduro-Nyarko, 2013).
2. Employees performance is based on: Please check (√) all that apply.	
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Performance of their duties• Daily output	

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quality of service • Key behaviors on the job • Their strengths and weaknesses • Achievement of target 	
3. Performance Appraisal system in use	
The performance appraisal (PA) standards are consistent with the organization goals.	(Tziner, et al., 1996; Fletcher, 2001; Abu-Doleh and Weir, 2007; Shrivastava & Purang, 2011; Abduli, 2013; Oduro - Nyarko, 2013; Na-Nan, Chaiprasit and Pukkeeree, 2017; Giangreco & Vakkayil, 2016; Grochowski and Zwierzchowski, 2016; Idowu, 2017).
The PA reflects the actual performance of employees at all levels.	
The PA system provide all employees the opportunity for self-review and feedback on their performance regardless of their nationality.	
The PA system encourages open communication between colleagues, supervisors and management through performance review discussions around main key areas.	
PA results are used to determine future training needs analysis and programs.	
PA results are used to determine promotion, rewards, benefits, and guidance for future career paths.	
There is an appeals process in case of disagreement with the appraisal result available to any employee regardless of his/her position or nationality	
PA process is conducted regularly and on time.	
PA is not fully appreciated and employees express some negative feelings towards it.	
The performance appraisal system applies for all employees regardless of their nationality and cultural background.	
The performance appraisal process is a serious activity, not just as 'Tick-the-Box practice'.	
The PA objectives are clear for all employees	
4. Main challenges of performance appraisal regarding Syrian workers.	
Syrian workers' reactions to his/her assessment result are sometimes negative and violent	Tziner, et al., 1996; Fletcher, 2001; Abu-Doleh & Weir, 2007; Shrivastava & Purang, 2011; O'Donovan & Linehan, 2012; Abduli, 2013; Oduro-Nyarko, 2013; Giangreco & Vakkayil, 2016; Grochowski &
Performance ratings of those employees who are able to procure managers special services, favors, or benefits (mutual interests/ Wasta factor) are inflated.	
Local/Jordan employees get a higher performance rating than is deserved regardless of their real performance.	

Performance ratings reflect in part the managers'/raters personal biases such as nepotism, sycophancy, unfairness distribution of the ratings, liking or disliking of the employees.	Zwierzchowski, 2016; Na-Nan, Chaiprasit & Pukkeeree, 2017).
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Appendix D

Minimum and Maximum Scores

Scale	Expected Scores Range	
	Min	Max
Recruitment and selection process	16	80
Challenges regarding Recruitment and selection process	5	20
Integration and socialization initiatives	6	30
Challenges regarding Integration and socialization initiatives	4	20
Training and development program	13	65
Challenges regarding training and development program	6	30
Performance appraisal	12	60
Challenges regarding performance appraisal	4	20