



**UNIVERSITAT
JAUME·I**

High Performance Work Systems
analysis at Jaume I and Valencia
Universities. The case of adjunct
professors

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this study is two folded: on the one hand it is intended to shape the high performance work systems (HPWS) theoretical background by having a look at their effects on affective commitment, job satisfaction, performance, turnover intentions and innovation, and on the other hand it endeavours to investigate the adjunct professors' situation at Jaume I and Valencia Universities.

Therefore, a total number of 98 participants answered a questionnaire sent via email which contained questions related to HPWS dimensions (selective staffing, comprehensive training, developmental performance appraisal, equitable reward system, performance-based pay), job satisfaction and turnover intentions. As such, a brief analysis of the descriptive data is provided as well as of the distinct differences in variables such as gender, age, and seniority. Moreover, correlations between HPWS dimensions (equitable reward system and performance-based pay) with job satisfaction and turnover intentions variables were carried out.

Results show that adjunct professors working at these two universities are very dissatisfied with pay levels in their units. However, adjuncts aged less than 30 years old and those who have worked for 2 years at these two universities feel a greater sense of involvement and job security than the rest of the groups. Furthermore, two significant correlations were found: between performance-based pay and job satisfaction, which leads to the conclusion that if adjunct professors perceive that their wages and promotions are more tied to individual performance, they feel more satisfied; and between each job satisfaction item and turnover intention which is conducive to saying that when adjunct professors sense the possibility of knowing people, having influence, job security and job satisfaction, they are less likely to leave.

INTRODUCTION

"I believe the only game in town is the personnel game ... My theory is if you have the right person in the right place, you don't have to do anything else. If you have the wrong person in the job, there's no management system known to man that can save you."

Walter Wriston (Chairman and CEO of Citicorp)

People have acquired a great significance in the process of attaining competitive advantage considering human resources (HR) in a strategic context impelled in part by the development of business strategic management. The rapid changing product markets and the decline of command and control of organizational structures require a progress in the role of HR and a more skilled and motivated workforce that would provide on one side, the speed and flexibility markets need, and on the other side, would create significant shareholder value through the effective management of the firm's HRM system. As such, both theoretical and empirical work claim that there is a strong bond between the quality of a firm's HRM system and its financial performance. Therefore, one of the latest HRM functions within many organizations is to refine and enrich strategic capabilities while managing and outsourcing its traditional administrative responsibilities. The fields of strategic management and HR seem to contribute now to each other's advancement and they are blending into an integrated approach where business strategy may be unravelled in part by employee management issues (Capelli and Singh, 1992; Becker and Huselid, 1998).

This research paper is twofold: on one side, chapter one is devoted to outlining the HPWS theory basis by digging into the concept of strategy, the three different perspectives on strategic human resource management, high performance work systems and their influence into the public sector. Moreover, this paper also considers reviewing the literature in the last 12 years on HPWS effects on five specific variables (affective commitment, job satisfaction, performance, turnover intentions and innovation). On the other side, this paper focuses on an empirical study based on the Jaume I and Valencia's Universities adjunct professors. As such, a brief description about the adjunct professors' selection process, wage and responsibilities is provided. Then, chapter two encompasses the methodology of the study which includes a broad

description and data analysis of the general adjuncts' situation followed by a descriptive analysis based on differences regarding variables such as gender, age and seniority. Further, in order to find out how the HPWS dimensions, namely equitable reward system and performance-based pay correlate with job satisfaction and turnover intentions items, a correlation analysis has been carried out. This section continues with results and discussion. Finally, the conclusion section involves a brief summary of this paper and of the most important findings.

CHAPTER 1 – THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.1. Strategic Human Resource Management: evolution of the field

Discussions of strategy as the effort to influence the behaviour of those with which one is in conflict arose with Schelling (1980). Moreover, the field of strategic management originates with Chandler's (1962) work who focused on identifying corporate strategies associated with product markets that would determine changes in U.S. organizational structures. He defined strategy as the statement of the firm's goals and its policies and plans for achieving those goals. Later, Ansoff (1965) defined corporate strategy as the firm's mission, its concept of business, and the scope of product markets in which the firm participates. Andrews (1971) went forward and described the notion of strategy as being "the pattern of decisions in a company that determines and reveals its objectives, purposes, or goals, produces principal policies and plans for achieving these goals, and defines the range of business the company should pursue, the kind of economic and human organization it is or intends to be, and the nature of the economic and noneconomic contribution it intends to make to its shareholders, employees, customers and communities."(Capelli and Singh, 1992, p.166). Furthermore, when linking strategic management with competitive strategy research, human resources are seen as integral assets of the market strategy because their sole is to serve business strategy and can provide a source of economic rents (Hamel and Prahalad, 1994; Stalk, Evans and Shulman, 1992). As a matter of fact, firms with a higher level of performance are the ones where HR is more allied into the process of strategy formation, Smith and Ferris (1988) claim. As defined by Wright and McMahan (1992, p.298) strategic HRM is 'the pattern of planned HR deployments and activities intended to enable an organization to achieve its goals'.

1.1.1. The concept of strategy

The term *strategy* stems from the Greek word *strategos* which played an important role in military history as well as in areas of diplomacy and negotiation and referred to the role of the general leading the army (Capelli and Singh, 1992).

Strategy is three-folded: it is about decision making regarding the course of one's action and how one manages to get there; it is concerned with the fact that the organizational capability of a firm depends on its resource capability and sustained competitive advantage stemmed from inimitable resources (Barney, 1991); and the third characteristic is strategic fit, namely, the need of achieving congruence between applied strategies and the organization's business strategies (Huselid, 1995).

1.1.2. The conceptual basis of strategic HRM

Having outlined the concept of strategy and its connection with human resource management, this paper will focus on describing the HRM and its subfields in order to account for the origins of strategic human resource management (SHRM). As such, HRM is divided into three major subcategories: micro HRM (MHRM), strategic HRM (SHRM), and international HRM (IHRM). Micro HRM deals with the HR policy and consists of managing individuals and small groups (e.g., recruitment, selection, induction, training and development, performance management, and remuneration) and of managing work organization and employee voice systems. Strategic HRM deals with the HR strategies adopted by companies and analyses their impacts on performance. Strategic human resource management is not a new idea as an elite group of employers in the 1920s adopted innovative HR practices. As such, they replaced the traditional system of management with a different approach that was focused on competitive advantage through unity of interest and cooperation (Lengnick-Hall et al., 2009).

In order to make the distinction between HRM and SHRM clearer, Wright and McMahan (2002) as well as Guest (1997) hold that one of the main differences between strategic human resource management and traditional conceptions of human resource management is the degree to which HRM is involved into the strategic decision making processes. Moreover, Schuler (2002) claims that SHRM focuses on the fit between human resource management practices and the organizational objectives and the implementation of strategy and the strategic behaviour of HR specialists to ensure that the business goals are achieved. In brief, the vital aim of SHRM is to ensure that the company has the skilled, engaged, committed and well-motivated employees in order to attain competitive advantage (Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995; MacDuffie, 1995). As Gould-Williams (2003) claims, competitive advantage is obtained by acquired inimitable socially complex resources such as trust, friendship and teamwork which are paramount components of the production process

1.1.3. Perspectives on SHRM

According to Delery and Doty (1996), there are three SHRM perspectives mapped below:

- a. ***The Universalistic perspective*** claims that some HR practices are better than others in any conditions and all organizations should adopt these best practices. Therefore, Delery and Doty's (1996) hypothesis is the following: there will be a positive relationship between financial performance and the use of internal career, formal training, results-oriented appraisal, performance-based compensation, employment security, employment voice, broadly defined jobs, and profit sharing.

According to Lengnick-Hall, Lengnick-Hall, Andrade, and Drake (2009), the researchers who have contributed to the universalistic theory include: Delaney, Lewin, and Ichniowski, 1989; Huselid, 1993, 1995; Osterman, 1994; Pfeffer, 1994 and Terpstra and Rozell, 1993. Such practices include internal career opportunities, formal training systems, profit sharing, appraisal measures, voice mechanisms, employment security, and job definition. Furthermore, the theory also helps to examine the direct relationship between SHRM practices and the performance of the organization.

The first practice, internal career opportunities, refers to the organizations' option of hiring from within or from outside. Formal training systems refer to the training provided to employees and profit-sharing is seen as part of a strategic HR system. Moreover, appraisals can be based on both results and behavior; the ones focused on the individuals behaviors are the behavior-based appraisals whereas their consequences are related to results-oriented appraisals. Sixth, voice mechanisms, both formal grievance systems and participation in decision making, have emerged as key factors. Employment security disposes of many strategic implications as some employees have a greater sense of job security than others. Regarding the last one, job definition, there are some job responsibilities which are more likely shaped by a well-defined job description than by individual action (Delery and Doty, 1996).

- b. ***The contingency perspective*** puts accent on the fit between business strategy and HRM practices to determine business performance. Therefore, organizational culture influences human resources management practices in that when employees understand and internalize the organizational culture they will choose strategy and behavior that fit their personality and also match the main routines of the organization's activities (Lengnick-Hall, Lengnick-Hall, Andrade, and Drake, 2009). Furthermore, according to Delery and Doty (1996) the organization's strategy is considered to be the primary contingency factor in the SHRM literature. Thus, a contingency perspective requires a researcher to select a theory of firm strategy and then specify how the individual HR practices will interact with firm strategy to result in organizational performance.

Concerning the strategic contingency, Miles and Snow's (1984) theory of strategy seems to have several advantages such as organizational effectiveness, implications for an organization's HR policies, and its usage in the SHRM literature. As such, the strategic positioning of all firms can be characterized by innovation. In addition, Delery and Doty (1996) present their second hypothesis as following: the relationship between human resource practices and financial performance will be contingent on an organization's strategy.

- c. ***The Configurational perspective*** is more complex than the previous ones as it emphasizes the importance of the pattern of HR practices and is concerned with how this pattern of independent variables is related to the dependent variable of organizational performance. As Delery and Doty (1996) hypothesis posits, the greater the similarity to the ideal-type employment system that is most similar to and organization's employment system, the higher the financial performance. In addition, their second hypothesis on this theory holds that an employment system's similarity (fit) to the one ideal-type employment system that is appropriate for an organization's strategy will be positively related to financial performance. As such, certain employment system is better in different conditions.
- d. ***The resource-based view theory*** states that an organization gains competitive advantage by acquiring, improving, joining, and expanding its physical, human and organizational resources in valuable and inimitable techniques. The competitive advantage comes in this theory from the internal resources that are owned by a firm (Barney, 1991; Way, 2002). The RBV is concerned with the connection between internal resources, strategy and the performance of the

organization. It focuses on the encouragement of sustained competitive advantage through the development of human capital rather than just aligning human resources to current strategic goals (Lengnick-Hall, Lengnick-Hall, Andrade, and Drake, 2009). Furthermore, according to Wright and McMahan (1992) resources that are valuable, rare, inimitable and non-substitutable lead to competitive advantage. It is the human resources of an organization that make up the resource that leads to competitive advantage. From this outlook HR practices or HR systems possibly will without difficulty be duplicated by other organizations and only the knowledge skills and abilities possessed by individuals within a firm would meet the criterion outlined by Barney (1991).

1.2. High Performance Work Systems

A new concept has awoken in the last 10-15 years in the Anglophone countries and the term of “high road” approach to management emerged as a result of the competitive advantage that effective human resource policies offer organizations. This approach consists of organizations competing especially on quality, and rely on human resource development and employee contributions to succeed in this. The HPWS notion arose due to the prominent discussions of high-road approaches, in which innovative human resource management practices is used in “bundles” or combinations which obtain benefits through and interacting and reinforcing impact (Huselid, 1995; Ramsay, Scholarios, and Harley, 2000; Boxall and Macky, 2009). Bundling is seen as an issue of design within the components of an HR system: making training consistent with a change to selfdirected teams, for example. More broadly conceived, it entails complementarity between changes in HR systems and other strategic changes in the workplace or productive unit: for example, moving to a high-involvement HR model because management is making a major investment in advanced technology in the workplace, which will not realise its potential unless operating workers are more highly engaged in technical problem solving (Boxall and Macky, 2009).

HPWS has been given several denominations such as: high-involvement management (HIM) reducing turnover, absenteeism and costs through a reduction in the need for control and monitoring or high-commitment management (HCM) concentrating on the enhanced opportunities for employees to take initiatives, arising from their empowerment to take productive decisions (Ramsay, Scholarios, and Harley, 2000).

Moreover, psychological links between organizational and employee goals are developed by “high commitment” HR systems as these “high commitment” practices are endeavored to enhance commitment in employees who can achieve organizational goals by being trustful and discrete (Arthur, 1994). As such, these models have a great impact on employees’ attitude and behaviour and a much bigger effect on organizational performance than on individual practices especially in the case of internal fit which has been briefly explained above (Gould-Williams, 2003).

1.2.1. High Performance Work Practices

These practices have been defined in various ways, but generally include three dimensions: high relative skill requirements, job designed to provide the opportunities to use those skills in teams or in collaboration with other workers, and an innovative structure to induce to use discretionary effort.

Arthur (1992) mentioned the following practices that enhance the organisational performance: broadly defined jobs, employee participation, incentive pay, employee stock ownership, information sharing, empowerment, employment security, training and skill development, wage compression and promotion from within.

Moreover, Osterman (1994) showed that the following innovative work practices resulted in productivity gains for all American organization: team working, job rotation, quality circle, and training.

More human resource practices for managing people results in high performance are pointed out by Pfeffer (1999): employment security, selective hiring, team working, performance-related pay, training and development, egalitarianism and information sharing. These practices are thought to be conducive to enhanced performance as they foster arbitrary effort of individual workers (Gould-Williams, 2003).

Macduffie (1995) proposed that the bundles of following people management practices resulted in productivity gains: work teams, problems solving groups, employee suggestions, job rotation, recruitment intensity, contingent compensation, training of new employee, and training of experienced employee.

A study by Huselid (1995) used the following factors to represent 'Sophistication' in human resource practices or otherwise termed as High Performance human resource practices:

- Formal information sharing process.
- Perform job analysis.

- Fill non-entry level positions from within,
- Attitude survey on regular basis.
- Quality of work life / Quality Circle.
- Incentive Programmes (such as profit sharing, employee stock ownership etc.)
- Formal complaint Resolution process.
- Spend time training.
- Base decisions (eg. Promotion) on merit not just on seniority and
- Performance appraisal tied to compensation decisions

In general, the practices identified by Pfeffer (1994), Osterman (1994), and Huselid (1995) have been termed as “best practices” or high performance human resource practices.

1.2.2. HPWS in the public sector

Most of the research between HR practices and organizational performance arises in US private sector and recent evidence is emerging the UK focusing on a single branch, namely schools, healthcare, or local government and shades light on a single type of HRM development, such as performance-related pay or team organization. Therefore, the dominant sector for these practices has remained the private sector which suggests that there is a lack of research conducted in public-sector organizations (Gould-Williams, 2003; White and Bryson, 2018; Arthur, 1994).

People management in the public sector is based on some distinctive features such as “paternalism” with an accent on welfare provision and staff wellbeing, collectivism, with acceptance of high union density, and a conscious seeking to be “model employers” (White and Bryson, 2018). As such, the concern for efficiency or the drive to reduce labour costs have not been fostered by these characteristics and apparently change is being driven forward by some external political pressure by adopting private sector approaches to HRM (Gould-Williams, 2004).

According to Krujis (2011), one of the exceptions of the public sector research seems to be the research of Boselie (2010) who investigated the effect on HPWS on affective commitment and organizational citizenship behavior within a Dutch hospital. He found that HPWS have a positive effect on affective commitment and participation. He also investigated HPWS that foster motivation based on the scale of the wage, the fairness of pay and pay for performance. As Krujis (2011) mentions, Boselie (2010) did not find any significant relationship that could be explained by the fact that pay systems

are institutionalized through collective bargaining agreements and legislation in The Netherlands.

Moreover, superior performance can be achieved in public organizations as high commitment HR practices and trust are involved. The bundle of high commitment influence trust systems in a positive and significant way which indicates that there is a whole of interpersonal trust in the organization. More positive effects of HPWS are on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, effort and organizational performance (Gould-Williams, 2003). Furthermore, Kruijs (2011) holds that considering the specific variables, satisfaction which is related to employee attitudes is the one that has the greatest influence on job satisfaction, and that motivation, extrinsic workplace attributes such as higher pay, promotion prospects and job security, as well as intrinsic workplace attributes (autonomous job) are all positively and significantly related to job satisfaction.

Regarding school performance research, Bryson (2018) argues that there has been almost inexistent outside the USA. Nevertheless, HPWS have a positive effect on school performance, especially from intensified recruitment/selection and training practices but these practices have not an impact on pay-for-performance practices. In addition, concerning healthcare organizations there is a research gap that is going to be filled. For instance, qualitative investigations have been carried out in order to find out how nurses conceptualize HPWS (Bryson, 2018).

1.2.3. Literature review on HPWSs effects

This paper is also taking a look at the HPWS effects on affective commitment, performance, turnover intentions, job satisfaction, and innovation in the last 12 years. Therefore, a table is provided with the most relevant research.

	YEAR	AUTHORS
AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT	2007-2019	Chuan-Wu&Chaturvedi (2009); Mao, Song & Han (2013); Zhang,Fan & Zhu (2014); Riaz & Mahmood (2017); Rana & Javed (2017)
PERFORMANCE	2007-2019	Martín-Tapia et al. (2009); Liao et al. (2009); Wei & Lau (2010); Messersmith & Guthrie (2010); Chi & Lin (2011); Razouk (2011); Seong (2011); Rabl et al. (2014); Shen et al. (2014); Pascual Ivars & Comeche Martínez (2015); Riaz (2016);
TURNOVER (INTENTIONS)	2007-2019	Yalabik et al. (2008); Guthrie et al. (2009); Jensen, Patel & Messersmith (2013); Selden, Schimmoeller & Thompson (2013); Ang et al. (2013); Pichler et al. (2014); García-Chas, Neira-Fontela & Castro-Casal (2014)
JOB SATISFACTION	2007-2019	Lingard et al. (2007); Chuan-Wu & Chaturvedi (2009); Wood & Menezes (2011); Mao, Song & Han (2013);

		Giannikis & Nikandrou (2013); Ang et al. (2013); Ashill (2013); Choi & Pyo-Lee (2013); Yanadori, Van & Jaarsveld (2014); Fan et al. (2014); Huang et al. (2015); Heffernan & Dundon (2016); Chowhan, Zeytinoglu & Cooke (2016); Rana & Javed (2017); Huang, Ma & Meng (2018);
INNOVATION	2007-2019	Fu et al. (2015); Zhou, Fan & Son (2019)

Each variable's most relevant research contribution will be briefly outlined below as continues.

1.2.3.1. *Affective commitment*

The primary purpose of the following studies was to examine how HPWS affects employee attitudes of affective commitment. Chuan-Wu & Chaturvedi (2009) explored the mediating influences of procedural justice on the link between HPWS and employee attitudes and the moderating role of power distance on the relationship between HPWS and employee attitudes. What they found was that HPWS displays a direct and positive relationship with job satisfaction and affective commitment at the individual level. This finding supports the universal belief that HRM practices directly influence employee attitudes. The mediating results indicate that HPWS will effectively enhance the perception of fairness procedures administered by managers and will eventually increase the level of affective commitment, thereby explaining the social exchange phenomenon. Moreover, Mao, Song & Han (2013) found that employee perspectives of high-performance work systems have a positive effect on both job satisfaction and affective commitment and they suggest that managers can improve employees' attitudes by integrating effective high-performance work systems in their working environment. Even more interestingly, they claim that by encouraging broad behavioral scripts or allowing employees more freedom to apply their skills, managers can improve employees' attitudes more significantly than by encouraging employees to acquire a variety of skills. Zhang, Fan & Zhu (2014) explored the links between HPWS and employee satisfaction with HPWS; HPWS and corporate social performance, as well as the links between CSP and three HR outcomes—HPWS satisfaction, affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). The findings revealed that HPWS led to high HPWS satisfaction, supporting the unitarist perspective that HPWS elicit positive employee attitudes towards high commitment HRM practices. HPWS was also found to lead to a high level of employee perception of social performance, lending support to the view that good management is a driver of corporate social responsibility. This study revealed that HPWS satisfaction fully mediated the relationship between

HPWS and organizational commitment. This indicates that satisfaction with HPWS could not lead directly to employees' discretionary behaviours, but could do so through enhancing organizational affective commitment. Furthermore, Riaz & Mahmood (2017) study focused on examining cross-level effects of manager-HPWS on service performance and service oriented OCB and mediating role of affective commitment for these relationships. The results indicated that HPWS as implemented by branch managers is directly linked with employee service related behaviours (i.e. service performance and service oriented OCB). Along with this, the findings also highlighted that affective commitment mediated the relationship of implemented HPWS with service performance and service oriented OCB. Study results revealed that effectively implemented HPWS by line managers provides a positive environment which enhances service related behaviours of the front line employees. Findings also highlighted that mediating role of affective commitment which transmits the effects of implemented HPWS to service related behaviours. Finally, Rana & Javed (2017) results show that ability, motivation, and opportunity to participate had the potential to significantly enhance organizational commitment.

1.2.3.2. *Performance*

Martín-Tapia et al. (2009) examined the impact of HPWS on export performance. Their findings show that progressive and innovative HR practices can improve exporting companies' international sales efforts. In terms of management implications, they suggest that HR policies and practices associated with HPWS can lead to increased export performance. Nevertheless, they specify the fact that HPWS matters more in some contexts than others and that is subject for future research. Liao et al. (2009) focused on both the link and differences between the management and employee perspectives of HPWS as well as on how employee-HPWS affected individual performance in the service context. They found that although the correlation between management-HPWS and group average employee- HPWS was positive overall, the managerial ratings were significantly higher than employee ratings of the HPWS. From the employee perspective, employee-HPWS had a direct positive impact on employee human capital, psychological empowerment, and perceived organizational support, which were in turn related to general and knowledge-intensive service performance. Moreover, whereas employee-HPWS was directly related to both employee human capital and motivation (psychological empowerment and perceived organizational support), they found that management-HPWS was directly related only to employee

human capital. Wei & Lau (2010) used adaptive capability as the mediator in the relationship between HPWS and firm performance with the aim of understanding how HPWS is positively associated with organizational outcomes. Their results indicated that HPWS-firm performance linkage was partially mediated by adaptive capability and that the effect of HPWS on adaptive capability was stronger for firms in an institutional environment with location advantage than firms in other environments. Messersmith & Guthrie (2010) examined the role that HPWS play in the performance of high-tech new ventures. Their results indicate that HPWS utilization is positively associated with sales growth and innovation. Chi & Lin (2011) explored the curvilinear relationship between HPWS and organizational performance and the moderating effects of the industry type. Their results show that the relationship between HPWS and organizational performance is an inverted-U pattern for high-technology firms and that HPWS is positively related to personnel costs. Razouk (2011) examined the relationship between HPWS and small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) performance using three performance indicators: profitability, innovation and social climate. Their econometric analysis results show that HPWS index is positively related to improvement of profitability, innovation and social climate in the French SMEs. The results of the longitudinal analysis emphasize that the companies which adopt HPWS are not only able to obtain good current performance, but also able to keep the same performance on the long run. Seong (2011) examined the relationship between HPWS, entrepreneurship and organizational culture and organizational performance in Korean SMEs. Their findings reveal that HPWSs and entrepreneurship are significantly related to performance as well as an interaction effect of organizational culture and entrepreneurship on performance is found. Rabl et al. (2014) focused on how the effectiveness of HPWS may vary across countries when considering the role of managerial discretion. They have conducted a meta-analysis of 156 HPWS-business performance effect sizes from 35,767 firms and establishments in 29 countries and have found that the mean HPWS-business performance effect size was positive overall and positive in each country. Shen et al. (2014) aimed at identifying the role of working life in the relationships between HPWS and employee in-role performance and extra role behaviour. They have performed a multilevel analysis using the data from 1,051 teachers and their immediate supervisors in 63 Chinese schools and they have found that HPWS directly and indirectly influence teachers' in-role performance and extra role behaviour through the mediation of quality of working life. Pascual Ivars & Comeche Martínez (2015) analyzed the processes that explain HPWS effect on company performance in SMEs. Their results confirmed the positive effect on HPWS on the performance of SMEs. Riaz (2016) examined the impact of HPWS on

organizational performance in 17 manufacturing and service organizations which confirmed the significance of association of implemented and perceived HPWS with managerial and employee rated organizational performance.

1.2.3.3. *Turnover intentions*

Yalabik et al. (2008) examined the impact of HPWS on both voluntary and involuntary organizational turnover rates in both locally owned companies in United States and subsidiaries of multinational corporations in Korea, Taiwan, Singapore, and Thailand. They claim their findings to be consistent with U.S.-based studies and HPWS were found to be more effective in reducing turnover in locally owned companies than in subsidiaries of Western and Japanese multinational companies. Moreover, Guthrie et al. (2009) describe a study examining the relative effectiveness of HPWS in the Irish context. Results suggest that greater use of high performance work systems is associated with positive human resource and organizational outcomes. Specifically, firms utilizing higher levels of HPWS tend to have lower rates of employee absenteeism and voluntary turnover along with higher labor productivity and lower labor costs. In addition, the relationship among HPWS, job control, employee anxiety, role overload, and turnover intentions was examined in Jensen, Patel & Messersmith (2013) study. The results of their analysis suggest that there is a significant interaction between employee perceptions of HPWS utilization and job control on both role overload and anxiety and also that anxiety and role overload partially mediate the relationship between the interaction of HPWS perceptions and job control on turnover intentions. Another interesting study was done on the influence of HPWS on voluntary turnover of new hires in US state governments by Selden, Schimmoeller & Thompson (2013). Their findings suggest that practices associated with HPWS influence turnover of new hires. State governments that operate centralized college recruiting programs, pay higher salaries, offer pay for performance incentives, award group bonuses, invest more in training, and allow job rotation lose significantly fewer new hires. Furthermore, Ang et al. (2013) study on the effects of HPWS on hospital employees' work attitudes and intention to leave found that only when management's implementation of HPWS is similar to employees espoused HR practices that HPWS are translated into less intention to leave. Pichler et al. (2014) aimed at developing the independent relationships between HPWS and high-performance work cultures (HPWC) and employee turnover and how organizational gender demography may strengthen or weaken the relationship of HPWS to turnover. They found that HPWS and HPWC are associated with lower turnover, though the

relationship between HPWC and turnover was stronger. Results also indicate that HPWS are more strongly related to lower turnover among organizations that employ relatively more women. To add more to this, García-Chas, Neira-Fontela & Castro-Casal (2014) study from 19 different companies and industries found that only job satisfaction mediates the relationship between HPWS and engineers' intention to leave, whereas procedural justice and intrinsic motivation mediate the relationship between HPWS and job satisfaction.

1.2.3.4. *Job Satisfaction*

Lingard et al. (2007) describe the post hoc evaluation of a compressed work week (reducing the length of the working week, but increasing the length of the working day) in a case study project alliance in Queensland, Australia. They claim to be a beneficial impact of the initiative on employees' work-life balance creating benefits for construction employees and organizations. Chuan-Wu & Chaturvedi (2009) argue that HPWS displays a direct and positive relationship with job satisfaction at an individual level which suggests that HPWS foster employees' attitudes. Wood & Menezes (2011) have outlined how the four dimensions of high-performance work systems – enriched jobs, high involvement management, employee voice, and economic involvement – may have positive effects on well-being. They tested the associations between these dimensions and two of Warr's three dimensions of job-related well-being – job satisfaction and anxiety–contentment – using an economy-wide dataset of British workplaces. Their results show that enriched jobs are positively associated with both measures of well-being: job satisfaction and anxiety–contentment. As seen above, Mao, Song & Han (2013) not only found that employee perspectives of high-performance work systems have a positive effect on affective commitment but also on job satisfaction. Giannikis & Nikandrou (2013) investigated the effects of corporate entrepreneurship (CE) and HPWSs on facets of job satisfaction and the three components of organizational commitment. Their results suggest that both CE and HPWSs result in positive work experiences. Employees are more likely to report not only greater levels of overall job satisfaction and facets of satisfaction, i.e. satisfaction with pay, job security, co-workers, supervision and promotion opportunities, but also higher levels of affective commitment. Ang et al. (2013) study in a regional Australian hospital examined the effects on management and employee perceptions of HPWS on employee engagement, job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to leave across four distinct occupational groups. Their findings suggest that only when management's implementation of HPWS

is similar to employees' espoused HR practices that HPWS are translated into greater engagement, job satisfaction, affective commitment and less intention to leave. Moreover, some 2013 studies such as Gibbs & Ashill (2013) as well as Choi & Pyo-Lee (2013) and Zhang et al. (2013) reached the same results: there is a significant influence of HPWS on job satisfaction. The same did Fan et al. (2014) in their study on the impact of HPWS on employee subjective well-being in the healthcare sector. They find that HPWS increases employees' subjective well-being and decrease burnout. In addition, Yanadori, Van & Jaarsveld (2014) examined the implications of employee participation in informal HPWPs for employees and organizations. Their empirical analysis demonstrates that employee participation in informal HPWPs is positively related to job satisfaction. Huang et al. (2015) proposed the critical mediator of employee well-being to explain the hypothesized multilevel relationship between HPWS and job involvement. They identify the significance of employee well-being by incorporating the theories of planned behaviour and positive psychology and provides empirical evidence for the cross-level influence of HPWS on employee well-being and job involvement. Chowhan, Zeytinoglu & Cooke (2016) explored whether HPWS affect immigrant employees' job satisfaction differently than Canadian-born, where HPWS include empowerment, motivation and skill enhancing sub-bundles of practices. The moderation results show that increases in overall experience of HPWS practices are related to increases in job satisfaction among immigrants when compared to Canadian-born employees. Immigrants are a segment of the workforce that is understudied in management. This study identifies HPWS bundles that positively affect immigrants' job satisfaction, suggesting a role for managers to capitalize on job satisfaction improvements ultimately contributing to organizational success. Heffernan & Dundon (2016) data in the study was collected from three companies in Ireland where employee perceptions of distributive, procedural and interactional justice were found to mediate the relationship between high-performance work systems and job satisfaction, affective commitment and work pressure. The findings also point to a 'management by stress' HPWS relationship, suggesting diminished employee well-being, less satisfaction and lower commitment. Rana & Javed (2017) study on employees in Pakistan's insurance industry that was mentioned above focused also on job satisfaction outcome. As such, their examination found that companies that implement HPWS are likely to enhance employee well-being. Finally, Huang, Ma & Meng (2018) used data from different sectors in China to explore the impact of HPWS on employee mood and job satisfaction, and on employee engagement in the Chinese cultural context. With the data from 782 employees working in China's manufacturing and service sectors, this study shows that HPWS are positively

related to employees' positive mood and job satisfaction, and that job satisfaction and positive mood lead to high employee engagement. Moreover, employee's positive mood and job satisfaction also mediate the relationship between HPWS and employee engagement. The result helps explore one mechanism via which HPWS affect employee behaviours and provides empirical evidence for the applicability of HPWS in an international context.

1.2.3.5. *Innovation*

Regarding innovation, research is not very extended. Actually, the most recent one in the last 4 years is the one of Fu et al. (2015) whose primary objectives were to better understand how HPWS influence organizational innovation performance in the professional service context. They have examined the mediating role of employees' innovative work behaviours in the relationship between HPWS and firm innovation and found that there is a positive relationship between the implementation of HPWS and firm innovation. Nevertheless, Zhou, Fan & Son (2019) study focused on how human capital and employee participation moderate the relationship between HPWS and organizational innovation. Their result show that HPWS are positively associated with organizational innovation when employees with relatively less human capital are coupled with more direct voice mechanism or less corporate governance participation. In contrast, HPWS are negatively related to organizational innovation when employees possessing greater human capital are coupled with more direct voice mechanism.

1.3. The case of adjunct professors at Jaume I and Valencia Universities

Adjunct professors are professors who teach courses just like tenure-track professors do but on a limited-term contract, often for one semester at a time, and who are ineligible for tenure. Almost 75% of college faculty are non-tenure track who teach courses at all levels, but they are exempt from some of the responsibilities of fully employed university instructors. They are often hired to teach introductory courses. Among their responsibilities there are: teaching graduates and undergraduates students, developing and managing the class syllabus and ensuring that the syllabus meets department and college standards, planning and creating lectures, in-class discussions, and assignments, grading assigned papers, quizzes, and exams, and reporting students

learning outcomes based on participation, performance in class, assignments, and examinations, and collaborating with colleagues on course curriculum.

Their jobs are not guaranteed and compensation is much less than tenure-track professors. Though adjuncts hold at least a master's degree, if not a PhD, the salary for these positions is relatively low. Many adjuncts must work at several schools at once in order to earn a living in academia. Adjunct pay in state and community colleges varies. For instance, adjuncts at Jaume I University earn 171, 81€/month for a 6 hours hiring, 229, 06€ for 8 hours, 286, 32€ for 10 hours, and 343, 58€ for 12 hours hiring. Instead, adjuncts at Valencia University earn the following: for 3 hours hiring the wage per month is 167, 13€, for 4 hours is 222, 85€, for 5 hours hiring they perceive 278, 54€, and for 6 hours hiring adjuncts earn 334, 25€.

CHAPTER 2 – METHODOLOGY

2.1. Study rationale

This paper focuses on describing the Jaime I and Valencia Universities adjunct professors' situation regarding the way HPWS function in these two universities taking into consideration adjuncts' opinions and perspectives. As such, a description of how adjuncts approached and answered the questionnaire's questions is presented. Then, the objective is to identify the existing differences of adjuncts' opinions in what refers to gender, age and seniority. The third aim is to find out how two of HPWS dimensions, namely Equitable Reward System and Performance-Based pay correlate with Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions.

2.2. Participants

Adjunct professors of Jaime I and Valencia Universities were asked to participate in this study. To encompass a wide array of responses, the study focused on all the departments in both universities, however, the study took into consideration only the responses of those participants who specified explicitly that they were adjuncts professors. This resulted in a participating sample of 124 candidates who completed an anonymous Google forms-based survey in summer 2019 from which 34 did not provided complete answers. This converted the sample into 98 participants whose data were analysed.

2.3. Data collection procedure and measurement

As mentioned above, 124 adjuncts professors of Jaime I and Valencia Universities completed the survey. The survey was conducted by mail and assessed adjuncts professors' perceptions of HPWS, job satisfaction and turnover intentions within the department. Of the 124 participants that agreed to answer the survey, 34 failed to respond all the questions whose answers were intended to be analysed. Therefore, their sample was eliminated from the data which resulted in the final sample of 98 participants. The survey had a total of 34 questions, divided into questions A and questions B, from which the first four, namely from A1 to A4, referred to gender (A1), age (A2), position (A3), and Seniority (A4); from B1 to B19 included HPWS questions related to selective staffing (B1 to B4), comprehensive training (B5 to B8), developmental performance appraisal (B9 to B14), equitable reward system (B15 to B17), and performance-based pay (B18); B19 to B28 comprised job satisfaction questions and B29 as well as B30 encompassed questions related to turnover intentions.

The measure used in this study for HPWS was based on Beltrán-Martín et al. (2008) scale which covers the items previously stated. As in the original scale, questions in our questionnaire ranged from 1 to 7 except some of them which were slightly modified in order to be better understood by the adjuncts group. The job satisfaction items are rooted in Rana and Javed (2017), however, the measurement followed also a 1 to 7 point Likert scale. Finally, the measure used for the turnover intentions items was a 1 to 7 point Likert scale based on Cannon and Herda (2016).

2.4. Descriptive situation of Jaume I and Valencia Universities' adjuncts regarding HPWS

This section is devoted to the description of the Jaume I and Valencia Universities' adjuncts opinions regarding the HPWS functioning in the respective universities. Therefore, Table 1. *General statistical description of the adjuncts' perceptions on HPWS* shows the number of participants who answered the questions (*N*), the minimum and maximum number of answered questions and the mean score for each variable.

Table 1. *General statistical description of the adjuncts' perceptions on HPWS*

Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
A2. Age	98	24	67	44,77
A4. Seniority (months)	98	2	324	90,91
B1. Selection Process Complexity	96	1	7	4,71
B2. Selection Process Length	69	0	2	,70
B3. People Involved in the Decision of Selection Process	54	2	40	4,63
B4. Amount of Candidates Selected for the Job	38	1	20	5,21
B5. Screened applicants	93	1	7	4,28
B6. Percentage Of Trained Employees	71	1	10	4,35
B7. Number of Hours Formal Training	39	0	50	10,51
B8. Training as Cost or Investment	85	0	1	,65
B9. Percentage_Employees_Covered_Performance_Appraisal_System	73	1	10	5,44
B10. Performance Standards Description	79	0	4	,63
B11. Level Of Participation	91	1	7	2,74
B12. Present Or Future Performance Discussions	74	0	1	,20

B13. Payment vs. Performance Appraisal	90	1	6	1,76
B14. Description of the Approach to discuss Performance	88	1	7	2,44
B15. Pay levels vs. other companies	98	0	1	,07
B16. Current pay levels vs. past years	95	0	2	,80
B17. Perceived pay range	96	1	7	5,74
B18. Performance-based Pay	97	1	8	2,28
B19. Achievement	98	1	7	3,55
B20. Challenge	98	1	7	4,63
B21. Supervision	98	1	7	2,71
B22. Knowing people	98	1	7	4,27
B23. Freedom to act	98	1	7	5,02
B24. Influence	97	1	7	3,76
B25. Training opportunities	96	1	7	2,69
B26. Pay	96	1	6	1,57
B27. Job security	97	1	7	3,08
B28. Job Satisfaction	98	1	7	5,50
B29. Turnover Intention1	98	1	7	3,67
B30. Turnover intention2	0			
Satisfaction cluster	98	1,10	6,20	3,686
				4
Valid N (listwise)	0			

As such, on average, out of the 98 participants, the minimum age was 24 years old and the maximum was 67 years old with a mean of 44.7. The seniority, which was calculated in months, shows a minimum of 2 months and a maximum of 324 months with a mean score of 90.91.

Regarding the HPWS set of questions, they were divided into five sections: selective staffing, comprehensive training, developmental performance appraisal, equitable reward system, and performance-based pay.

As it can be seen in Table 1. , item B4 in the Selective Staffing section (item B1 to B5 respectively), which corresponds to adjuncts' knowledge on the amount of applicants that are screened for the job, was, on average, the least answered with an amount of 38 participants out of 98 followed by item B3 (number of people involved in the selection decision) with a number of 54 participants that had clear the answer of the question. This result indicates the lack of knowledge that adjuncts have on the selective staffing process.

In what refers to the Comprehensive Training section (items B6 to B8), only 39 adjuncts approached the question B7 related to the average amount of hours of formal training that adjuncts receive per year with a minimum of 1 and a maximum of 20. This result means that adjuncts are unaware of this particular aspect related to training in their university.

Concerning adjuncts' answers to the Developmental Performance Appraisal set of questions (items B9 to B14), the lowest numbers of participants was 73 with a mean score of 5.44 for item B9 that dealt with the percentage of employees in the department that was covered by performance appraisal systems; item B12 that referred to whether discussions focus on present performance or future performance was answered by 74 candidates with a mean score of 0.20. Moreover, when adjuncts were asked to rate on a scale from 1 to 7 how closely pay raises, promotions are tied to the performance appraisal in their department (item B13), 90 participants got a mean score of 1.76 which indicates that they believe that payment and promotions are not closely tied to performance appraisal. In addition, item B14 which asked adjuncts to describe on a scale from 1 to 7 (1 not effective and 7 very effective) the approach used to discuss performance, was answered by 88 people who obtained a mean score of 2.44 which clearly denotes that they are not happy with the approach and consider it to be not effective.

Equitable Reward System section results, which covered items from B15 to B17 shows that payment is crucial to adjuncts. Therefore, when they were asked to indicate whether pay levels were lower or higher in relation to other firms (item B15 where 0=lower and 1=higher), 98 participants got 0.07 as a mean score and when they were asked to indicate whether pay levels were lower, the same or higher in relation to past years (0=lower, 1=same, 2=higher), 95 participants obtained a 0.80 as a mean score. These data clearly reveals adjuncts' dissatisfaction with the levels of payment in their units. Another interesting result is that, when adjuncts were asked to rate from a scale to 1 to 7 how wide the range in pay across members in their department was, the mean score obtained was 5.74 which signals that pay range is moderate to wide as to the difference between adjuncts who perceive a higher salary and the ones who perceive a lower one.

Performance-based Pay (B18) is another interesting variable whose results are worth reporting. Thus, this item asked adjuncts to rate in terms of salary percentage how closely the pay was tied to individual performance. On a scale from 1 to 10, 97 participants obtained a mean score of 2.28. This data designates that there is very little

correspondence between payment and individual performance in Jaume I and Valencia Universities.

The Job Satisfaction section included items (B19 to B28) related to adjuncts' sense of achievement at work, challenge, quality of supervision, possibility of knowing people, freedom to act, amount of influence, training opportunities, salary satisfaction, job security, and satisfaction at their workplace. As such, adjuncts were asked to rate on a scale from 1 to 7 all the previous items (1=not much; 7=a lot). Results show that adjuncts scored the highest mean score ranks (B28 $m=5.50$; B23 $m=5.02$) when they answered the questions related to job satisfaction (B28) and freedom to act. This makes clear that enjoyment at workplace and job autonomy are two important variables that fulfill adjuncts and make them obtain a greater job satisfaction. Also, the amount of challenge ($m=4.63$) seems very important to adjuncts as they feel more satisfied if the amount of job challenge is higher. Results with the lowest mean scores obtained were pay ($m=1.57$) and training opportunities ($m=2.69$) which indicates that adjuncts are not happy with the amount of money perceived and that their training opportunities are not very high.

The last variable in the questionnaire, item B29 Turnover Intention, which asked adjuncts whether there was less probable or very probable to leave their job in the next 12 months in order to accept a new job offer, 98 participants got a 3.67 in the mean score which indicates that there is less than a moderate probability for adjuncts to leave their current job.

2.5. Descriptive analysis based on differences regarding variables such as gender, age, and seniority

2.5.1. Gender differences

Regarding gender, there are not many differences between women adjuncts and men adjuncts' opinions concerning HPWS in Jaume I and Valencia Universities (see Figure 1. *Gender differences*).

In the Selective Staffing section (items B1 to B5), the most striking difference is that men think there are more people involved in the decision of the selection process ($M=5.37$) than women do ($M=3.71$). Moreover, it happens the same with item B4 corresponding to the amount of candidates selected for the job, men got a 5.83 of mean score against women who thought that there are not many people involved in the selection process ($M=4.14$).

Question item B7, which refers to the number of training hours that adjuncts receive and that is included into the Comprehensive Training set of questions, shows a higher mean score for men ($M=12.23$) than women ($M=7.08$) which indicates that men think that there are more training hours involved along the academic year.

Moreover, regarding item B11 that is related to the level of adjuncts' participation in goal setting and appraisal and included in the Developmental Performance Appraisal section, men scored a mean of 3.00 and women a 2.33. These data indicate that men perceive a higher level of participation than women.

Furthermore, as to the Equitable Reward System section, item B16 respectively, women ($M=8.5$) perceive as more important the fact that pay levels are lower than in the past years than men ($M=7.7$). Nevertheless, when asking adjuncts about how closely they thought that pay was tied to individual performance (item B18 Performance-based Pay), men thought there was more affinity between pay and individual performance ($M=2.53$) than women did ($M=1.90$).

As regards Job Satisfaction, men perceived achievement, quality of supervision, freedom to act and job satisfaction as more essential than women did. However, women considered challenge, training opportunities, and job security as being of great significance. Thus, men adjuncts feel more satisfied at their workplace whenever they witness they achieve their goals, have autonomy to reach those objectives and that during this process they sense qualitative supervision. Nevertheless, women adjuncts need to feel more challenged and secure at their workplace as well as more training opportunities.

Finally, Turnover Intention mean score rank for men adjuncts is 3.87 and for women adjuncts is 3.54 which denotes that women feel less secure at their workplace and have more intention of accepting a new job in the future than men.

2.5.2. Age differences

The total number of 98 candidates who participated in this study have been divided into five categories according to age in order to make data more understandable: adjunct professors up to 30 years old, adjunct professors aged between 31 and 40 years old, between 41 and 50 years old, 51 and 60 years old, and adjunct professors whose age surpasses 60 years old (see Figure 2. *Age Differences*).

After having run the test of multiple comparisons (post-hoc test) and the ANOVA test, the result was that mainly six variables, namely item B11 Participation level in goal

setting and appraisal ($F=4.856$; $p=.001$), item B13 Payment vs. Performance appraisal($F=4.311$; $p=.003$), item B14 Description of the approach to discuss performance($F=4.983$; $p=.001$), item B24 Influence($F=3.532$; $p=.010$), item B25 Training opportunities($F=4.551$; $p=.002$), item B27 Job security($F=2.681$; $p=.036$), were significant.

Therefore, adjunct professors aged less than 30 years old feel that they have a greater level of participation in goal setting and appraisal which corresponds ($M=4.40$) than the rest of the adjuncts(M_{31-40} years old=3.68; M_{41-50} years old=2.10; M_{51-60} years old=2.19; M_{60+} years old=2.00). They also feel more secure ($M=5.20$) with respect of their workplace than the rest of the adjunct professors (M_{31-40} years old=3.59; M_{41-50} years old=2.88; M_{51-60} years old=2.43; M_{60+} years old=3.00).

Regarding the closeness between payment and performance appraisal (item B13), adjuncts aged less than 30 years old scored a mean rank of 3.00 in comparison to the rest of the adjuncts (M_{31-40} years old=2.24; M_{41-50} years old=1.48; M_{51-60} years old=1.31; M_{60+} years old=1.33). These data denotes that younger adjuncts perceive a more linked relation between the wage and performance appraisal than the rest of the adjuncts.

As to item B14 which refers to the approach to discuss performance in these two universities, adjunct professors aged between 41 and more than 60 years old thought that the approach used is not very effective whereas younger adjuncts, specifically aged less than 30 and up to 40 years old see the approach more effective.

Adjunct professors aged between 31 and 50 years old sense they have a greater influence on their work (M_{31-40} years old=4.38; M_{41-50} years old=4.09) than the ones aged less than 30 years old or between 51 and older than 60 years old (M_{30-30} =3.60; M_{51-60} =3.00; M_{60+} =1.67). As such, these people perceive they dispose of a greater autonomy than the rest.

Regarding item B25 related to training opportunities, the groups aged between 24 and 40 years old (M_{30-30} years old=3.60; M_{31-40} years old=3.40) sense they have more chances of training than the rest of the adjuncts (M_{41-50} years old=2.75; M_{51-60} years old=1.73; M_{60+} =1.67).

Adjuncts who feel most secure working at the university are the ones aged less than 30 years old ($M=5.20$) compared to the ones aged between 31 and more than 60 years old who do not perceive things in the same way.

2.5.3. Seniority differences

Four variables have been identified as being significant after running the ANOVA test on seniority: item B11 related to the level of participation in goals setting and appraisal, item B13 which asked participants about the closeness between payment and performance appraisal, B14 that asked adjuncts to rate as effective/not effective the approach used to discuss performance, and B18 which is related to adjuncts' opinions regarding the closeness between the wage and individual performance. Moreover, Seniority (See Figure 3. *Seniority differences*) has been split into four categories: adjuncts who got up to 2 years working for the university, the ones working between 3 and 5 years, 6 and 10 years, and adjuncts whose seniority surpasses 10 years.

As such, adjuncts who reached working up to 2 years for the university think they acquire a greater level of participation ($M=3.42$) and feel their wage is tied to their individual performance ($M=3.24$). However, they do not give much importance to whether the payment is tied to performance ($M=2.12$). Moreover, the adjuncts who are working at the university on a period of time comprised between 3 and 5 years also have a powerful sense of participation in goal setting and appraisal ($M=2.87$) compared to the rest of the variables which they do not see as important. Adjuncts who spent between 6 and 10 years working at the university see participation important ($M=2.89$), but not as important as the ones previously mentioned. In contrast, adjunct professors who have worked at the university for more than 10 years feel more deflated as their mean score ranks are much lower ($MB11=1.75$; $MB13= 1.22$; $MB14=1.57$; $MB18=1.78$)

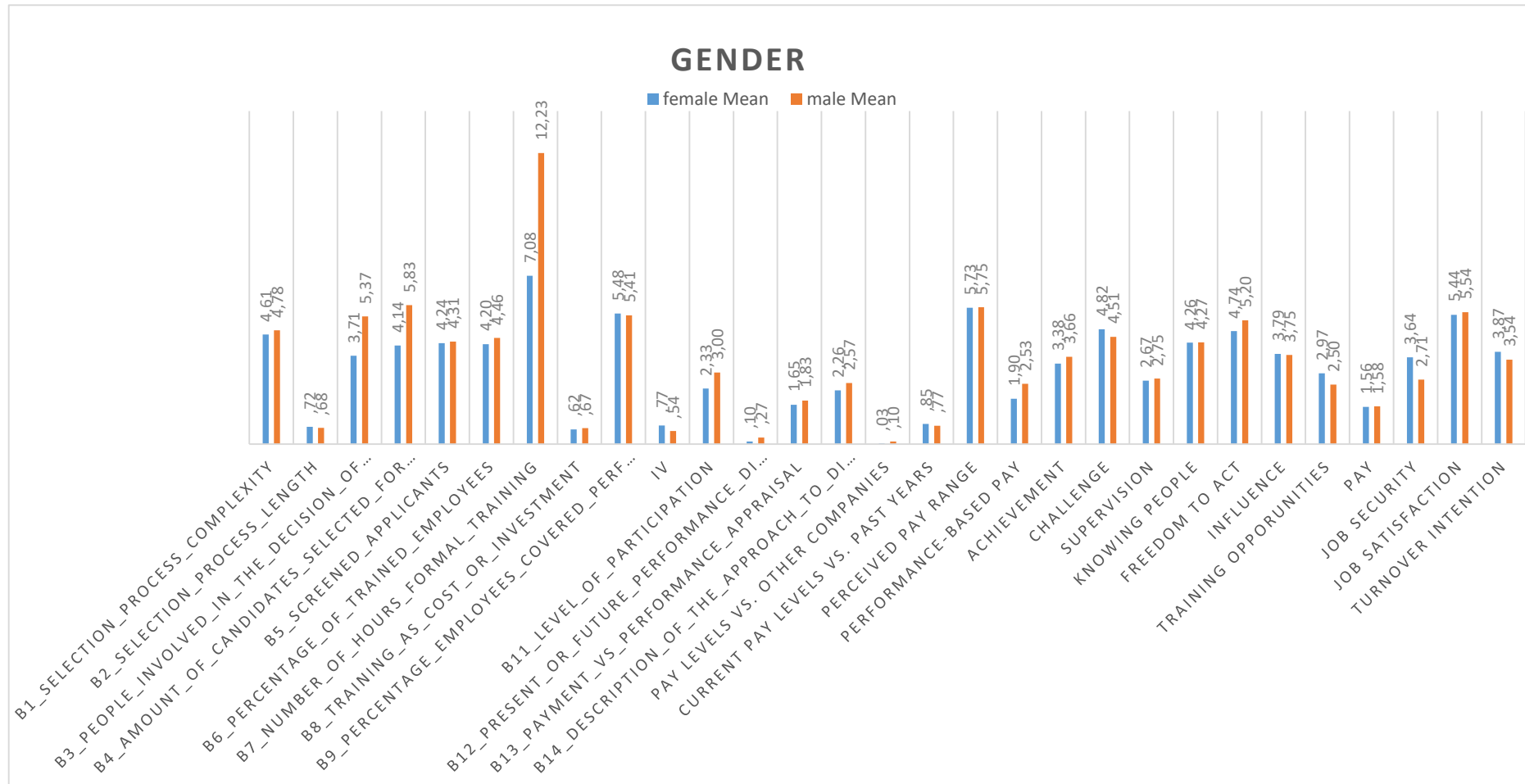


Figure 1. Gender differences

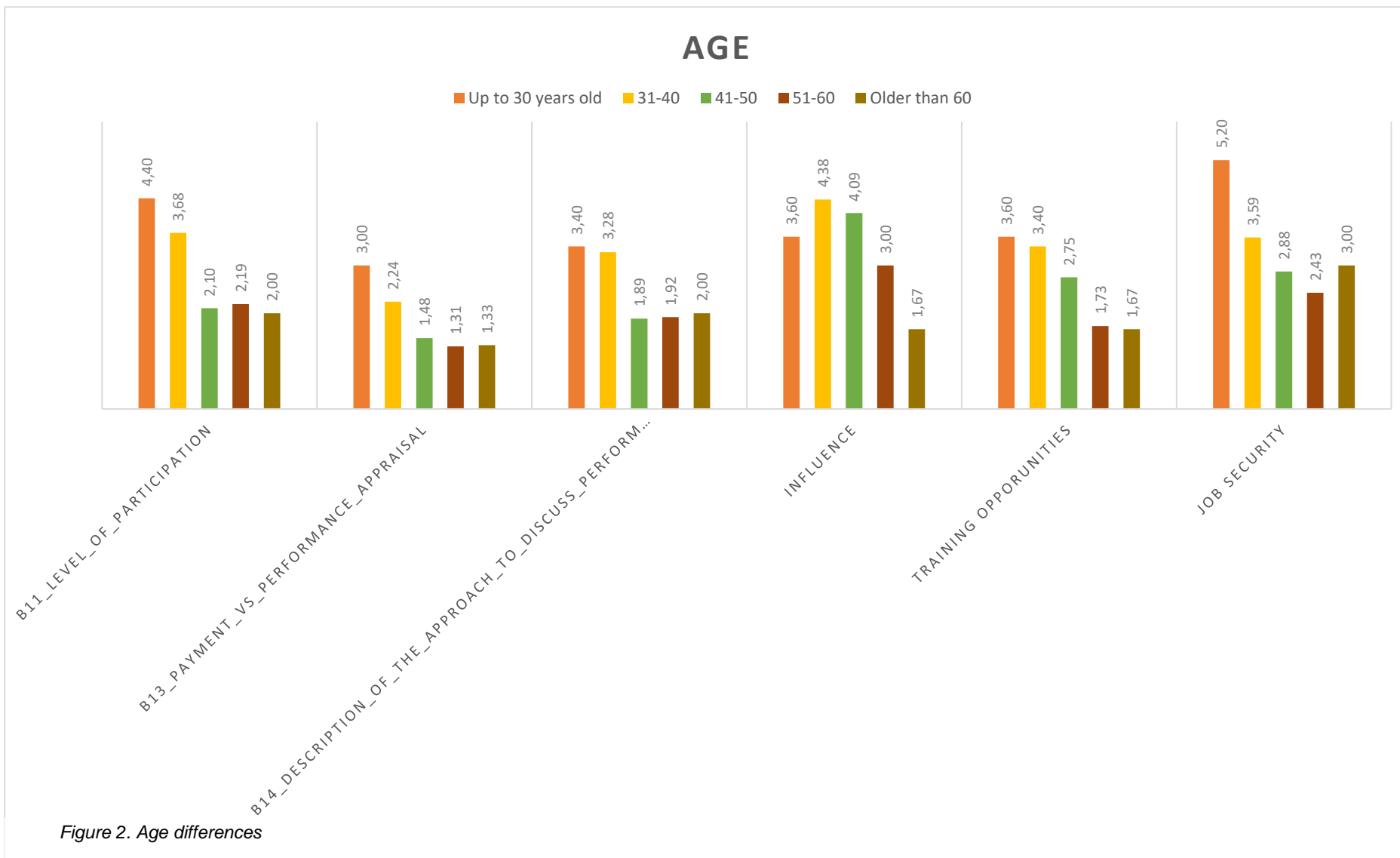


Figure 2. Age differences

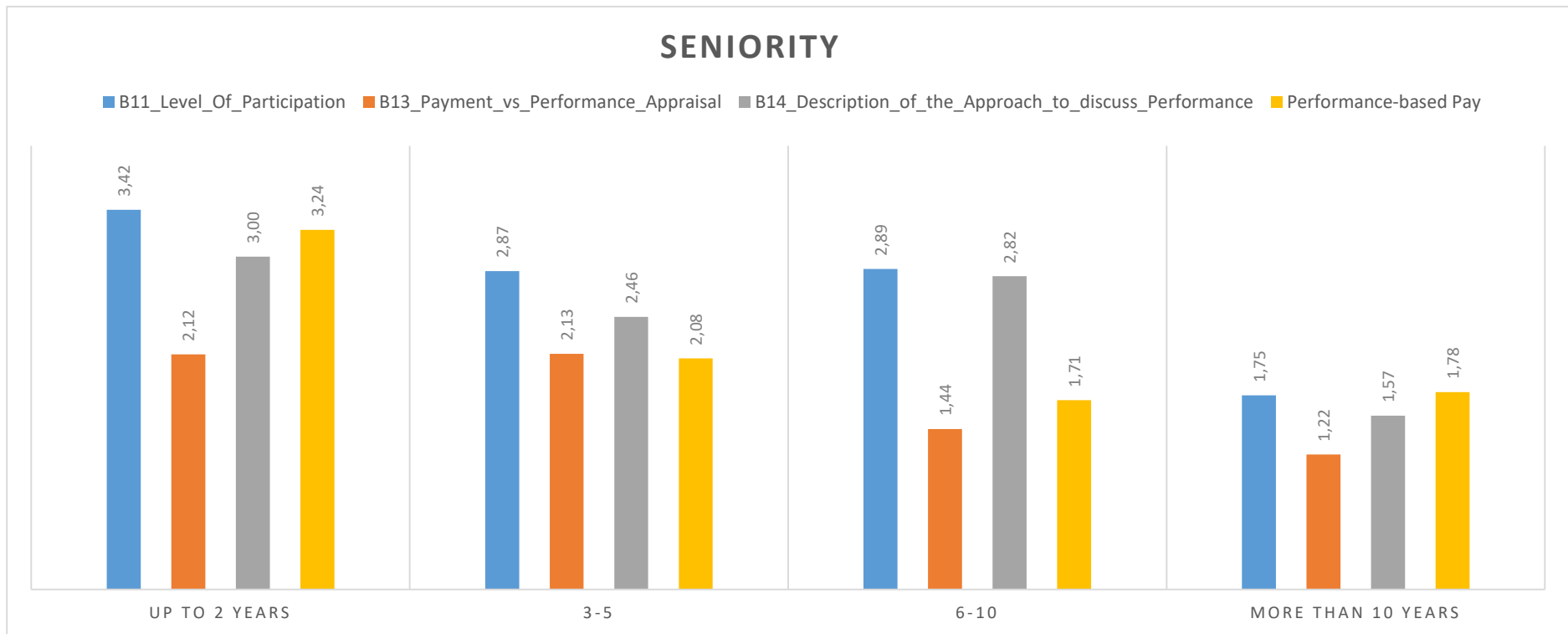


Figure 3. Seniority differences

2.6. Correlations between HPWS (Equitable Reward System and Performance-Based Pay) and Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions items

Research Question #1: Do Equitable Reward System and Performance-based Pay have a positive correlation with Job Satisfaction in this sample?

Research Question #2: Do Equitable Reward System and Performance-based Pay have a negative correlation with Turnover Intention in this sample?

Research Question #3: Does Job Satisfaction items have a negative correlation with Turnover Intention in this sample?

2.6.1. Data analysis

A Shapiro Wilks was run to determine the distribution of the data for the different variables. The results indicated that the Job Satisfaction data were normally distributed and the Turnover Intention data were not normally distributed. With this in mind, I decided to analyse the data for Job Satisfaction items using parametric tests, specifically t-test, ANOVA, and Pearson correlation. On the other hand, I used non-parametric tests for the Turnover Intention data, specifically Mann-Whitney U, Kruskal-Wallis, and Spearman's Correlation.

2.6.2. Results and Discussion

Results related to Research Question #1

First, we carried out a t-test to assess the impact of item B15 of the Equitable Reward System, which relates to current pay levels in Valencia and Castellón Universities compared to pay levels in other companies, on the Job Satisfaction cluster. Question item B15 contained two groups depending on whether the participants felt that the pay was more or less than in other companies. These groups were operationalized as the 'higher' group and the 'lower' group against Satisfaction Cluster. Results (see Table 2. *T-test Equitable Reward System. Pay Levels vs. Other Companies and Satisfaction Cluster*) show a notable difference in mean scores for the Satisfaction Cluster between the 'lower' group ($M=3.65$; $SD=1.05$) and the 'higher' group ($M=4.06$;

$SD=1.55$). However, statistical analysis revealed that this difference was not significant, $t(95) = -.902, p = .369$.

Table 2. T-test Equitable Reward System. Pay Levels vs. Other Companies and Satisfaction Cluster

Group Statistics					
	Pay Levels vs. Other Companies	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Satisfaction cluster	0	91	3,6524	1,05731	,11084
	1	6	4,0667	1,55906	,63648

To continue our analysis of the impact of the Equitable Reward Systems on Job Satisfaction cluster in adjunct professors, question item B16 asked our participants to qualify if their salary was higher, lower or the same in relation to previous years. To analyse these data, three groups were created: those who thought that the level of pay was lower than in the past, those who thought that the level of pay was the same as in the past, and those who thought that the level of pay was higher than in in the past. These groups were operationalized as the “lower” group, the “same” group, and the “higher” group respectively. Results (see Table 3. One-way ANOVA Satisfaction Cluster and Table 4. One-way ANOVA Satisfaction cluster Levene test) showed a difference in mean score for job satisfaction between groups: lower ($M = 2.80, SD= 1.00$), same ($M =3.96, SD= 0.94$), and higher ($M =3.96, SD=1.34$). A one-way ANOVA test revealed that this difference was highly statistically significant ($F(2, 92) = 12.58, p = .000$). In order to better interpret this result, a Tukey’s HSD post hoc test was carried out. Results revealed a statistically significant difference between the ‘lower’ and ‘same’ groups ($p = .000$) and the ‘lower’ and ‘higher’ groups ($p = .046$). However, there was no significant difference between the ‘same’ and ‘higher’ groups.

Table 3. One-way ANOVA Equitable Reward System. Pay Levels vs. Past Years and Satisfaction Cluster Descriptive

Descriptives								
Satisfaction cluster								
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
					Lower	24		

Same	66	3,9571	,93928	,11562	3,7262	4,1880	2,30	6,20
Higher	5	3,9600	1,34648	,60216	2,2881	5,6319	1,60	5,00
Total	95	3,6649	1,09097	,11193	3,4427	3,8872	1,10	6,20

Table 4. One-way ANOVA Equitable Reward System. Pay Levels vs. Past Years and Satisfaction cluster Levene test

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Satisfaction cluster

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
,269	2	92	,764

Moreover, question item B17 was also used to assess the influence it has within the Equitable Reward Systems on Job Satisfaction cluster. As such, participants were asked to give their opinion regarding the width of the range of pay across the members of the respective department. This was achieved using a Likert scale of 1 to 7, in which 1 represented “narrow”, 4 represented “moderate”, and 7 represented “wide”. A total of 96 participants responded to this questionnaire item. A Pearson product-moment correlation was run to determine the relationship between the two variables. Results (See Table 5. *Equitable Reward System-Pay Range vs. Satisfaction Cluster Descriptive* and Table 6. *Equitable Reward System-Pay Range vs. Satisfaction Cluster Correlations*) showed no correlation between how adjuncts perceive the width of the range of pay among members of their department and the Satisfaction Cluster ($r=.000$; $p=.999$).

Table 5. Equitable Reward System. Pay Range and Satisfaction Cluster Descriptive

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Pay Range Between Members	5,74	1,831	96
Satisfaction cluster	3,6864	1,08599	98

Table 6. Equitable Reward System. Pay Range and Satisfaction Cluster Correlations

Correlations

		RS3	Satisfaction cluster
Pay Range Between Members	Pearson Correlation	1	,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,999
	N	96	96
Satisfaction cluster	Pearson Correlation	,000	1

Sig. (2-tailed)	,999	
N	96	98

Finally, question item B18, namely, Performance-Based Pay, was used in order to determine its influence on the Satisfaction Cluster variable. As such, question B18 asked adjuncts professors to rate how closely the pay was tied to individual performance, in terms of percentage of the salary on a scale from 1 to 10 where 1 less than 10% and 10 accounted for up to 100%. The Pearson Correlation showed a positive and significant correlation between adjuncts' viewpoint on whether they thought that there was a concordance between their salary and their individual performance and the Satisfaction Cluster ($r=.497$; $n=97$; $p=.000$).

Table 7. Performance-Based Pay and Satisfaction Cluster Descriptive

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Performance-Based Pay. Pay vs. Individual Performance	2,28	1,919	97
Satisfaction cluster	3,6864	1,08599	98

Table 8. Performance-Based Pay and Satisfaction Cluster Correlations

	Pay vs. Individual Performance	Satisfaction cluster
Performance-Based Pay. Pay vs. Individual Performance		
	Pearson Correlation	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,497**
	N	,000
		97
Satisfaction cluster		97
	Pearson Correlation	,497**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1
	N	,000
		97
		98

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Therefore, this means that the more adjuncts professors perceive that their pay is in accordance with their performance, the more satisfied they are with their job.

Results related to Research Question #2

In order to analyse the effect that question item B15 produces on the Turnover Intention variable, two groups were identified, as previously mentioned in the results related to RQ1: the “lower” group and the “higher” group. The question asked the participants whether they thought that the pay was lower or higher in Castellon and Valencia Universities than in other companies. Results (see Table 9. *Turnover Intention and Equitable Reward System. Pay Levels vs. Other Companies Descriptive*, Table 10. *Turnover Intention and Equitable Reward System. Pay Levels vs. Other Companies Test* and Table 11. *Turnover Intention and Equitable Reward System. Pay Levels vs. Other Companies Test Statistics*) based on the Mann-Whitney test showed a higher mean rank score from the ‘lower’ group ($M = 49.6$) than from the ‘higher’ group ($M = 48.1$), however these results were not statistically significant ($U = 309.0$, $p = .894$).

Table 9. *Turnover Intention and Equitable Reward System. Pay Levels vs. Other Companies Descriptive*

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Turnover Intention	98	3,67	2,143	1	7
Equitable Reward System. Pay Levels vs. Other Companies	98	,07	,259	0	1

Table 10. *Mann-Whitney U Turnover Intention and Equitable Reward System. Pay Levels vs. Other Companies Test*

Test Statistics ^a	
	Turnover Intention
Mann-Whitney U	309,000
Wilcoxon W	337,000
Z	-,133
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,894

a. Grouping Variable: Pay Levels vs. Other Companies

Table 11. Mann-Whitney U Turnover Intention and Equitable Reward System. Pay Levels vs. Other Companies Test Statistics

Test Statistics ^a	
	Turnover Intention
Mann-Whitney U	309,000
Wilcoxon W	337,000
Z	-,133
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,894

a. Grouping Variable: Pay Levels vs. Other Companies

To continue with the RQ2 results, a Kruskal-Wallis test was carried in order to analyse the effect that question item B16 has on Turnover Intention. Therefore, question B16 asked the participants whether they would qualify their current pay levels as lower, same or higher in relation to past years. Three groups were created, namely the “lower” group, the “same” group and the “higher” group respectively. The results (See Tables 12, 13 and 14) obtained from these data showed that it was not a statistically significant difference between the three different groups ($\chi^2 = 5.193$, $p = .075$), with a mean rank score of 56, 77 for the “lower” group, a 46, 23 for the “same” group, and a 29, 20 for the “higher” group”. Although these results are not statistically significant, it can be observed from the mean scores that there is a big difference between the participants who believed that their current pay is lower than in the past and the ones who believed that their pay is higher than in the past. Therefore, the “lower” group adjuncts seems to have more intention of leaving than the “higher” group does.

Table 12. Turnover Intention and Equitable Reward System. Current Pay levels vs. Past Years Descriptive

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Turnover Intention	98	3,67	2,143	1	7
Equitable reward System. Current Pay Levels vs. Past Years	95	,80	,518	0	2

Table 13. Kruskal-Wallis Test Turnover Intention and Equitable Reward System. Current Pay Levels vs. Past Years

Ranks			
	Equitable Reward System. Current Pay Levels vs. Past Years	N	Mean Rank
Turnover Intention	Lower	24	56,77
	Same	66	46,23
	Higher	5	29,20
	Total	95	

Table 14. Kruskal-Wallis Test Turnover Intention and Equitable Reward System. Current Pay Levels vs. Past Years

Test Statistics ^{a,b}	
	Turnover Intention
Chi-Square	5,193
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	,075

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Current Pay Levels vs. Past Years

As mentioned above, questionnaire item B17 asked the participants to rate how wide the range of pay among the members of their department was. A Spearman's rank-order correlation was run to determine the relationship between item B17 and Turnover Intention. There was a slight positive correlation (See Table 14. Spearman's Turnover Intention and Equitable Reward System. Pay Range) between the participants' perception regarding the width of the range of pay between the members of their department and their turnover intention ($r_s=.074$; $p=.474$). However, this result was not statistically significant.

Table 15. Spearman's Turnover Intention and Equitable Reward System. Pay Range

Correlations			
		Equitable Reward System. Pay Range	Turnover Intention
<u>Spearman's rho</u>	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,074

Equitable Reward System.	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,474
Pay Range	N	96	96
	Correlation Coefficient	,074	1,000
Turnover Intention	Sig. (2-tailed)	,474	.
	N	96	98

To finish reporting the results related to RQ2, the adjuncts professors were asked to rate on a scale from 1 to 7 whether the salary was in accordance with their performance, in terms of salary percentage. Therefore, question item B18 related to the Performance-Based Pay was used to determine its influence on the Turnover Intention. A Spearman's correlation was run to determine the relationship between these two variables. Results (See Table 16.) from these data show there was not a statistical significance ($r_s = -.106$; $p = .300$).

Table 16. Spearman's Turnover Intention and Performance-Based Pay. Pay vs. Individual Performance

Correlations				Performance-Based Pay. Pay vs. Individual Performance	Turnover Intention
Spearman's rho	Performance-Based Pay.	Correlation Coefficient		1,000	-,106
	Pay vs. Individual	Sig. (2-tailed)		.	,300
	Performance	N		97	97
		Correlation Coefficient		-,106	1,000
	Turnover Intention	Sig. (2-tailed)		,300	.
		N		97	98

Results related to Research Question #3

RQ3 was devoted to identify whether Job Satisfaction cluster items have a negative correlation with Turnover Intention. As such, a Spearman's correlation test was run to determine the existing relationship between each Job Satisfaction item (B19 to B28), taken individually, namely B19 Achievement, B20 Challenge, B21 Supervision, B22 Knowing People, B23 Freedom to act, B24 Influence, B25 Training opportunities,

B26 Pay, B27 Job Security, and B28 Job Satisfaction against question item B29

Correlations

	Turnover Intention	Achievement	Challenge	Supervision	Knowing people	Freedom to act	Influence	Training opportunities	Pay	Job security	Job Satisfaction
Correlation Coefficient	1,000	-,170	-,117	-,109	-,219	-,162	-,262	-,098	-,070	-,206	-,300
Spearman's rho Turnover Intention Sig. (2- tailed)		,094	,253	,284	,031	,112	,010	,341	,500	,042	,003
N	98	98	98	98	98	98	97	96	96	97	98

Turnover Intention.

Table 17. Spearman's Satisfaction Items taken individually and Turnover Intention

The results show a negative correlation between each variable and turnover intention, which was what was expected (See Table 17. *Satisfaction items taken individually vs. Turnover Intention*). The most interesting thing that was found is that the Job Satisfaction item is the most powerful correlation and Pay is the least powerful. Therefore, the more satisfied adjuncts are, the less likely they are to leave. As Pay is the least powerful indicator, this means that adjuncts do not consider pay as important as job satisfaction.

CHAPTER 3 – CONCLUSION

This paper has focused on both providing the HPWS theoretical framework and also on the empirical research on Jaume I and Valencia Universities' adjunct professors. The theoretical framework included concepts such as strategy and perspectives on SHRM, high performance work systems and practices, their influence into the public sector and a literature review from the last 12 years regarding HPWS effects on affective commitment, job satisfaction, performance, turnover intentions, and innovation. The empirical research aimed at giving a wide perspective on the situation of adjunct professors at Jaume I and Valencia Universities by first describing their general answers on the different HPWS dimensions, job satisfaction and turnover intentions; in addition, a descriptive analysis based on differences in variables such as gender, age and seniority is provided; finally, correlations between equitable reward system and performance-based pay with job satisfaction and turnover intentions are carried out in order to see what influence these HPWS dimensions have on adjuncts satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Regarding the general analysis on the descriptive situation of adjunct professors, it can be said that results related to selective staffing and comprehensive training show that adjuncts lack knowledge on the selection process and the training opportunities that they have. Moreover, most of the participants believed that payment and promotions are not very closely tied to the performance appraisal and they are not content with the approach used to discuss performance which they think is ineffective. Furthermore, adjunct professors expressed their strong discontent when answering the equitable reward system set of questions whose results indicate their profound dissatisfaction with the levels of payment in their units. Regarding the Performance-based Pay variable, results denote very little connection between adjuncts payment and their individual performance. Moving on with the results obtained, when it comes to Job Satisfaction adjunct professors seem to be more satisfied when they perceive more enjoyment, challenge at their workplace as well as job autonomy. Pay and training opportunities got the lowest mean scores which indicates that adjunct professors are displeased with the amount of money they get and lack of training opportunities. As to whether adjuncts would leave their job at the university, there was a moderate probability for this to happen.

Concerning gender, age, and seniority differences results indicate that there were not many differences with respect of gender. It is worth mentioning that men perceive a higher level of participation than women do; with respect to the reward system, women

see as more important the difference between current pay levels and the past ones but men think there is a closer link between pay and individual performance compared to women's opinions. Regarding job satisfaction, men think that achievement, quality of supervision, freedom to act, and job satisfaction are more significant than what women reckon. However, women feel more satisfied when they are more challenged, secure and have more training opportunities. In addition, to what refers to age differences, the most important to mention is that adjunct professors aged less than 30 years old feel more involved into the work process and have a greater level of participations than the rest of the groups. As for seniority differences, results coincide with the previous ones: adjuncts who work up to 2 years for the university think they have a higher level of participation in goal setting and appraisal and feel that their wage is tied to their performance. Nevertheless, adjunct professors who spent for more than 10 years working for the university feel more dissatisfied with regard to all variables.

Regarding the results of the correlations between HPWS dimensions (equitable reward system and performance-based pay) and job satisfaction as well as turnover intentions, only the significant cases will be outlined. As such, results to research question 1# which asked whether there is a positive correlation between B18 Performance-based Pay and Job Satisfaction Cluster, show that there was a positive correlation as expected which means that if adjunct professors perceive their promotions and wages are tied to individual performance, they feel more satisfied. Finally, results to research question #3 which asked whether there was a negative correlation between job satisfaction items and turnover intentions, show that there is a negative correlation between each variable and turnover intention. This indicates that when fulfilled the condition of the existence of the possibility of knowing people, having influence, job security and job satisfaction, adjunct professors are less likely to leave. Also, the job satisfaction item is the most powerful and pay is the least powerful indicator which indicates that adjuncts do not consider pay as important as job satisfaction.

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