creative commons

COMMONS DEED

저작자표시-비영리-변경금지 2.0 대한민국

이용자는 아래의 조건을 따르는 경우에 한하여 자유롭게

- 이 저작물을 복제, 배포, 전송, 전시, 공연 및 방송할 수 있습니다.

다음과 같은 조건을 따라야 합니다:

저작자표시. 귀하는 원저작자를 표시하여야 합니다.

비영리. 귀하는 이 저작물을 영리 목적으로 이용할 수 없습니다.

변경금지. 귀하는 이 저작물을 개작, 변형 또는 가공할 수 없습니다.

- 귀하는, 이 저작물의 재이용이나 배포의 경우, 이 저작물에 적용된 이용허락조건을 명확하게 나타내어야 합니다.
- 저작권자로부터 별도의 허가를 받으면 이러한 조건들은 적용되지 않습니다.

저작권법에 따른 이용자의 권리는 위의 내용에 의하여 영향을 받지 않습니다.

이것은 이용허락규약(Legal Code)을 이해하기 쉽게 요약한 것입니다.

Disclaimer

dCollection

경영학박사학위논문

TOWARD THE IMPLEMENTATION MODEL OF HIGH PEROFRMANCE WORK SYSTEMS

고성과 작업시스템에 대한 실행 모형의 개발 및 검증

2016년 8월

서울대학교 대학원

경영학과 경영학전공

박 종 욱

TOWARD THE IMPLEMEMTATION MODEL OF HIGH PEROFRMANCE WORK SYSTEMS

by

Jongwook Pak

A dissertation submitted in fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Business Administration
in Seoul National University
2016

Doctoral Committee:
    Professor Kyungmook Lee, Chair
    Professor Seongsu Kim, Academic Advisor
    Professor Jin Nam Choi
    Professor Jeong-Yeon Lee
    Professor Joo Hun Han, Rutgers University

TOWARD THE IMPLEMENTATION MODEL OF HIGH PEROFRMANCE WORK SYSTEMS

고성과 작업시스템에 대한 실행 모형의 개발 및 검증

지도 교수 김성수

이 논문을 경영학 박사학위 논문으로 제출함

2016년 6월

서울대학교 대학원

경영학과 경영학전공

박종욱

박종욱의 경영학 박사학위 논문을 인준함

2016년 6월

위원장 이경묵

부위원장 김성수

위원 최진남

위원 이정연

위원 한주훈

ABSTRACT

TOWARD THE IMPLEMENTATION MODEL
OF HIGH PEROFRMANCE WORK SYSTEMS

Jongwook Pak
Department of Business Administration
The Graduate School
Seoul National University

Recently, high performance work systems (HPWS) have been regarded as a matter of implementation. Such trend has emerged because: 1) a consensus has not been reached as to the positive effects of HPWS on organizational performance; and 2) within-organization variability (e.g., decoupling between espoused and realized HR practices) over the implementation phase has increasingly been recognized. However, the review of the HPWS literature reveals that the accumulated body of studies has failed to clearly address implementation issues in its endeavor. That is, the current research is somewhat confined to measuring HPWS within the organization (e.g., unit, individual) and

investigating the effects of such within-organization levels of HPWS on corresponding outcomes. In other words, a systematic approach still lacks examining why variability is observed in the organization over the implementation of HPWS. Indeed, several studies have recently proposed process models of strategic human resource management (SHRM). But, these are, by nature, review studies simply introducing potential factors that may hinder or facilitate HPWS implementation. Therefore, they do not have much to say about *what needs to be done* in order to ensure the effective implementation of HPWS.

To fill such void, this thesis extends the current literature in three ways. To begin with, it is established that the implementation of HR practices is primarily team-level phenomena. Thus, the paper attempts to conceptualize HPWS at the team-level, and directs its attention to HR roles of team managers. It is widely accepted that team managers as agents for the organization play a pivotal role by assuming responsibility of enforcing espoused HR practices in their work groups. In this light, the implementation intensity of HPWS in a team could mainly be a product of the extent to which the team manager enforces HR practices in accordance with intended rules and procedures. Therefore, this paper hypothesizes that team manager’s implementation behavior toward espoused HR practices is associated with HPWS intensity, which is, in turn, related to team performance.

Indeed, recognizing the importance of team manager’s HR role in the SHRM literature is not new. However, a systematic investigation of factors that cause variance in team managers’ commitment in the enforcement phase is rather scant. Here, this thesis draws on theory of planned behavior to explicate team manager’s implementation of espoused HR practices. Specifically, this paper expects that: 1) when a team manager believes that the enforcement of intended HR practices could improve team outcomes (i.e., performance expectancy); 2) when he/she believes that HR enforcement is an easy-to-deal-with process (i.e., effort expectance; and 3) when he/she perceives a strong normative pressure from important others with regard to a rigorous implementation of espoused HR practices (i.e., social influence), it is likely to enhance team manager’s commitment to HR roles, thereby frequently displaying implementation behaviors in an intended manner.

Although theory of planned behavior offers a meaningful framework of cognitive evaluation that determines implementation behaviors, it is still insufficient to suggest *what to do* to improve the enforcement process. This thesis expects that, by exploring HRM-specific situational factors that affect team managers’ cognitive belief, a comprehensive model of HPWS implementation could be put forward. First, developing HR practices in a way that properly match characteristics of teams (i.e., HRM-work compatibility) is

proposed to influence team manager’s implementation of espoused HR practices, and the relationship is mediated by performance expectancy. Second, HR department’s support and coordination over the enforcement phase (i.e., HR department’s facilitation) improves effort expectancy, which subsequently influences implementation behaviors. Third, top management team (TMT)’s continuous emphasis on HRM and sponsorship (i.e., TMT’s HR orientation) motivate team managers to display implementation behaviors by enhancing social influence. Last, it is hypothesized that a shared climate among members of teams for HPWS implementation has holistic influence on team managers’ cognitive belief, which, in turn, affects implementation of espoused HR practices.

Hypotheses were tested with 334 employees in 63 teams from 19 Korean companies. The results showed general support for the proposed model. Thus, the current study contributes the extant literature in several ways. To begin with, this study established team-level HPWS intensity and suggested team manager’s implementation of espoused HR practices as its direct antecedent. The integrative approach is a meaningful pursuit since HPWS and team manager studies have evolved in separate research streams in the SHRM literature. In addition, this thesis attempted to explicate team managers’ commitment to HR roles predicated upon technology acceptance models, thereby providing potential sources for variance in implementation behaviors. Last but not least, the current study proposed the implementation model of HPWS by indentifying HRM-specific contextual factors that exert influence on cognitive evaluation toward intended HR practices. The proposed model adds to the HPWS literature: 1) by detailing process models of SHRM; and 2) as an integrated framework that explains necessary factors in order to ensure the effective implementation of HPWS.

Keywords: High performance work systems intensity, team manager's implementation of espoused HR practices, theory of planned behavior, HRM-specific situational factors

Student Number: 2009–30880

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT ………………………………………………………………… i

LIST OF TABLES ………………..……………………………………….. vii

LIST OF FIGURES …………..…………………………………………..... viii

CHAPTER

I. INTRODUCTION ……………………………...……………..... 1

II. LITERATURE REVIEW ……………………...………………… 6

III. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK …..…………………………. 31

IV. RSEARCCH METHODS……………………………...………. 63

V. RESULTS ……..……………………………………………… 76

VI. DISCUSSION …………………………………………..….. 84

TABLES ……..…………………………………………………..…….. 98

FIGURES …………..…………………………………………..…..…….. 111

REFERENCES ……………………………………………....……….. 112

LIST OF TABLES

1. Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Cronbach's Alphas of Study Variables……………………..……………………….…………………..... 98

2. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Team Performance……………………………………………………………99

3. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting TIHR by Team Manager's Cognitive Evaluation…………………………..…………100

4. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting TIHR by Situational Factors via Team Manager's Cognitive Evaluation……………………………………………………………….101

5. Results of HLM Predicting TIHR by Situational Factors via Cognitive Evaluation……….………………………..……...…….……….……..102

6. Results of Bootstrapping for Indirect Effects……………..................…..103

7. Summary of Hypothesis Tests……………………...……….……….…..104

8. Model Comparisons………………...………………...….………..….105

9. Validity of Study Variables…………………..……….....……....….…106

LIST OF FIGURES

1. The Implementation Model of High Performance Work Systems ..……111

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Huselid (1995)'s seminal work established that a bundle of high performance work practices contributes to improving employee turnover, productivity and corporate financial performance. Since then, so called high performance work systems (hereafter HPWS) has received much popularity, and a number of studies have investigated the effects of HPWS on various outcome measures (Guest & Bos-Nehles, 2013). Two research streams are salient in early-to-mid HPWS studies. One examined whether the utilization of HPWS enables firms to outperform their counterparts (e.g., Huselid, 1995; Delery & Doty, 1996; Becker & Huselid, 1998; Ichniowski & Shaw, 1999; Bae & Lawler, 2000), and the other explored the mechanism, or the *black-box*, through which HPWS positively influence performance outcomes (Lepak, Liao, Chung, & Harden, 2006; Liao, Toya, Lepak, & Hong, 2009; Takeuchi, Chen, & Lepak, 2009). However, there are contentious views both on the relationship between HPWS and performance (e.g., Wright, Gardner, Moynihan, and Allen, 2005; Van Veldhoven, 2005) and on the way in which HPWS influences organizational outcomes (e.g., Danford, Richardson, Pulignano, & Stewart, 2008; Ramsey, Scholarios, Harley, 2000). Although meta-analyses on the link have consistently reported the positive effects of HPWS (Combs, Liu, Hall, & Ketchen, 2006; Jiang, Lepak, Hu, & Baer, 2012; Subramony, 2009), studies on the other side suggest that the relationship between HPWS and performance still remain blurry (Godard, 2004; Legge, 2005).

At this juncture, it is noteworthy that researchers with the lingering skepticism on the mono-level approach have lately created a new research domain in the HPWS literature. That is, they began to either measure within-organization level HPWS (e.g., unit, team, individual) or explore employee’s interpretive mechanism of the HRM system (e.g., Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Den Hartog, Boon, Verburg, & Croon, 2013; Liao et al., 2009; Nishii, Lepak, & Schneider, 2008; Pak, Kim, & Li, 2015). This line of research attempts to address implicit assumptions underlying traditional HPWS research. That is, studies predicated upon firm-level data often ask HR professional or managers HR practices in place, supposing that HR practices are being enforced in an intended manner, and employees invariably interpret HR messages. Here, the challenge is that surveys administered to them may not reflect the HRM system actually being implemented in the organization since it is possible that they may represent espoused HR practice, not necessarily realized one (Nishii & Wright, 2007). For instance, Khilji and Wang (2006) found that there is the discrepancy between HR practices reported in place and those being actually implemented in the organization and, more recently, Pak and Chung (2013) observed employees describing varied implementation patterns of HR practices. It is so even when HPWS is uniformly espoused in the organization. Also, Liao et al. (2009) found the decoupled relationship between managerial- and employee-report of HPWS utilization, and Den Hartog et al. (2013) confirmed that employee perception of HR practices is better predictor for both unit performance and individual satisfaction than manager ratings. It may be that “employees who are on the receiving end of the HR practices may be best placed to judge the extent and effectiveness of their implementation” (Woodrow & Guest, 2014: 39),

This thesis suggests that the recent trend in measuring within-organization level HPWS has paved a promising avenue for further investigation. So far, researchers have treated HPWS as a matter of adoption, and examining how HPWS influences performance has been the center of their inquires. If there is variability in HPWS utilization within the organization (Wright & Nishii, 2013), capturing factors that influence HPWS intensity should be a meaningful extension. It is recognition that, for the positive HPWS-performance link to be ensured, “it is not enough to have good practices if they are not properly implemented” Guest (2011: 6). Thus, this research heralds the shift of HPWS research toward a matter of implementation, and calls for investigating mediation processes through which strategically adopted HPWS leads to performance

(Sikora, Ferris, and Van Iddekinge, 2015). In other words, this paper proposes that desired outcomes may be a function of the effective management of HPWS enforcement processes within the organization. And it also implies a need for exploring antecedents to implementation intensity of HPWS, the area of which has been unsealed in the past 20 years.

In doing so, this thesis will first establish that the enforcement of HPWS is mainly team-level phenomena (Guest & Bos-Nehles, 2013; Wright & Nishii, 2013), and acknowledge a significant role that team or line managers assume in the implementation phase (Gratton & Truss, 2003; Marchington, 2001; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). Reviewing the relevant literature, this research will provide the rationale for conceptualizing team manager’s implementation behavior of espoused HR practices (i.e., HPWS), and integrate it as a direct antecedent to the implementation intensity of HPWS. After that, this paper will identify a void in the strategic HRM (SHRM) literature that, although team manager’s role is increasingly recognized as a critical element in determining the effectiveness of HRM (Ryu & Kim, 2013), a commensurate attention has not been drawn into the source of team managers’ commitment in implementation behavior. Here, this research will draw on theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991) to explicate team managers’ cognitive belief toward the enforcement of espoused HR practice. By taking HRM-specific situational factors and preceding discussions into account, this thesis will present the integrated framework of HPWS implementation, and attempt to provide an answer to the primary research question, “how can the effective implementation of HPWS be ensured?”

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

High Performance Work Systems

HPWS is a bundle of coherent, or internally consistent, HR practices aimed at improving organizational outcomes by enhancing employees' human capital and commitment to their jobs and the organization (Datta, Guthrie, & Wright, 2005; Huselid, 1995). Typical HR practices included in HPWS are: 1) selective staffing, extensive training, and internal mobility (i.e., ability-enhancing HRM); 2) rigorous performance appraisal, result-oriented compensation and incentive schemes (i.e., motivation-enhancing HRM); and 3) job autonomy, and participation (i.e., opportunity-enhancing HRM) (Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg, & Kalleberg, 2000; Delery & Shaw, 2001; Huselid, 1995; Sun, Aryee, & Law, 2007). It is generally acknowledged that HPWS develop a specific set of skills and derive behaviors from employees, design principles of which consider desirable (Lado & Wilson, 1994). Firm performance is achieved through organizational members whose competencies and behaviors properly match their roles and responsibilities (Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Schuler, 1989). HPWS predicts that appropriate role behaviors of skilled employees in aggregate contribute to improving firm performance (Huselid, 1995). Over the course, employees serve as strategic asset for the organization from which it achieves sustainable competitive advantage (Amit & Schoemaker, 1993). Thus, it is crucial for the organization to acquire human resources and utilize them at its best to succeed over competition (Barney & Wright, 1998).

The concept, HPWS, diverged from early research tradition where researchers examined how individual HR practice contributes to organizational performance. Although there is a body of studies reporting a positive influence (e.g., *recruitment*, Terpstra & Rozell, 1993; *training programs,* Russell, Terborg & Powers, 1985; *evaluation*, Borman, 1991; *compensation*, Gerhart & Milkovich, 1990), their approach to investigation may jeopardize internal validity. That is, organizations adopting a high performance HR practice (e.g., extensive training) are likely to have in place other types of commensurate policies (e.g., pay for performance) also exerting a positive influence on organizational outcomes (Huselid, 1995). If the effects of result-oriented compensation and others are not properly controlled, marginal effect of training programs on outcomes cannot be separated and, as a result, the role of training in enhancing firm performance is overstated (Delaney & Huselid, 1996). In response to such concern, researchers began to conceptualize bundles of HR practice and their global impact on organizational outcomes (Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995; Wright & McMahan, 1992). The rationale behind such approach was that configuring complementary

HR practices as a system may create synergetic effect that exceeds the sum of isolated effect of each HR practice (Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Milgrom & Roberts, 1995) and, therefore, HRM system as a unit of analysis is more appropriate in investigating the HRM-performance relationship (Arthur, 1994; Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Delery & Doty, 1996; Huselid, 1995; Ichniowski, et al., 1997; MacDuffie, 1995; Youndt, Snell, Dean & Lepak, 1996).

Since Huselid (1995), the HRM literature has witnessed burgeoning of research. And, over last two decades, different authors have adopted their own theoretical, empirical, and practical lenses through which several parallel concepts have emerged in the literature (Boxall & Macky 2009). To introduce a few, the term, high performance work practices were employed by Huselid (1995), high-involvement work practice by Guthrie (2001), high-commitment management by Wood and Albanese (1995), and innovative HR practices by Ichniowski, Shaw, and Prennushi (1997). Although inconsistent perspectives of effective HRM systems have begotten different name, Cook (2001) notes that divergence in addressing high-performing HR practices evolve only around such design features as selective staffing, flexible job assignment, clear role and responsibility, extensive training, performance-based compensation and advancement criteria, and employee involvement. That is, some degree of variability in policy-level components in conceptualizing high-performance

HRM systems accrue upon generally shared characteristics at the principle level. Thus, this thesis adopts HPWS as an umbrella concept that embraces the core building blocks of analogous terms.

The HPWS-performance Link

The positive relationship between HPWS and firm performance is recognized in prior studies (Huselid, 1995; Delery & Doty, 1996; Becker & Huselid, 1998; Ichniowski & Shaw, 1999; Bae & Lawler, 2000). In such early works as Huselid (1995), he examined with sample of 816 firms how the utilization of high performance work practices influences. The results showed the significant improvement in both individual outcomes (i.e., turnover and productivity) and the overall corporate financial performance. Similar studies were also conducted in different cultures and drew consistent results. For example, Ichniowski and Shaw (1999) compared Japanese and US steel manufacturers in which the former adopted HRM systems comprised of problem-solving teams, flexible job assignments, comprehensive training programs, selective staffing, job security, and a quality labor-management relationship whereas the latter had various configuration of HRM systems from traditional to innovative. Their analyses confirmed that the Japanese firms exceeded in both productivity and quality of products. Interestingly, they added that the US manufacturers that resort to innovative HR practices matched the productivity and increased the output quality commensurate to that of the Japanese counterparts. Also, Bae and Lawler (2000) studied with 138 firms in Korea and demonstrated that firms placing an emphasis on managing people tend to have in place high involvement HR practices. And firms utilizing such HRM strategies outperformed in the sample.

Indeed, a meta-analysis of 92 studies, Combs et al. (2006) confirmed that HPWS affects firm performance with an overall correlation of .20. The relationship is stronger in the manufacturing industry, and HPWS improves firm performance irrespective of measure type (e.g. operational, financial). Also, there is another meta-analysis giving support for a systems view that a bundle of complementary practices is better than individual best practices in contributing to a higher firm performance (Subramony, 2009). More recently, Jiang et al. (2012) demonstrated in their a meta-analysis of mediating mechanisms that skill-, motivation-, and opportunity-enhancing HR practices, albeit different in effect sizes, are positively related to human capital and employee motivation. Furthermore, the three dimensions of HPWS are significantly associated with financial performance via individual and operational outcomes.

Although a number of studies report that HPWS positively influences employees' attitudes and behaviors thereby contributing to higher firm performance, skepticism still lingers on (Wall & Wood, 2005). For instance, Wright et al. (2005) examined how HPWS affect past, concurrent and future performance outcomes. And they found that the positive relationship between HPWS and the outcomes are considerably weakened with past performance controlled. And, Van Veldhoven (2005) presented the results that may indicate reverse causality (i.e., performance affecting HR practices and employee well-being). Mixed results in the SHRM literature led researchers to looking into the *black box* of the HPWS-performance relationship (Guest, 1999). This line of research found that the relationship is bridged through improving employee motivation, skills, and opportunity to contribute (Lepak et al., 2006; Liao et al., 2009). It is suggested that the more HPWS is utilized, the higher job satisfaction and affective commitment (Takeuchi et al., 2009). Individual satisfaction, commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) may, in aggregate, exert influence on unit-level performance outcomes (Ryan, Schmit, & Johnson, 1996; Koys, 2001; Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002).

The HPWS literature that attempts to unlock the mechanism also faces a challenge that the positive gains added on firm performance is obtained at the expense of employee well-being (Godard, 2004; Jensen, Patel, & Messersmith, 2013). Ramsey et al. (2000) found that the performance gains of HPWS are achieved through work intensification, work pressure, and stress. It is suggested that HPWS puts employees in unpleasant, harsh working environment by increasing the demand of the job “through a combination of compulsory and discretionary means” (Danford et al., 2008:163). A recent study by Jensen et al. (2013) made this topic come to the fore suggesting that there may be a *dark side* of HPWS. With a multilevel sample of 1,592 government workers, they found that the utilization of HPWS increases employee anxiety and role overload, thereby influencing turnover intentions. Also, they noted that such negative consequences are mitigated when employees are given a sufficient amount of job control. The review of the extant HPWS literature shows the degree to which HPWS and performance are related and the way HPWS leads to higher performance outcomes are at best uncertain (Godard, 2004). Thus, this thesis turns to potential barriers to the effects of HPWS being transmitted to desired organizational performance.

Variability within Organizations

Lately, the SHRM literature has witnessed the emergence of studies that specifically address variability within organizations (Wright & Nishii, 2013). Variability in HRM can be observed primarily either at the policy-level or over the process of HR enforcement and individual interpretation. At the policy-level, there is a configuration, or architecture, approach to SHRM suggesting that, predicated upon value and uniqueness of employee skills, different types of HR practices should be applied (Lepak & Snell, 1999, 2002). Therefore, variability in the context of HR configuration takes a form of legitimate structure in managing people. On the other hand, some degree of variability can be captured over the enforcement phase when realized HR practices are different from espoused HR policies (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007), or individuals may interpret the same HR messages in varying ways (Nishii et al., 2008). This study is not to consider the policy-level difference since variability resulting from HR architecture is rather a strategic choice of the organization whereas variability observed in inconsistent implementation patterns and employee attribution is a critical management challenge to be addressed.

Recognition that there may exist a potential gap between intent of a certain policy and implementation pattern of the policy in the organization is not indeed new. New institutionalist perspective suggests that a formal structure of the organization is, to a great extent, determined by the institutional environment whereas the actual functioning hinges on such internal constraints as task structure, technology, and, most conspicuously, own rationale needs of the organization (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Meyer, 1994; Scott, 1994). As firms in a certain organizational field are likely to respond to the given environment similarly so as to acquire legitimacy (Scott, 1994), institutional pressure outside them give rise to isomorphism in the organizational field (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). However, the formal structure and the realized implementation pattern might likely be loosely coupled or decoupled since the generalized structure could not possibly reflect every aspect of technological and functional characteristics of individual firm (Scott, 1994).

In a similar vein, social cognitive theory explains the phenomenon at the individual level. For the same social stimulus, people are inclined to attach different meanings predicated upon their cognitive structures, thereby leading to idiosyncratic reactions to the impetus (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). That is, employees are likely to have their own filtering mechanism (e.g. values, goals, past experience, schema) of interpreting social information (Guzzo & Noonan, 1994) emanated not only from formal HR policies *per se* but from the way the policies being implemented. Employees' attitudes toward HR practices and subsequent reacting behaviors are derived from psychological climate perception shaped in mean-making process (Rentsch, 1990; James, James, & Ashe, 1990; Parker, Baltes, Young, Huff, Altman, Lacost, & Roberts, 2003).

On this matter, Nishii and Wright (2007) proposed a process model of SHRM. They presented that there are sources of variability within organizations yet adequately addressed in SHRM literature (e.g., implementation, organization change, team process, communication), which probably hinder espoused HR practices leading to desired outcomes. Provided that employee attitudes and behaviors are direct antecedents of organizational performance (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993), their insight follows that it is important to effectively manage both the implementation process and employee perception of HR experiences. Also, the potential gap between espoused HR polices and actual experience with them may have overriding effects on the way employees make sense of HRM system in the organization (Pak & Chung, 2013; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Wright & Nishii, 2013).

This vein of studies reflects the responses to recent concerns about HPWS research tradition. That is, HPWS research utilizing firm-level data implicitly assumes that HPWS is implemented across the organization, with HR professionals or management, and individuals attaching similar meanings to HR experiences. For managerial report of HPWS, the problem resides in that the reality, or the actual *modus operandi* of HPWS, could not adequately be captured because a manager or HR professional who reports HPWS might stand for espoused HR policies, not necessarily realized HR practices in the organization (Nishii & Wright, 2007). Legge (2005) noted that seemingly inconclusive findings to date might be accounted for lack of awareness that employee perception of HPWS mediates the relationship between HPWS and important organizational outcomes.

Recently, the growing attention to variability within organizations has spurred a new research stream in the literature, measuring within-organization level HPWS (e.g., individual, branch, team), and employee perception of HR practices. For example, Liao et al. (2009) argued that management-rated HPWS affects employee-rated HPWS, which subsequently affects the service performance of employees. As opposed to their hypothesis, the cross-level relationship was not supported. Liao et al. (2009: 384) commented that “there is a disconnect between what management says they are implementing and what employees report they are experiencing in terms of the HPWS practices”. Also, it was reported that the perception of employees on HR practices accounts for a greater variance in the perceived unit performance and employee satisfaction than in the HPWS manager ratings (Den Hartog et al., 2013). In addition, using data from 212 individuals embedded in 27 teams in a single organization, the latest research conducted by Pak et al. (2015) provided that HPWS can be meaningfully captured at the team level, demonstrating that even the same set of HR practices administered across the organization could be enforced with different intensity in the organization. Furthermore, Pak, Kim, and Park (2016) investigated the interaction effects of individual-level HPWS and goal orientation in relation to employees’ task performance and OCB. With 182 matched individual data, they confirmed that not all employees are positively influenced by HPWS. That is, the positive effects of HPWS on individual outcomes were more salient when employees possessed low level of goal orientation while policy intervention (i.e., HPWS) did not effectively enhance employee attitudes and behaviors when individuals were highly goal oriented.

As for the role of employee's interpretive mechanism, Bowen and Ostroff (2004) proposed a set of meta-features that together constitute a strong HRM system when employees perceive their HR experience as being *distinctive*, *consistent* and *consensua*l. They suggested that desired organizational outcomes could be attained through shared psychological perception among employees concerning the *strength* of the HRM system. Empirical evidence reporting the positive influence of the HRM strength is later found in Sanders, Dorenbosch, and Reuver (2008) and Li, Frenkel, and Sanders (2011). Drawing on attribution theory, Nishii and her colleagues (2008) explored this issue that employees are disposed to grant different meaning to why management tries to adopt certain HR policies. It is argued that employees tend to interpret underlying intent of certain HR practices and interpretation directly affects employees' attitudes. The results showed that a collective attitude of unit members attributed from service quality and employee well-being subsequently brings about OCB and consequently customer satisfaction with people. Lately, Pak and Chung (2013) proposed HRM gap as another interpretation filter that individuals utilize in making sense of actual HR experiences. HRM gap refers to perceived discrepancy between espoused and realized HR practices. Using the triangulation method, they conducted two qualitative studies with 36 interviewees to explore the phenomenon. The results showed that employees tend to perceive HRM gap. And, the higher individuals perceive the discrepancy, the lower they feel obliged to make commitment to their job.

The review of HPWS literature suggests what follows: 1) the relationship between HPWS and organizational performance is rather inconclusive; 2) it may be because variability within organizations exists, and is likely to develop from the manner espoused HR practices is enforced; 3) inconsistent implementation patterns of HR practices could affect employees' perception and their subsequent attitudes and behaviors. Therefore, this thesis argues that the effective implementation of HR practices merits more attention.

Team Managers and the Implementation

Guest and Bos-Nehles (2013) have recently proposed a framework that describes a HRM process. They suggested that the decision to adopt a certain HR practice marks the beginning of the HRM process, which is followed by the actual adoption of the practice. The HR professional plays a central role during the first two stages of the implementation, and the top management team sponsors the entire implementation process. In the third stage, the line managers, or team leaders, decide whether or not the adopted HR practice should be used. For instance, line managers should decide whether to use newly introduced training programs before their subordinates participate in such programs. The final stage is related to the commitment of the line managers to the adopted HR practice. In other words, even if the line managers decide to utilize training programs, their subordinates may not be encouraged to follow suit because their work deadlines are imminent, or the line managers may also believe that the contents of training programs are not simply good enough to improve knowledge, skills, and abilities of their subordinates.

Guest and Bos-Nehles (2013) imply that the formulation of HRM strategies and the development of HR policies are the domains that belong to HR department and top management team while the enforcement of HR practices is mainly team, or work group, phenomena. The rationale underlying the distinction of HR responsibilities is devolution, or decentralization, of HRM. The devolution literature suggests that a shift from personnel management to strategic HRM signifies HR professionals taking more strategic role alongside executives (i.e., integrating HRM into business strategy), and line managers assuming the roles of developing people through enforcing espoused HR practices in their work groups (Cunningham & Hyman, 1999; Currie & Procter, 2001; Larsen & Brewster, 2003). Brewster and Larsen (1992: 413) noted, "Devolvement is driven by both organizational and effectiveness criteria. Organizationally, it is now widely believed that responsibilities should be located at appropriate places within the organization and that means increasingly, with line managers rather than specialist functions". Renwick and MacNeil (2002) evaluated that the advancement of new technologies (i.e., management information systems, HR call centers) has enabled line managers to take charge of HR-related work with least amount of HR department's involvement.

With recognition that the desirable performance outcomes can be attained not necessarily from HR practices *per se* but the effective implementation of HR initiatives, the role of a team manager has increasingly been recognized (Wright & Nishii 2013; Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). Although the team managers may not be the sole deliverers of HR practices, they functions as agents for the organization in implementing HR policies in their work groups (Gratton & Truss, 2003; Marchington, 2001; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). It is suggested that team managers actively engaging in HRM reflect a core element in realizing a firm's strategy (Anderson, Cooper, & Zhu, 2007) as they have more immediate impact on non-managerial employees (Poole & Jenkins, 1997). Storey (1992: 190) commented that team managers are appropriately positioned at "playing a far more central role in labour management” than HR professional. For instance, a recent study by Sikora et al. (2015) found that the number of HPWS practices adopted in the organization signals line managers’ perception of seriousness in HRM, which subsequently influences HPWS implementation. Thus, the study confirmed that line manager’s HPWS implementation perception fully mediates the relationship between HPWS and employee outcomes (i.e., turnover intention, job performance, participative decision-making).

In spite of the principal role ascribed to team managers in the strategic contribution of HRM to the organization, there are only a few studies exploring the HRM role of team managers in SHRM research (e.g. Bowen & Ostroff 2004; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Ryu & Kim, 2013). For instance, Purcell & Hutchinson (2007) conducted a study with employee survey from 12 *excellent* companies, and their results showed that the quality of leadership behavior and satisfaction with HR practices are positively related to individuals’ commitment to both their job and organizations. Therefore, the authors suggested that there should a firm-wide effort to enhance people management skills of front-line managers. Also, Gilbert, De Winne, and Selsa (2011) provided similar results with data collected from 1,363 employees in three service organizations, indicating that subordinates’ affective commitment derives from line managers’ effective enactment of HR practices and relations-oriented leadership behavior.

In addition, Sterling and Boxall (2013) studied the role of line managers over the implementation process of lean production and how it influences individual learning and job quality. Their findings confirmed that employee learning and quality of job improve in case where line managers provide their subordinates with greater autonomy and employees have sufficient levels of literacy. The positive impact of line manager behavior is strengthened when the outcomes are beneficial to both line managers and their subordinates. More recently, Ryu & Kim (2013) empirically examined with panel data from South Korea (N= 215) how the decentralization of HR responsibilities to the line affects HR-related outcomes. They demonstrated that first-line managers' involvement in HR positively influences HR effectiveness. The relationship is undermined when companies adopt a newly emerging type of HR practices (i.e., HPWS), and the negative interaction effect is diminished when line managers are furnished with HR knowledge.

Reviewing the relevant literature, this thesis epitomizes as following: 1) the implementation of HR practices is, to a great extent, the team- or work group-level phenomena; 2) the devolution of HRM to the line assigns people development and HR enforcement roles to team managers as agents for the organization; 3) team manager's behaviors over the implementation phase of HR initiatives are a primary source for subordinates' attitude towards their job and the organization. Thus, combining extant HPWS and line manager literature, this thesis tries to pave an avenue for future investigation.

Development of Research Issues

Lately, researchers have drawn attention to capturing implementation intensity of HR practices within an organization (Jiang, Takeuchi, & Lepak, 2013; Wright & Nishii, 2013). This line of studies attempts to address implicit assumptions underlying HPWS research tradition. To be specific, studies that investigate the HPWS-performance relationship utilizing firm-level data are predicated upon such assumptions that HPWS is implemented across the organization as intended and individuals attaching similar meanings to HR experiences (Wright & Nishii, 2013). The problem arises when surveys for HPWS utilization are administered to HR professional or senior managers since those respondents may report officially espoused HR practices, not necessarily the ones actually being implemented within the organization (Nishii & Wright, 2007). Conventional firm-level data collection approach, therefore, may blur the true picture of the HPWS-performance relationship (Legge, 2005).

In response to such concern over the mono-level approach, a new research stream has emerged in the literature. That is, recent studies try to measure HPWS from employees who are receiving end of HR practices, and

HPWS is conceptualized as a individual-, team-, or unit-level construct so as to better reflect the actual functioning of HPWS (e.g., Boon, Den Hartog, Boselie, & Paauwe, 2011; Boxall, Ang, & Bartram, 2011; Pak et al., 2015; Zacharatos, Barling, & Iverson, 2005). However, HPWS has been, to date, treated mainly as an independent variable (i.e., a matter of adoption), and the mechanism through which HPWS affects performance indicators has been the primary focus of research. The newly emerging practice of measuring HPWS at the within-organization level implies the need for investigating the source of such variability, considering HPWS a matter of proper implementation. However, the issue of why different implementation patterns are observed in the organization even for the same set of espoused HR policies is rarely considered. Hence, examining the factor that precedes the intensity of HPWS may yield considerable theoretical and practical implications.

As for this endeavor, this thesis left a clue in the previous section that the enforcement of HR practices is mainly the team-level phenomena (Guest & Bos-Nehles, 2013) and, therefore, the delivering role of team managers determines the overall effectiveness of HRM implementation (Gilbert et al., 2011). Although team managers are increasingly recognized as assuming the essential role over the implementation phase in SHRM (Gratton & Truss, 2003; Marchington, 2001; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007), studies investigating them have created an independent research stream (e.g., Sterling & Boxall, 2013). This thesis suggests that SHRM research moving toward measuring within-organization level HPWS has now made room for integrating seemingly two distinct research areas since investigating the source of variability is indeed a worthwhile pursuit. In doing so, future studies can directly determine what factors contributes to the implementation intensity of HPWS and its outcomes.

This thesis suggests that to achieve desirable organizational performance it is critical for team managers to enforce HR practices subject to their work groups in an intended, prescribed manner since employee attitudes and behaviors are likely to be the product of HR practices they experience in teams (Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Schuler, 1989). If realized HR practices take far more different forms against intended ones, it may be hard to derive expected responses from employees. Therefore, team managers' enforcement effort of espoused HR practices could be a major source for the implementation intensity of HPWS (Pak & Chung, 2013), thereby determining the overall effectiveness of HRM.

Although the implementation of HR practices has recently become the issue of interest among researchers, the extant literature lacks a commensurate conceptualization of team manager behaviors. For instance, Ryu and Kim (2013) found that first-line manager (FLM)'s involvement in HR is positively related to HR effectiveness. Interestingly, the positive relationship becomes weakened when institutionally emerging HR practices (i.e., HPWS) is considered together, and the negative moderating relationship becomes mitigated with HR knowledge transferred to FLMs. Their study implies that although FLMs' involvement in HR indeed matters, it does not guarantee that FLMs do act in accordance with prescribed procedures of intended HR practices. That is, FLMs can heavily be involved in HR in a bureaucratic, seniority-oriented way even though HPWS are in place. In this light, this paper suggests that to create the environment in which employees experience HR practices as intended by the organization, team manager's enforcement of espoused HR practices is essential. And, conceptualizing team manager behaviors that specifically address implementation effort of espoused HR practices merits more attention since it may be an important proxy for enforcement patterns aligned with HR strategies and delivers meaningful messages to SHRM research with implementation focus.

As discussed, the extant SHRM literature has recognized the important role that team managers assume over the implementation phase of HPWS. A lingering question is: what makes a more involved, or committed, team manager who enforce HR practices in an intended manner? Although studies examining the effects of team managers' attitudes and behaviors have recently been growing (e.g., Gilbert et al., 2011; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Sterling & Boxall, 2013, Ryu & Kim, 2013), the current discussion in the SHRM literature is somewhat limited in answering the above question. If team manager's implementation behavior of espoused HR practices is the essential element, now is the time to extend the literature to explore antecedents to such behaviors. In doing so, this thesis adds to research that examine the role of line managers in the context of HR implementation.

Although it appears that the SHRM literature has, to date, neglected this meaningful area of investigation, such inquiries have been placed at the center of the innovation implementation literature. For example, Klein, Conn, and Sorra (2001) found that implementation climate, and innovation-targeted policies and practices are positively associated with the use of computerized technology. And they added that management support and financial resource availability precede such climate, and the adoption of management initiatives respectively. Also, Choi and Price (2005) drew on the person-environment fit literature in order to examine employees' affective and behavioral responses to innovations. Their results showed that congruence between values embedded in innovation and individual values is significantly associated with employees' commitment to implementation while the match between abilities required to carrying out target innovation behavior and currently possessing abilities of individuals is related to implementation behavior.

In the innovation implementation literature, one of the most popular frameworks that explicate the adoption behavior of individuals is the technology acceptance model. Predicated upon the theory of reasoned action (Azjen & Fishbein, 1980), Davis (1989) developed a theory the model in an attempt to explain factors that cause individuals to accept or reject a certain information technology (IT). The study suggested that, overall, actual use of the system is a function of *perceived usefulness* (i.e., the extent to which the current system helps individuals better perform their jobs relative to the previous one) and *perceived ease of use* (i.e., the degree to which individuals easily utilize the system). Since then, a number of modifications have been made to the model (e.g., Wixom & Todd, 2005; Venkatesh & Davis, 2000). Among them, most notable is the framework developed by Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, and Davis (2003), the unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT). They identified numerous factors that exert influence on use behavior. Building on Davis (1989), they proposed that actual adoption behavior is a product of individual's cognitive belief toward performance improvement, required effort, social influence, and facilitating conditions. Also, they included several demographic variables (e.g., age, gender, experience) that may systematically modify the relationship between cognitive evaluation of innovation features and actual use behavior.

Here, this thesis attempts to draw on theory of planned behavior (Azjen, 1991) along with primary factors suggested in UTAUT (Venkatesh et al., 2003) as the theoretical underpinning that explicates why some team managers are more committed than others in implementing espoused HR practices in their work groups. This thesis put forward that the framework is relevant since it is closely aligned with propositions written in theory of planned behavior. Factors supposed to predict individual's display of target behavior in UTAUT are comparable to those suggested in the theory. In addition, variables from UTAUT that presented significant effect sizes on behavior are *performance* and *effort expectancy*, and *social influence*. Although UTAUT is a comprehensive presentation of technology adoption, Bagozzi (2007: 245) criticized that the model encompasses too many constructs making individual use of technology "reaching a stage of chaos". As for facilitating conditions, critics argue that a variety of distinct items are included to form a single psychometric construct (Van Raaij & Schepers, 2008).

The primary research question that the thesis attempts to address concerns how the implementation of HPWS can effectively ensured. The discussion above tentatively suggests that team manager's implementation behavior may be a function of his/her cognitive belief about the enactment of intended HR practices. Theory of planned behavior has mainly focused on how such cognitive evaluation of individuals can indeed be related to targeted actions. In this light, the discussion so far is rather limited since there is little to say about how implementers' psychological states can systematically be manipulated. This paper proposes that, to better reflect the research question, it is necessary to explore HRM-specific situational factors that may affect cognitive evaluation of team managers, which subsequently leads to implementation behavior of espoused HR practices. In doing so, a comprehensive picture of what needs to be done in order to enhance implementation effectiveness can be suggested. Thus, the purpose of this thesis is to present the implementation model of HPWS by extending theory of planned behavior, and combining it to the recent development of the SHRM literature.

CHAPTER III

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

An Antecedent to HPWS Intensity and Its Outcome[1]

Gilbert et al. (2011) drew a line between HR enactment and leadership behavior, which together constitute the HRM role of line managers. The former indicates the implementation of formal HR polices subject to a work group whereas the latter denotes on-going demonstration of various leadership behaviors, which positively influence subordinates' attitudes and behavior. They confirmed that activities of HR implementation and leadership behaviors are distinguished. More recently, Pak and Kim (2016) also showed that team manager visibility (i.e., implementation of espoused HR practices) and supportive leadership behaviors are distinct concepts and the visibility of team managers are significantly associated with team-level utilization of HPWS after controlling for leadership behaviors, which reduce to non-significance. It may be because specific enforcement behaviors are in closer proximity to team-level

---

[1] I hereby notify that this section, An Antecedent to HPWS Intensity and Its Outcome, is adapted from my recently accepted article, Pak & Kim (in press) Team manager's implementation, high performance work systems intensity, and performance: A multilevel investigation, *Journal of Management*

HRM systems compared with display of leadership. In shaping a local climate with regard to HPWS utilization, activities that exert influence on employee attitudes and behavior through official channels (i.e., espoused HR practices) may be considered more relevant.

In this light, this thesis establishes that the distinct, consistent actions of team managers while enforcing HR policies in their work groups may be a primary source for shaping employees' actual HR experiences (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). The devolution literature increasingly recognizes that the enforcement of HR practices (i.e., development of subordinates) falls within the purview of team managers (Cunningham & Hyman, 1999; Currie & Procter, 2001; Larsen & Brewster, 2003; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). At this juncture, the problems may arise at least in two areas. First, although team managers are responsible for managing their subordinates through administering HR policies, they are also given a certain amount of discretion in ways in which HR policies are implemented in their work groups since an espoused policy cannot possibly encompass every contingency that might arise in the implementation phase (Nishii & Wright, 2007). Second, every team manager may have different level of motivation in conforming to prescribed rules and procedures embedded in HR policies, and HR-related competence (i.e., knowledge) that should facilitate or hinder an effective implementation of intended HR practices (Cunningham &

Hyman, 1999; Delery & Shaw, 2001; Nehles, van Riemsdijk, Kok, & Looise, 2006; Ryu & Kim, 2013). For instance, team managers may believe that a performance-oriented HR practice (i.e., HPWS) is not be compatible with social norms governing the society (i.e., seniority orientation in Asian cultures originated from Confucianism), or that a certain HR practice (e.g., training) could not improve overall team performance since the contents of programs do not reflect the nature of team's daily routines (Pak & Chung, 2013). As a result, the gap between intended and actual HR practices may widen, and variability within organizations develops over time.

From behavioral perspective (Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Schuler, 1989), the decoupling should be problematic. The theory states that HR practices positively affect organizational performance mainly by deriving appropriate role behaviors and improving motivation of employees. It implies that HR practices do not operate in isolation of organization's strategy. If a company's strategy gears into promoting innovation, HR practices should equip employees with relevant skills and competencies, reward relevant outcomes, and give opportunity to work in creative ways, and if strategy and HRM system do not fit each other, expected innovation outcomes could not be attained (Pak et al., 2015). In a similar vein, though HR practices are well designed to fit into strategic objectives, desirable performance is achieved only to the extent that such HR practices are being implemented as intended in the work groups. It is suggested that team managers play a pivotal role in realizing a firm's strategy (Anderson et al., 2007) and, therefore, target performance is likely to be achieved when team managers enforce HR policies in distinct and consistent manners.

Drawing on communication and attribution theories (Kelley, 1967; McGuire, 1972) Bowen and Ostroff (2004), for example, proposed a set of meta-features that constitute the *strength* of HRM system. They suggested that a strong HRM system emerges when the psychological climate of employees concerning their HR experiences is distinctive, consistent, and consensual. According to Bowen and Ostroff (2004), *distinctiveness* refers to the extent to which HR practices are clearly recognized and understood by employees. *Consistency* concerns that the degree of internal fit among adopted HR practices and unambiguous messages delivered to employees over the implantation phase. As for *consensus*, it involves the agreement among organizational members concerning vision and values with regard to HRM, and the implementation of HR policies in an equitable manner. Their study proposed that the more individuals experience a strong HRM system, the more likely the psychological climate perception (i.e., the strength of the HRM system) of employees will be shared. When variability in individual-level climate perception is minimized in the work group or organization, desirable performance is achieved. Therefore, HR messages should be clearly delivered to individuals in a consistent manner (Chaiken, Wood, & Eagley, 1996).

In this sense, this thesis proposes that team managers' commitment to implementation distinctively emerges as an interpretive filter that employees may utilize to make sense of their work environment. HR messages may not be delivered to employees directly from the HRM system *per se*. Instead, employees experience the quality of HRM system by examining proximate filters (i.e., team manager's behaviors). According to the situational perspective (Schneider, 1990), people are inclined to search for and extract relevant contextual cues to derive specific meanings from their experiences, and what they actually *see* is likely to shape their perception of the environment that surrounds them (Ross & Nisbett, 1991). It implies that team managers assuming the role of implementers in their work groups may be an *adjacent* or readily accessible contextual filter that employees use to understand the quality of the HRM system. Bowen and Ostroff (2004; 215-216) noted "supervisors can serve as interpretive filters of HRM practices, and when they are visible in implementing practices or promote high-quality exchanges with employees, they can introduce a common interpretation among unit members". In this light, team managers' active role of enforcing espoused HR practices play a critical role in shaping shared understanding of realized HR experiences, close to intended ones, among employees. However, this paper discussed that commensurate attention is not yet given to conceptualize team manager’s specific implementation behavior of espoused HR practices despite its growing recognition in the SHRM literature. Therefore, this research suggests *team manager’s implementation of espoused HR practices* (TIHR) to complement the void in the literature, and define it as the extent to which a team manager acts as a deliverer and an advocate of HR policies in the work group, following HR procedures and enforcing HR practices in a prescribed manner

This study suggests that the variability in HPWS implementation intensity may be captured meaningfully at the team level. Here, this thesis defines a team as a group of individuals who collaborate one another in order to achieve common goals, and therefore have shared responsibility for particular outcomes of their organizations (Sundstrom, DeMeuse, & Futrell, 1990) and, for the purpose of this study (i.e., an implementation setting of HR practices), adds that in the team a manager or leader has a certain amount of authority and discretion in enacting espoused HR policies toward his/her subordinates. The social interaction perspective (Weick, 1995) suggests that employees working in a team are likely to influence one another in shaping their understanding of their HR experiences. As individuals in a work group interact more frequently and experience a similar work context, the social interaction among team members is likely to produce a shared perception of the environment (Dragoni, 2005; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). Thus, a collective experience can emerge as individuals make sense of the role their managers assume in the work group. Also, it may be argued that employee-rated HPWS aggregated to a team level should constitute realized HRM systems beyond their perception. Heavey and her colleagues (2013: 131) note that "[a five-point Likert scale surveys administered to individuals] gives researchers access to the 'actual' practices in an organization rather than just those that are espoused (e.g., Khilji & Wang, 2006), as respondents are able to go beyond a simple yes/no or numerical answer". Moreover, considering multiple team members' evaluation into account, dependence on each respondent in his/her evaluation of HPWS utilization could be diminished. In this study, HPWS refers to a set of HR practices aimed at enhancing "employees' skills, commitment, and productivity in such a way that employees become a source of sustainable competitive advantage" (Datta, Guthrie, & Wright, 2005:136), and *HPWS intensity* (HPWSI) in teams is defined as the extent to which HPWS is being actually implemented as intended manners in work groups.

Although team-level HPWS is a worthwhile subject for investigation, studies attempting to investigate its validity and effects on work group outcomes rather fall short. However, there is an accumulated body of research that has examined factors influencing the effectiveness of teams. For example, Zander (1983) stressed that, for effective work groups, providing clear goals and group norms, shaping a supportive environment, and improving collaborative processes and cohesion are essential. A similar argument is also written on Larson and La Fasto (1989), where authors suggested that collective commitment to the team could be derived from ensuring performance targets, enhancing competence of team members, and forming a local climate of trust and collaboration. Moreover, prior studies confirmed that improved job satisfaction (Schippers, Den Hartog, Koopman, & Wienk, 2003), affective commitment to the team and organization (Caballer, Gracia, & Peiro, 2005), group-level OCB (Van Dyne, Kossek, & Lobel, 2007), and sharing leadership, or empowerment, (Avolio, Jung, Murry, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996) should contribute to enhancing group process and subsequent outcomes. This research argues that commensurate attention has not been given to examining the effects of formal structure (i.e., HPWS) on work group processes and their consequences. It may be a meaningful pursuit since the utilization of HPWS could improve above-listed factors (Jiang et al., 2013).

Indeed, Pak and his colleagues (2015) established that HRM system has a meaningful variance at the team-level. Their results showed that innovation-inducing HRM system (i.e., innovation-facilitating elements embedded in HPWS) is indeed associated with team innovation outcomes, and the relationship is mediated by team creative process. Albeit limited, there are a number of studies indicating that HPWSI at the team level may be positively related to team performance. For instance, a recent study by Fu, Flood, Bosak, Morris, & O'Regan (2013) suggested that HPWS positively influences team formation. Individuals correctly placed in a team, in turn, better cooperate with clients and, consequently, improve organizational performance. Messersmith, Patel, Lepak, & Gould-Williams (2011) reported that HPWS is positively associated with collective job satisfaction, commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). In addition, Takeuchi, Lepak, Wang, and Takeuchi (2007) confirmed that the HPWS-performance relationship is mediated by enhancing collective human capital and social exchange.

The relationship between HPWS and team performance outcomes can be elucidated by the ability-motivation-opportunity (AMO) framework of HRM research (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Delery & Shaw, 2001; Gardner, Wright, & Moynihan, 2011). HPWS contribute to improving employee performance by enhancing the skills, competences, and motivation of employees, as well as increasing their opportunities to contribute. Generally, human capital is enhanced by providing not only selective recruitment and staffing, but also extensive training and development programs, which are part of HPWS (Takeuchi et al., 2007). Tools for rigorous, objective performance evaluation, performance-based compensation, and advancement schemes boost employee morale and motivation (Boxall et al., 2011). In addition, empowerment and participative practices, which are often included in HPWS, positively affect the commitment of individuals to their jobs and their organizations (Ehrnrooth & Bjorkman, 2012). Hence, we also posit that the intensity of team HPWS is positively associated with team peformance. Considering all of the previous discussions, this thesis proposes that team managers are likely to shape distinct local high-performance work climate, thereby inducing different performance outcomes (Bartel, 2004). Therefore, this research presents the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: The positive relationship between TIHR and team performance is mediated by HPWSI.

Antecedents to Team Manager's Implementation Behavior

As discussed, the enforcement of HPWS is mainly a team process and, therefore, the role of team managers in the implementation phase is a critical element in realizing firm's strategy. Two issues have been identified. First, the SHRM literature lacks the conceptualization of team manager's specific implementation behavior of espoused HR practices, which this paper discussed in the previous part. Second, the literature has not given commensurate attention to the source of team manager's commitment, or fidelity, to enforcing HR practices in an intended way. If team manager's enforcement of espoused HR practices is so important to establish a strong HPWS-performance relationship, investigating factors that make team managers more committed bears much implication in the SHRM research.

The theory of reasoned action explicates individual's behavior through the impact of attitude (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). In the theory, individuals are assumed to be rational, and according to the evaluation of information surrounding them, individuals decide to engage or not to engage in a certain behavior. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) stressed behavioral intention as a precursor to actual behavior, and they viewed attitude towards performance of the behavior and subjective norms as factors that contribute to manipulating behavioral intention. *Attitude towards performance of behavior* refers to an individual's positive or negative evaluation of a particular behavior. It is the extent to which individuals believe that the behavior leads to desirable outcomes. And, *subjective norms* concerns individual's perceived social pressure in demonstrating such behavior affected by significant others (e.g., peers, managers). Ajzen (1985) later extended the theory of reasoned action by adding *perceived behavior control* to the framework, and named it the theory of planned behavior. The limitation of the theory of reason action was that individuals' behavior is assumed to be a matter of volitional control. That is, a person's behavior is only a function of benefits linked to a certain behavior and influences by significant others. Bandura (1977)'s concept of self-efficacy does not play any role in the old theory. With the theory of planned behavior, Ajzen (1985) suggested that individual's perceived easiness or difficulty of demonstrating the target behavior (i.e., behavioral control) should also determine the person's behavioral intention. Later, Ajzen (1991) refined existing arguments and proposed theory of planned behavior. All in all, the theory suggests that individual's behavioral intention is a function of belief about consequences of particular behavior (i.e., his/her positive or negative evaluation), perception of social normative pressure for performing target behavior, and control belief (i.e., perceived easiness or difficulty of required action). Behavioral intention shaped by individual's cognitive belief is supposed to be an immediate antecedent to behavior (Ajzen, 2002).

For instance, Davis (1989) presented technology acceptance model built upon the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1985) to explicate individual's decision to accept the usage of IT systems. In the model, *perceived usefulness* and *perceived ease of use* determine individual's behavioral intention to use and, subsequently, actual system use. Perceived usefulness refers to the person's cognitive evaluation of the extent to which the use of a particular system could improve job performance, and perceived ease of use resembles Ajzen (1985)'s perceived behavioral control (i.e., the effort required in using the technology).

Also, Davis (1989) proposed that perceived ease of use affects perceived usefulness since the easier a certain system to utilize, the more helpful it can be regarded by the user.

Technology acceptance model received much popularity in the IT utilization literature, and begot many extended frameworks (Lee, Kozar, & Larsen, 2003). The most recent and comprehensive is what Venkatesh, et al. (2003) developed, UTAUT. Most conspicuously, the authors added to the original model *social influence* of important others (i.e., subjective norm), and situational factors that facilitate the inducement of adoption behaviors. According to the theory, behavioral intention of individual can be elucidated by his/her cognitive belief about a particular technology. Specifically, the person is more likely to adopt the technology when it is believed that: 1) the utilization leads to higher job performance (i.e., performance expectancy); 2) the technology does require the least effort while using it (i.e., effort expectancy); and 3) there is pressure on adoption behaviors in the social system (i.e., social influence).

While explicating antecedents to team manager's implementation behavior, this thesis considers three afore-mentioned variables since they presented meaningful effect sizes on acceptance behavior, and these factors are comparable to those written in theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Albeit comprehensive, UTAUT has been criticized for too many constructs included to explain individual use of technology (Bagozzi, 2007), and their conceptualization of facilitating conditions encompasses distinct items to develop a single psychometric construct (Van Raaij & Schepers, 2008). This paper’s choice of three variables is also consistent with the MARS model of individual behavior (Hill & McShane, 2006). The model suggests that the possibility of inducing a certain behavior is increased when individual has higher levels of motivation, ability and role perception. A person’s motivation coincides with UTAUT’s explanation of performance expectancy. Ability reflects the person’s perceived behavioral control (i.e., effort expectancy). And, it is likely that individual’s role perception becomes stronger when the significant others consistently stress the demonstration of certain behaviors (i.e., social influence). Recent studies found that individual’s perceived usefulness and ease of use relating to e-HRM self-service tools are indeed associated with acceptance of the system (Huang & Martin-Taylor, 2013), and line manager’s ability and opportunity are significant predictor for the effectiveness of HRM implementation (Bos-Nehles, van Riemsdijk, & Looise, 2013). Therefore, drawing on theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991), this paper suggests that team manager’s implementation behavior toward espoused HR practices may be a function of his/her cognitive belief that: 1) the rigorous enactment of intended

HR practices leads to improvement in team effectiveness; 2) the implementation process of espoused HR practices does not require excessive resource allocation; and; 3) enforcing HR practices in a prescribed manner is considered socially desirable. Therefore, the thesis presents the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2-1: Team manager's performance expectancy concerning the enforcement of espoused HR practices is positively related to TIHR.

Hypothesis 2-2: Team manager's effort expectancy concerning the enforcement of espoused HR practices is positively related to TIHR.

Hypothesis 2-3: Social influence perceived by team manager concerning the enforcement of espoused HR practices is positively related to TIHR.

Antecedents to Team Manager's Cognitive Belief

Studies utilizing technology acceptance models have focused on a user's cognitive evaluation in whether or not to adopt a certain technology. Although the person's psychological state with regard to the innovation should be a significant precursor to attitudes toward behavior and subsequently actual behavior of use, it is yet limited in explaining why some individuals positively evaluate the use of the technology while others do not. The MARS model of individual behavior emphasizes situational factors that systematically manipulate individuals' perception of their motivation, ability, and role perception (Hill &

McShane, 2006). Thus, this thesis extends theory of planned behavior by identifying HRM-specific situational factors that may affect what the theory proposes: attitude toward behavior, control belief, and subjective norm. In doing so, this paper could develop an integrated framework that addresses the mechanism through which for the effective implementation of HPWS is achieved.

To begin with, this thesis discusses a potential situational factor that may influence implementer (i.e., team manger)'s belief about performance expectancy. Wood (1999) categorized four different fits in SHRM: 1) *strategic fit*, which refers to the congruence between the HRM system and strategy of the organization; 2*) internal fit* that focuses on the alignment among HR practices within purview of the HRM system; 3) *organizational fit* referring to the link between the HRM system and the work system or work design; and 4) *environmental fit* that links the HRM system with the institutional environment. Although fit perspective has been the core of SHRM research, the most of SHRM research has paid little attention to Wood (1999)'s concept of organizational fit (Paauwe, Boon, Boselie, & Den Hartog, 2013). MacDuffie (1995: 198) stated that "[for the effective implementation] an HR bundle or system must be integrated with complementary bundles of practices from core business functions". Therefore, this research proposes that team managers are likely to enforce espoused HR practices as long as HR practices subject to their work groups are compatible with the features of work.

Especially, this paper suggests that HRM-job relevance is linked to team manager’s perception of performance expectancy since it may influence *motivational significance* (Kelman & Hamilton, 1989). That is, to derive a desirable behavior, the person should perceive the situation as relevant in pursuing goal attainment (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). “[Team] managers are unlikely to persist in devoting their time to implementing practices they perceive to have no impact” (Guest & Bos-Nehles, 2013). Recently, Pak & Chung (2013) found that misalignment between espoused HR practices and ways of doing things (e.g., work design) is one of major factors that dismantle team manager’s motivation to implement HR practices in an intended manner. For example, the training programs do not reflect features of actual work processes, and the nature of team’s tasks is mainly qualitative (i.e., paper work), which may be difficult to capture objectivity for quantifiable performance evaluation. On the other, Cooper and Zmud (1990), in a study on the adoption of material requirements planning (MRP) systems, found that compatibility between tasks and technology features (i.e., enabling core job function to be productive and improving the quality of outputs) is a significant factor that explains adoption behavior. Here, this thesis presents *HRM-work compatibility* (HWC), defining it as the extent to which espoused HR practices is consistent with work groups' existing needs and job design. And, the congruence between them may positively affect team manager's evaluation that enforcing intended HR practices could improve the overall effectiveness of their teams (i.e., perceived consequences, Triandis, 1980). The expectancy theory of motivation (Vroom, 1964) suggested that individuals evaluate the desirability of their behaviors in terms of potential rewards. Since the previous discussion suggested that team manager's performance expectancy is positively associated with implementation behavior of espoused HR practices, this paper leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3-1: Performance expectancy mediates the relationship between HWC and TIHR.

Even if the HRM system and work are well aligned, there may be possibility that tasks to be carried out in the work group are complex by nature and, therefore, require a high level of coordination, and a team manager does not have sufficient knowledge of HRM, both of which hinders the effective implementation of espoused HR practices. An accumulated body of research is concerned over line managers' insufficient capacity to make commitment to daily routines and HR responsibilities simultaneously (Hutchinson & Purcell, 2010), and their incompetence in such HR-related issues as knowledge on HRM and people management skills (Hall & Torrington, 1998; McGovern, Gratton, Hope-Hailey, Stiles, & Truss, 1997). In addition, line managers tend to believe that HR professional do not provide them with necessary support and advice over the implementation phase (Bond & Wise, 2003). Here is where HR department should assume a role of facilitation.

Ulrich (1997) categorized multiple roles model of HR management. He asserted that HR department should be a *strategic partner*, which focuses on linking HR strategies to business strategy. It implies that the organization should implement formulated corporate strategy through HR function cooperating with both senior and line managers (Ulrich & Brockbank, 2005). To fulfill this role, HR department should equip team managers with necessary skills and knowledge to implement business strategies. Also, HR department should be an *administrative expert*. He noted that HR department should streamline HR processes by cutting unnecessary costs, increasing efficiency concerning HRM operations. Although team managers' role is limited in improving management systems, HR department should engage line managers in supporting re-engineering processes (Bos-Nehles, 2010; Ulrich, 1997). In addition, HR department assumes a role of *employee champion*, which refers to advocating the needs of employees and providing means (i.e., HR policies) for managing and developing human capital of the organization. In doing so, HR department should give a clear guidance to team managers as to what needs to be done and how to do it (Hunter & Saunders, 2006). Lastly, Ulrich (1997) suggested that HR department should be a *change agent*. It concerns managing transformation and change that the organization puts forward. The role of change agent is, therefore, to enhance employees' competencies in coping with changes to ensure the successful implementation of organizational initiatives (Larsen & Brewster, 2003).

Recent studies suggested that HR function's consultative role make employees positively perceive using HR self-service technology and, subsequently, actual behavior of use (Huang & Martin-Taylor, 2013), and the transfer of HR knowledge to the line is critical in enhancing HR effectiveness, especially when the organization is adopting a institutionally-emerging, new type of HR practices such as HPWS (Ryu & Kim, 2013). Related to this, Bos-Nehles et al. (2013) found that line manager's ability and opportunity are significant predictor for the effectiveness of HRM implementation. Resource allocation theory (Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989) suggests that individual is cognitively limited and, thus, he/she tends to place more emphasis on performing role behaviors that are closely related to individual goal attainment. In other words, team managers may tend to enact core parts of their jobs, and prefer not to perform others (Guest & Bos-Nehles, 2013). Thus, without a proper assistance from HR function, team managers already tied in a load of day-to-day routines may feel burdensome to engage themselves in what perceived as peripheral tasks, thereby being less committed to the HR role. Therefore, this paper presents *HR department's facilitation* (HDF), defining it as the extent to which HR department coordinates the implementation phase, providing means by which espoused HR practices are effectively enforced, and being responsive to meeting customer needs for HR-related inquiries. Also, the current study suggests that HR function's facilitation of the implementation may enhance team managers' effort expectancy because a team manager is enabled to put less time and effort to carrying out HR-related tasks, and the transfer of knowledge required to perform the HR role could improve his/her perception of self-efficacy, or perceived behavioral control (Mathieson, 1991; Thompson, Higgins, & Howell, 1991). Since the preceding discussion established that a team manager's perception toward effort expectancy is positively related to implementation behavior of intended HR practices, this thesis presents the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3-2: Effort expectancy mediates the relationship between HDF and TIHR.

Even if the HRM system is well aligned with the function of a work group, and HR department provides an appropriate support over the implementation processes, the enforcement of espoused HR practices should also be viewed by team managers as socially desirable to derive target behavior

(Taylor & Todd, 1995a, 1995b). For instance, Woodrow and Guest (2014) reported that some line managers are reluctant to enforcing practices designed to minimize workplace bullying and harassment in hospitals since they put a more emphasis on other aspects of their jobs. Studies confirmed that team managers lack the willingness to perform HR roles (Kulik & Bainbridge, 2006) since they often consider operational issues (i.e., a core function of team) prime concern (Whittaker & Marchington, 2003). Here, this paper suggests that top management team (hereafter TMT) may play a significant role in strengthening team managers' HR role perception, thereby ensuring effective implementation (Guest & Bos-Nehles, 2013). TMT has long been recognized in the innovation literature as one of key players in driving the organization to achieve the innovation success. Despite its potential contribution, the SHRM research has relatively been negligent of encompassing top manager's role in its discussion (Guest & Bos-Nehles, 2013; Pak & Chung, 2013). As the implementation of HR practices has recently been accentuated in the SHRM literature (Wright & Nishii, 2013), TMT's role could be treated as a relevant theme.

The innovation literature suggested that an effective TMT exerts a considerable influence on innovation processes in the organization (Thong & Yap, 1995) by influencing organizational members' commitment to initiatives that the organization launches (Daellenbach, McCarthy, & Schoenecker, 1999).

Prior studies confirmed that TMT does so through clear communication on the future (Hansen & Kahnweiler, 1997; Nutt & Backkoff, 1997), continuous sponsorship for change (Kanter, 1985), and creation of innovation-inducing organizational culture (Avolio, 1999). In addition, Rodgers, Hunter, and Rogers (1993) conducted a meta-analysis of 18 studies, and found that the success on management programs (e.g., management by objectives) largely depends on top management's commitment to program implementation. This line of studies highlights that organizational culture is mainly shaped around what senior managers place a strong emphasis on (Schein, 1986). Thus, this thesis proposes *TMT's HR orientation* (THRO), defining it as top management team's distinct and consistent communication on HR strategies, endorsement of intended HR practices, and continuous sponsorship for HRM in order to ensure the effective implementation of espoused HR practices. This research contends that THRO should positively influence team manager's implementation behavior. And the link is bridged specifically with team manager's perception of social influence. The important others (i.e., TMT)'s unwavering emphasis on the implementation could affect team managers' subjective norm that their enforcing espoused HR practices matters (Ajzen, 1991; Mathieson, 1991; Taylor & Todd, 1995a, 1995b). Triandis (1980) called it *social factors*, which consist of individuals' self instruction as to what is considered right and perceived role behavior linked to a specific position in the social system. In a meta-analysis of 75 studies, Tornatsky and Klein (1982) confirmed that the more relevant innovation characteristics are to the norms of individuals, the more likely they adopt the innovation. In addition, it may be that team managers may perceive the enforcement of HR practices in an intended manner as means by which to improve their image or social status in the organization (Moore & Benbasat, 1991). Rogers (1983: 215) noted that "undoubtedly one of the most important motivations for almost any individual to adopt an innovation is the desire to gain social status". It can also be translated into "structural equivalence"; that is, individuals' perception of target action appropriate for their position in the social structure (Burt 1987). Since the prior discussion established that team manager's perception of social influence is positively related to implementation behavior of HR practices, this thesis presents the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3-3: Social influence mediates the relationship between THRO and TIHR.

As the SHRM literature shifts toward recognizing the significance of implementation phase, studies have begun to delineate how the effectiveness of HR enforcement could be ensured by exploring the role of three key actors in HRM; that is, top management, HR department, and front-line managers (Guest & Bos-Nehles, 2013). Here, this paper adds that team managers' evaluation of their teams may also be an important factor in deciding the level of commitment to enforcing espoused HR practices (i.e., HPWS), which has been, to date, unrecognized in the literature. It becomes all the more worthy of attention since HR practices is primarily administered in work groups with managers taking charge of the implementation (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Wright & Nishii, 2013). To be more specific, the thesis argues that consensus among team managers and their subordinates on the implementation of HPWS may influence team managers' *holistic* assessment of whether or not to enforce intended HR practices subject to their work groups. This study calls the phenomenon *intra-team agreement* (ITA) and defines it as the degree to which members of a team concur on enforcing espoused HR practices in the work group.

To begin with, this research puts forward that intra-team agreement may be positively related to team manager's implementation of HPWS and performance expectancy could mediate the relationship. Although HPWS consists of an array of complementary HR practices to improve employees' commitment to their jobs and the organization (Batt, 2002), it is acknowledged that the positive influence of utilizing HPWS on performance is mainly achieved through providing the means by which individuals perform their tasks in autonomy, and get engaged in opportunities to contribute, thereby enhancing intrinsic motivation of employees (Den Hartog & Verburg, 2004; Ehrnrooth &

Bjorkman, 2012). In this light, utilizing HPWS in teams should require a high level of abilities among employees, and team manager’s evaluation of employees’ *current* human capital may play a significant role in empowering members of the work group. It is all the more noteworthy since the degree to which team managers empower subordinates could largely depend on their management style, which may not be formally specified in detail. For instance, if team managers evaluate that their subordinates possess a low level of competencies, they may not have much trust in members of teams, and become reluctant to provide discretion (Johnson, 1972) because team managers could believe that performance may not be improved via empowering their employees. Hersey and Blanchard (1972)’s situational leadership theory suggests that when subordinates have a low level of maturity (i.e., abilities, self-esteem), leaders may be better off by demonstrating task-oriented behaviors (i.e., describing what and how things can be done in a specific manner), minimizing autonomy. On the other hand, subordinates themselves may not accept empowerment since they do not have enough confidence in performing their jobs in discretion or, simply, are afraid of failure in delegation-given tasks (Solem, 1958). Hence, this paper suggests that consensus among work group members on the enforcement of HPWS can be interpreted that they have knowledge, skills and abilities necessary to perform their tasks in autonomy, and team managers appraise that enforcing HR practices that increase empowerment could improve the outcomes of teams.

In a similar vein, the thesis proposes that the relationship between intra-team agreement and implementation behaviors is mediated by effort expectancy. When employees have a low level of trust, tolerance for change, and different cultural values, they may resist management initiatives (Kirkman, Jones, & Shapiro, 2000). Thus, team members' resistance to the utilization of HPWS may hinder team managers from being committed to enforcing intended HR practices in the work group since it could greatly consume cognitive resources of team managers. Conservation of resources theory (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Hobfoll, 1989) suggests that individuals strive to conserve resources (e.g., status, positive feelings) in order to better fulfill objectives. When individuals are placed in situations where such resource are jeopardized or depleted, they are likely to experience stress (Hobfoll, 2001). From this perspective, team managers facing resistance to HPWS enforcement from employees may experience social stressors in forms of perceived failure in their agent roles for the organization or additional time spent dealing with conflicts with subordinates, thereby resulting in a higher level of job strain (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). It is especially noteworthy in that the concept of HPWS originated from the United States and has been diffused to other cultures (Ryu & Kim, 2013). Considering social norms governing the society differ from country to country (e.g., Bae & Lawler, 2000), performance-oriented management practices (i.e., HPWS) may not be considered appropriate in some other cultures (Pak & Chung, 2013). Therefore, agreement among team members on the enforcement of espoused HR practices should become salient in ensuring the effective implementation of HPWS. In other words, the greater team members agree on the implementation of HPWS, the less coordination efforts are required for a team manager. And, thus, the enforcement process is likely to become less a challenge. According to expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), individual motivation is explicated as an evaluation process of alternative choices among voluntary activities. And, it is suggested that individual's choice of carrying out a certain activity is determined by his/her cognitive belief that the target behavior will lead to expected consequences with a tolerable level of effort, and decent outcome desirability. Hence, it may be that team managers commit themselves to enforcing HPWS in their work groups only to the extent that implementing espoused HR practices is believed to conspicuously enhance performance of teams, and the enforcement process does not consume excessive resources of team managers.

Similarly, this thesis also posits that social influence may mediate the relationship between intra-team agreement and team manager's implementation of HPWS. A team is regarded as a group of individuals gathered together to achieve shared goals (Sundstrom et al., 1990). In this light, members of the team should be *important others* to a team manager. Hence, how employees think of HPWS enforcement may be another important factor that influences implementation behavior via social influence. Prior studies confirmed that employee perception of HR practices is decoupled from managerial report of HR practices (Liao et al., 2009) and employees tend to interpret management’s intent behind organizational initiatives (Nishii et al., 2008). Therefore, developing consensus within teams on the enforcement of HPWS may be critical in establishing local normative climate. Agreement is likely to shape when there is a strong attribution to ways in which target behaviors lead to desired outcomes (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Kelly, 1972). And, in teams where behavioral expectations are explicitly communicated, norm can arise formally (Kendall, 2011). Therefore, this study submits that consensus among members of the work group could make a team manager perceive that the implementation of espoused HR practices is socially desirable. Taking discussion so far into account, this thesis hypothesizes as follow.

Hypothesis 3-4: Performance expectancy mediates the relationship between ITA and TIHR.

Hypothesis 3-5: Effort expectancy mediates the relationship between ITA and TIHR.

Hypothesis 3-6: Social influence mediates the relationship between ITA and TIHR.

The Implementation Model of HPWS

Figure 1 shows the conceptual model of this thesis. The primary research question that this thesis posited is: “how could the effective implementation of HPWS be ensured?” Indeed, recent studies have delineated the processes of SHRM (e.g., Guest & Bos-Nehles, 2013; Wright & Nishii, 2013), the current discussion still lacks a comprehensive explanation of ways in which the enforcement of espoused HR practices could be secured. To fill such void, this thesis has attempted to integrate research on line managers, technology acceptance models, and HRM-specific contextual factors into the HPWS literature. By exploring antecedents to the HPWS-performance relationship, what contributes to the intensive implementation of HPWS may directly be addressed. Taking the preceding discussion into account, this research presents the implementation model of HPWS.

The model begins with HRM-specific situational factors that may influence a team manager’s cognitive evaluation toward HPWS implementation. Firstly, the HRM system should be designed sophisticatedly to reflect features of work group’s core functions (MacDuffie, 1995; Wood, 1999). It is because the

HRM-work relevance may be associated with team manager’s motivational significance (Kelman & Hamilton, 1989), which leads to his/her strong belief that enforcing HR practices could result in achievement of work group goals. Secondly, HR department should provide necessary services and guidance over the implementation phase. HR function’s facilitating role is critical to enabling team managers to take charge of the HR role with less time and effort (Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989), and enhance their perception of behavioral control (Mathieson, 1991; Thompson et al., 1991). Thirdly, top management team’s commitment to HR implementation is required. Its clear communication and commensurate resource allocation (i.e., sponsorship) for HR initiatives could make team managers interpret that dealing with HR-related tasks counts in the organization (Ajzen, 1991; Mathieson, 1991; Taylor & Todd, 1995a, 1995b). Lastly, drawing on consensus among team members with regard to the enforcement of HPWS is suggested to be an additional situational factor that may holistically influence team manager’s cognitive evaluation. Intra-team agreement matters since: 1) it may facilitate empowering process (Johnson, 1972; Hersey & Blanchard, 1972; Solem, 1958), which is the primary mechanism through which HPWS influence performance outcomes (Den Hartog & Verburg, 2004; Ehrnrooth & Bjorkman, 2012); 2) it may weaken employee resistance to HPWS enforcement (Kirkman et al., 2000), thereby causing a lower level of job strain for team managers (Wright

& Cropanzano, 1998); 3) it may create a clear behavior-outcome attribution among team members (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004), contributing to the development of local social norm (Kendall, 2011). Thus, four contextual factors could systematically manipulate team managers' attitudes toward HPWS implementation.

Improved expectancies about work group outcomes and effort required to performing target behavior coupled with social pressure imposed on team managers leads to their implementation behavior of espoused HR practices (Venkatech et al., 2003). The more committed team managers are to enforcement in their work groups, the greater local climate could be shaped with regard to HPWS (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Weick, 1995). The utilization of HPWS ultimately results in enhanced team performance by developing human capital, motivating individuals, and providing opportunity to contribute to their teams (Appelbaum, et al., 2000; Delery & Shaw, 2001; Gardner et al., 2011).

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH METHODS

Sample and Data Collection Procedure

To test the proposed model, I contacted 19 Korean companies. They are manufacturers of consumer and industrial goods, organized in teams, and team managers have the responsibility for a large part of HR implementation domain within their work groups. The characteristics of teams in target organizations are comparable to features of a team proposed by Kozlowski and Bell (2003). That is, teams perform tasks pertinent to organizational objectives and have shared goals. The members of a team frequently interact one another, and individuals' tasks are designed interdependently. Also, teams are required to work in collaboration in order to generate higher-level organizational outcomes.

For field data collection, I visited a chief human resource officer (CHRO) or a senior manager of each target organization to discuss the purpose of this study and survey items as needed. Over the course, I also conducted interviews to make sure that the HR practices of the company are designed in accordance with the principles of HPWS. I also reviewed internal archives describing HR policies and HR-related programs. At the end of the process, counterparts from the HR department and I agreed on that the HR practices of the company were generally compatible with HPWS. Additionally, to ensure rigorousness of the thesis, I asked CHRO or a senior manager of each organization to complete a survey for espoused HR practices of the company, and I controlled for the reported values when conducting necessary analyses.

To alleviate common method bias, I separated respondent sources for study variables and used a method of time-lag responses. Specifically, I administered 459 questionnaires in 63 teams. HRM-specific situational factors were evaluated by team members at time 1, and, 4 weeks later, the rest of surveys were completed at time 2 from multiple sources. 336 employees and team managers returned surveys, and two incomplete surveys were excluded. During data collection, this thesis ensured that at least three employee surveys are returned along with a team manager's for each team. On average, intra-team response rate was 79% (c.f., 42% as minimum). Thus, the final sample for hypothesis tests consists of 334 individuals (i.e., 271 team members and 63 team managers) and a response rate was 72.8%. As for members of teams, 64.9% was male with an average age of 34.8. An average work experience was 7.4 years and 70.4% of team members held either 4-year college or graduate degree. As for team managers, 80.9% was male with an average age of 44.5. An average work experience was 17.9 years. As for job group composition of the final sample, management/administration was 46%, manufacturing/technology 9.5%, sales

15.8%, research & development (R&D) 11.3%, and service 17.4%, and team size on average was 7.2.

Measures

Unless otherwise stated, responses were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from *completely disagree* (1) to *completely agree* (5).

HRM-work compatibility (HWC). I first drew on three-item measure of *compatibility* (Moore & Benbasat, 1991), and adjusted wordings to fit the research context. I added two more items derived from interviews with CHRO and senior general managers. They are: “espoused HR practices reflect on the nature of our team's work”; and “espoused HR practices are closely aligned with features of our team's work”. With the five-item measure, I conducted a principal component factor analysis using varimax rotation, and the items were loaded on one factor. Factor loadings ranged from .89 to .91. The total eigenvalue was 4.1, and the cumulative explained variance was 81.2%. Additionally, I conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to examine the factor structure of these items since structural equation modeling is considered an appropriate analytical tool (Takeuchi et al., 2007). The results confirmed that χ^2 = 8.08, *df* = 4, IFI = .99, TLI = .99, CFI = .99, and RMSEA = .06. Thus, it is established that the measure showed a good model fit. Reliability of the scale was above the cutoff value of .70 (α = .94). A full list of items is presented in Table 9.

HR department's facilitation (HDF). To develop the measure, I drew on four relevant items *HR effectiveness* (Wright, McMahan, Snell, & Gerhart. 2001), which properly reflect on the variable definition, and added three items derived from *facilitating conditions* (Thompson et al., 1991). Wordings were adjusted to fit research context. Similarly, I conducted a principal component factor analysis using varimax rotation, and the items were loaded on one factor. Factor loadings ranged from .79 to .86. The total eigenvalue was 4.7, and the cumulative explained variance was 67.5%. In addition, I conducted CFA to examine the factor structure of these items. The results confirmed that $\chi^2 = 33.25$, $df = 12$, IFI = .98, TLI = .97, CFI = .98, and RMSEA = .08. Thus, it is established that the measure showed a good model fit. Cronbach's α was .92. A full list of items is presented in Table 9.

TMT's HR orientation (THRO). I developed the measure predicated upon two-item measure of *CEO commitment to IT* (Powell & Dent-Micallef, 1997). Wordings of the original items were adjusted to fit research context. And then, I added three more items relevant to interviews with CHRO and senior general managers. Sample items include: "our top executives have much interest in managing how espoused HR practices are being implemented in teams"; and “our top executives communicate HR strategies and relevant initiatives, providing resources necessary to ensure an effective implementation of espoused HR practices”. Similarly, I conducted a principal component factor analysis using varimax rotation, and the items were loaded on one factor. Factor loadings ranged from .81 to .87. The total eigenvalue was 3.6, and the cumulative explained variance was 71.8%. Additionally, I conducted CFA to examine the factor structure of these items. The results demonstrated that $\chi^2 = 8.0$, $df = 4$, IFI = .99, TLI = .99, CFI = .99, and RMSEA = .06. Thus, it is established that the measure showed a good model fit. Cronbach’s α was .90. A full list of items is presented in Table 9.

Intra-team agreement (ITA). I developed the measure predicated upon two-item measure of *consensus* (Powell & Dent-Micallef, 1997). Wordings of the original items were adjusted to fit research context. And then, I added three more items relevant to interviews with CHRO and senior general managers. Sample items include: “our team member have a shared agreement with one another on how HR practices are implemented”; and “in our team, a strict enforcement of espoused HR practices matters”. In a similar vein, I conducted a principal component factor analysis using varimax rotation, and the items were loaded on one factor. Factor loadings ranged from .77 to .89. The total eigenvalue was 3.5, and the cumulative explained variance was 70.5%. The results of CFA confirmed that $\chi^2 = 11.8$, $df = 4$, IFI = .99, TLI = .97, CFI = .99, and RMSEA = .09. Thus, it is established that the measure showed a good model fit. Cronbach’s α was .89. A full list of items is presented in Table 9.

Performance expectancy (PE). I drew on four-item measure suggested by Venkatesh et al. (2003). Wordings of the original items were adjusted to fit research context, and team managers rated the instrument. Sample items include: “implementing espoused HR practices enables our team to accomplish tasks more effectively”; and “I would find implementing espoused HR practices useful in our team's work”. Cronbach’s α was .92. A full list of items is presented in Table 9.

Effort expectancy (EE). I used four-item measure developed by Venkatesh et al. (2003). Wordings of the original items were adjusted to fit research context and team managers completed the instrument. Sample items include: “the rules and procedures of enforcing espoused HR practices are clear and understandable”; and “I find espoused HR practices easy to implement”. Cronbach’s α was .86. A full list of items is presented in Table 9.

Social influence (SI). I drew on four-item measure developed by Venkatesh et al. (2003). Wordings of the original items were adjusted to fit research context and team managers rated the scale. Later, I added two more items derived interviews with CHRO and senior general managers. Sample items include: “I think that implementing espoused HR practices in a strict manner is considered socially desirable”; and “I think that there are few who are against the implementation of espoused HR practices”. Similarly, I conducted a principal component factor analysis using varimax rotation, and the items were loaded on one factor. Factor loadings ranged from .60 to .87. The total eigenvalue was 3.6, and the cumulative explained variance was 59.6%. The results of CFA confirmed that $\chi^2 = 11.5$, $df = 8$, IFI = .98, TLI = .96, CFI = .98, and RMSEA = .08. Thus, it is established that the measure showed a reasonable model fit. Cronbach’s α was .86. A full list of items is presented in Table 9.

Team manager’s implementation of espoused HR practices (TIHR). To develop the measure, I initially drew on a comparable construct, *supervisor visibility in demonstrating procedural justice* (Naumann & Bennett, 2000). And then, I conducted semi-structured interviews with 16 MBA/EMBA students enrolled in a graduate school of business to capture anecdotal evidence. After interviews, I extracted meaningful theme and adapted them to the established construct. Finally, I developed a five-item measure for team managers’ implementation of espoused HR practices. Team members completed the instrument. A sample item included, “Many times I have witnessed that my team manager puts a strong emphasis on our participation in HR programs (e.g., training, culture-building activities) even when we are busy working”. With the five-item measure, I conducted a principal component factor analysis using varimax rotation, and the items were loaded on one factor. Factor loadings ranged from .81 to .89. The total eigenvalue was 3.6, and the cumulative explained variance was 71.1%. The results of CFA confirmed that $\chi^2 = 10.8$, $df = 2$, IFI = .99, TLI = .97, CFI = .99, and RMSEA = .09. Thus, it is established that the measure showed acceptable model fit. Also, it is shown that there is a good reliability (α = .90). Table 9 provides a full list of items.

HPWS intensity (HPWSI). To develop the measure, I initially drew on HPWS construct suggested by Takeuchi et al. (2007). Consistent with AMO framework (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Delery & Shaw, 2001; Gardner et al., 2011), I added two more items associated with opportunity-enhancing HR practices from Sun et al. (2007) since the original measure has only one item for the dimension. Wordings are adjusted to fit research context. In order to capture implementation intensity of HPWS, I placed following question at the beginning, "*please compare your actual HR experiences in the team with espoused HR practices (e.g., training, performance appraisal, participation initiatives), and with prescribed rules and procedures embedded in them. How strongly agree or disagree with the following statements?*" And, team members were asked to rate the scale. With the 23-item measure, I conducted a principal axis factoring extraction and, following Takeuchi et al. (2007), imposing a single-factor solution. Factor loadings ranged from .62 to .81. The total eigenvalue was 12.3, and the cumulative explained variance was 53.6%. The results of CFA confirmed that χ^2 = 453.8, df = 205, IFI = .95, TLI = .94, CFI = .95, and RMSEA = .07. Therefore, it is established that the measure showed acceptable model fit. Also, it is shown that there is a good reliability (α = .96). Table 9 provides a full list of items.

Team performance (TP). I utilized four-item scale of Stewart and Barrick (2000). The manager of each team rated team performance using this scale. Team performance was measured based on four categories (knowledge of tasks, quality of work, quantity of work, and overall performance) using a five-point behavior-anchored scale (ranging from 1 = somewhat below the requirements to 5 = consistently exceeds requirements). Team managers were asked to rate the instrument. The Cronbach's alpha for this construct was .83. Table 9 provides a full list of items.

Control variables. Drawing on prior studies, I controlled for such team-level variables as job group, team meeting frequency, team size, and task interdependence. Job group is included to control for variance that may potentially occur in explaining suggested relationships due to differences among teams' core function in the organization. Prior studies (e.g., Guzzo, 1988; Guzzo & Shea, 1992) suggested that the size of team is significantly associated with work group outcomes. The team’s frequency of meetings and task interdependence were found to influence the effectiveness of a team (Brewer & Kramer, 1986; Mitchell & Silver, 1990). Especially, this research utilized espoused HR practices rated by CHROs or senior general managers as a control variable because team-level HPWS and subsequent group performance may simply be a product of strength of intended HR practices subject to each team, regardless of team manager’s commitment to HR roles. By doing so, this thesis may capture a meaningful variance as explained by team-level constructs of interest. Espoused HR practices were measured with 27-item HPWS suggested by Patel, Messersmith, and Lepak (2013). The Cronbach’s alpha for this construct was .81.

Data Aggregation

Data collected from individuals were aggregated to the team (i.e., HWC, ITA, HPWSI), and organization level (i.e., HDF, THRO). To investigate the appropriateness of aggregating responses, this thesis calculated r_{wg} values using a uniform distribution as the null distribution (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984) and intra-class correlation coefficients (*ICCs*) (Bliese, 2000). The r_{wg} value for HWC is .92, which is above the generally acceptable level of .70 (George, 1990) and falls in *very strong agreement* in terms of LeBreton and Senter (2008)’s standards. The *ICC*(1) and *ICC*(2) values for HWC are .23 and .62, respectively (*F* = 2.66, *p* < .001). The *ICC*(1) value exceeded the generally accepted cutoff level of .20 (Bliese, 2000). And, the *ICC*(2) was above cutoff value of .60 (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). Moreover, the result of the *F*-test for HWC was significant, indicating that data aggregation could be justified (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). In a similar vein, calculated values for r_{wg}, *ICC*(1), and *ICC*(2) with regard to THRO were .84, .31, and .71, respectively (*F* = 2.79, *p* < .001). Thus, the aggregation of employee responses to the organizational level was established. In addition, the results confirmed that r_{wg}, *ICC*(1), and *ICC*(2) for HDF were .89, .19, and .58, respectively (*F* = 2.49, *p* < .001). Although r_{wg} exceeded the acceptable level, *ICC*s did not. However, the calculated values of ICCs are comparable to those reported in Takeuchi et al. (2007). Indeed, *ICC*(1) was above the median value of .12 suggested by James (1982). Bliese (2000) recommended investigating all aggregation statistics possible before making a decision. On this matter, Gerhart, Wright, McMahan, & Snell (2000) maintained that the utilization of *ICC*(1) is more appropriate in the SHRM literature. The obtained value of .19 is within the purview of medium effect (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). In addition, single measure intraclass correlation equaled .65 (*F* = 14.82, *p* < .001). According to Richman, Makrides, and Prince (1980), the statistics falls in moderate reliability. Therefore, I decided to HDF responses to the organizational-level. Also, r_{wg}, $ICC(1)$, and $ICC(2)$ were computed for ITA and the obtained values were .90, .34, and .73, respectively (F = 3.78, p < .001), which are all above acceptable level for aggregation. The $ICC(1)$ value of .32 for HPWSI indicated that 32% of the variance in HPWSI among team members can be explained by their team membership (Bliese, 2000). $ICC(2)$ for HPWSI was found to be .71, and r_{wg} .99 (F = 3.46, p < .001. Therefore, there is an empirical support for the emergence of team-level HPWS.

Analytical Strategy

This paper initially examines correlations among study variables, and conducts CFA model comparison as well as adopts other methods, if necessary, so as to establish discriminant and convergent validity among constructs of interest. Here, AMOS 18 is utilized. Once factor structures of constructs are verified, the thesis tests the team-level hypotheses by conducting hierarchical regression analysis using PASW Statistics 18. Specifically, mediation hypotheses are tested with Baron and Kenny (1986)'s procedure, and the significance of mediation effects is reaffirmed by Sobel (1982)'s test. Also, this research adopts the bootstrapping approach enabled by PROCESS (Hayes, 2013), a method preferred over the mediation procedure of Baron and Kenny (1986) to confirm indirect effects. As for the cross-level hypotheses, the thesis utilizes hierarchical linear modeling (HLM). To confirm the significance of mediation effects, this thesis adopts the distribution of the product of coefficients method using RMediation with results obtained from HLM as starting values (Tofighi & MacKinnon, 2011) since PRCESS does not handle the test of multi-level indirect effect.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

Correlations among Study Variables

Table 1 presents correlations of study variables. Consistent with prediction, key constructs are significantly associated. Specifically, HPWSI and TP are correlated (*r* = .40, *p* < .05). TIHR has significant associations with PE (*r* = .60, *p* < .01), EE (*r* = .59, *p* < .01), and SI (*r* = .66, *p* < .01). Moreover, the correlation between HWC and PE is .44 (*p* < .01), For HDF and EE, the correlation is .35 (*p* < .01), and, for THRO and SI, the statistics is of *r* = .32, *p* < .01. In addition, TIHR are related to HDF (*r* = .31, *p* < .01), and THRO (*r* = .36, *p* < .01), but not to HWC. It is noticeable that EHRP is correlated with neither HPWSI nor TIHR. Also, the correlation between TIHR and HPWSI is not significant. This thesis pays a particular attention to relatively high correlations among HRM-specific situational factors (i.e., HWC, HDF, THRO, ITA) with statistics ranging from .59 to .74, and among team manager's cognitive dimensions (i.e., PE, EE, SI) with correlations reaching up to .69. It may be that organizations putting a strong emphasis on HRM are likely to maintain high levels of both HRM-work alignment and facilitating conditions whereas organizations negligent of HRM are unlikely to do so, thereby causing high correlations among contextual factors. Likewise, exposed to such HRM environment, team managers may consistently evaluate the environment in all areas of cognitive dimensions. In fact, HWC, HDF, THRO and ITA are conceptually distinct concepts, and PE, EE and SI are treated separately in prior studies (e.g., Venkatesh et al., 2003). However, this research attempts to establish discriminant and convergent validities among those constructs before testing hypotheses.

Validity of Study Variables

Here, this thesis conducts two sets of CFA model comparisons. One is for HRM-specific situational factors, and the other for team manager's cognitive belief. CFA generates several indices that enable comparing the model fit of the hypothesized factor structure with that of alternative ones (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009). Table 7 presents the results of analyses. As for HRM-specific situational factors, one-factor model (i.e., HWC, HDF, THRO, ITA treated as a single construct) indicated χ^2 = 1485.82, df = 210, χ^2/df = 7.10, incremental fit index (IFI) = .73, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = .71, comparative fit index (CFI) = .73, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .15. According to prior research, values over .90 are acceptable for IFI, TLI, and CFI, and χ^2/df should be below 3 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hall, Snell, & Foust, 1999; Hu &

Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2005). Also, RMSEA is established with less than .10 (Steiger, 1990). Against above guidelines, it is shown that only hypothesized four-factor model (i.e., four situational factors as separate constructs) satisfied cutoff values. That is, four-factor model demonstrated χ^2 = 444.73, *df* = 203, χ^2/df = 2.19, IFI = .95, TLI = .94, CFI = .95, and RMSEA = .07. In a similar vein, one-factor model of team manager's cognitive belief presented χ^2 = 210.96, *df* = 77, χ^2/df = 2.74, IFI = .78, TLI = .73, CFI = .77, and RMSEA = .17. Indices improve with two-factor model but do not satisfy thresholds. Again, hypothesized three-factor model only exceed cutoff values; that is, χ^2 = 96.71, *df* = 72, χ^2/df = 1.34, IFI = .96, TLI = .95, CFI = .96, and RMSEA = .07. In this light, hypothesized factor models established discriminant validities.

As for convergent validity, this paper first checks factor loadings. Table 8 reports relevant values. It is presented that items included in HRM-specific situational factors have factor loadings from .71 to .89, and those in team manager's cognitive belief from .64 to .95. For convergent validity to be established, the factor loadings of each item should exceed the cutoff value of .50 (Hair, et al., 2009). Additionally, this thesis calculates average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR) for each variable. The results show that AVEs for HWC, HDF, THRO, and ITA are .77, .62, .64, and .64 respectively. Also, computed statistics for PE, EE, and SI are .75, .61, and .51, which are above cutoff values of .50. According to Nunnally (1978), the recommended value for CR is over .70. The results indicate that CR for HWC, HDF, THRO, and ITA are .94, .92, .90, and .90 while for PE, EE, and SI, values are.92, .86, and .86 respectively. Table 8 also presents factor loadings, AVEs, and CRs for other study variables, which meet minimum requirements. Thus, convergence validities of constructs are established.

Hypothesis Tests

Although both convergent and discriminant validities were proven, this thesis decided to test hypotheses predicated upon reduced models due to a relatively high correlations among HRM-specific situational factors and team manager's cognitive dimensions coupled with small sample size. Also, multicollinearity was checked with variance inflation factor (VIF), which was found to be below cut-off value of 10, for each path analysis. Hypothesis 1 states that the positive relationship between TIHR and team performance is mediated by HPWSI. Table 2 presents the results of hierarchical regression analysis. After controlling for control variables, Model 2 demonstrated that TIHR is significantly associated with team performance (β = .35, $p < .05$). Also, Model 3 confirmed that HPWS is related to team performance (β = .45, $p < .01$). According to Baron and Kenny (1986)'s procedure for mediation effect, the effect of independent variable (i.e., TIHR) should be reduced for partial mediation, or become insignificant for full mediation while a mediator (i.e., HPWSI) remains significant. In Model 4, it was observed that the effect of TIHR reduce to non-significance. Thus, it was indicated that the relationship between TIHR and team performance is fully mediated by TIHR. The significance of mediation effect was tested consistent with Sobel (1982). The result showed $Z = 1.98$ ($p < .05$). Additionally, this thesis examined the indirect effect using PROCESS (Hayes, 2013). The result presented that the effect size of TIHR on team performance via HPWSI is .20 not including zero (95% CI = [.02, .24]; bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals based on 10,000 bootstrap samples). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is strongly supported.

Hypothesis 2-1, 2-2, and 2-3 suggest that team manager's PE, EE, and SI concerning the enforcement of espoused HR practices in a team are associated with TIHR. Since team manager's cognitive belief is self-reported, this thesis utilized TIHR responded by members of teams so as to mitigate single-source bias. The aggregation of employee-rated TIHR to the team level was justified with r_{wg}, *ICC*(1), and *ICC*(2) of .88, .24., and .63, respectively. In addition, it is shown that TIHR is correlated with PE ($r = .29$, $p < .05$) and SI ($r = .25$, $p < .05$), but not with EE. Cronbach's α for TIHR was .90. Table 3 shows the results of hierarchical regression analysis. With control variables included, Model 2 confirmed that PE is related to TIHR (β = .36, p < .01). Similarly, Model 3 presented the significant relationship between EE and TIHR (β = .31, p < .05). Also, SI was found to be associated with TIHR (β = .26, p < .10). Model 5 included all cognitive dimensions of team managers in predicting TIHR, and the analysis found no significant relationship. All in all, this thesis concludes that there is a moderate support for the link between team manager's cognitive belief and TIHR.

Hypothesis 3-1 states that PE mediates the relationship between HWC and TIHR. Table 4 offers the results of hierarchical regression analysis. Including control variables, Model 2 showed that the insignificant association between HWC and TIHR. Thus, further investigation is futile in terms of Baron and Kenny (1986)'s procedure. However, the examination of indirect effect confirmed that the effect size of HWC on TIHR via PE is .31 and does not include zero (95% CI = [.11, .62]; bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals based on 10,000 bootstrap samples). Also, normal theory tests for indirect effect indicated Z = 2.91, p < .01. Therefore, the mediation hypothesis receives a general support.

Hypothesis 3-2 suggests that EE mediates the relationship between HDF and TIHR. Due to relatively small sample size, this paper kept control variables minimal for cross-level hypotheses. Table 5 presents the results of HLM. Before testing the hypothesis, this paper initially examined the null model to test for between-group variance (Hox, 2010; Mathieu & Taylor, 2007). It is found that there is a significant chi-squared value for TIHR ($\chi^2 = 62.72$, $p < .01$). In addition, an *ICC* estimated in the null model showed that 21% of variance could potentially be explained by a level 2 predictor (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992). The results implied that significant variance existed between groups; thus, this thesis controlled for this variance when testing the hypothesis using two-level HLM. In Model 2, it is shown that HDF is significantly linked to TIHR ($\gamma = .35$, $p < .10$). The effect size reduced non-significance when EE ($\gamma = .15$, $p < .05$) is included in Model 5. However, RMediation analysis demonstrated that the 95% CI for the distribution of the product of the coefficients was [-.48, .26] with random indirect effects of .15. Since zero is included in CI, the suggested mediating relationship was not confirmed. Overall, the hypothesis is partially supported.

Hypothesis 3-3 states that SI mediates the relationship between THRO and TIHR. Model 3 indicated that THRO is significantly associated with TIHR ($\gamma = .40$, $p < .05$). In Model 6, it is shown that SI has a positive relationship with TIHR ($\gamma = .23$, $p < .10$) while the effect size of THRO decreases to non-significance, indicating a full mediation. Similarly, the significance of mediation effect was tested with RMediation. The result demonstrated that the 95% CI for the distribution of the product of the coefficients was [.07, .23] with random indirect effects of .16. With the significant indirect effect, the study concluded that the hypothesis is strongly supported.

Hypothesis 3-4, 3-5, and 3-6 suggest that team manager's PE, EE, and SI mediate the relationship between are ITA and TIHR. Indeed, Model 3 in Table 4 revealed that ITA has a positive relationship with TIHR (β = .30, p < .01). In Model 5, I included all of team manager's cognitive dimensions because the thesis predicted that PE, EE, and SI simultaneously influence TIHR. While the effect size of ITA reduced to non-significance, only SI remain significant (β = .48, p < .01), indicating ITA affects TIHR only through SI. From Baron and Kenny (1986)'s procedure, hypothesis 3-6 is supported (Z = 2.52, p < .05) whereas others are not. Similar patterns are also observed with the results of indirect effects. The analysis demonstrated that the effect size of ITA on TIHR via SI is .28 with 95% CI = [.09, .59], and 95% CI for both PE and EE include zero. Therefore, the thesis rejects hypothesis 3-4 and 3-5 while supports hypothesis 3-6.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

Summary of Findings

Table 7 provides summary of hypothesis tests. The results confirmed that there is general support for the implementation model of HPWS. First, it is demonstrated that team manager’s implementation behavior of espoused HR practices are positively associated with team performance, and the relationship is mediated by HPWS intensity. The result has two meanings. To begin with, it is replication of a recent study conducted by Pak and Kim (in press). In addition, the result was confirmed with EHRP (i.e., espoused HR practices rated by CHRO or senior manager) controlled for. It is consistent with Liao et al. (2009) in that management and employee perception are indeed decoupled. Also, it was shown in the current study that management-rated HPWS is higher than employee-rated one. Nishii & Wright (2007) commented on this matter that managers stand for espoused HR practices where employees report what they are actually experiencing in teams. Also, the result implies the importance of team manager’s implementation behaviors and HPWS intensity shaped by his/her action in predicting performance outcomes in the work group. The effects of implementation behavior of espoused HR practices on team performance via

HPWS intensity support propositions made by Bowen and Ostroff (2004) and situational perspective (Schneider, 1990).

Second, team managers' cognitive evaluation toward the intended HR system is found to be a meaningful predictor for their decision to enforce HR practices following prescribed rules and procedures. Specifically, team manager's perception of performance expectancy, effort expectancy, and social influence were all significantly related to subsequent implementation behaviors. Indeed, the results support theory of planned behavior (Azjen, 1991) and models of technology acceptance (Davis, 1989; Venkatesh et al., 2003).

Third, the relationship between HRM-work compatibility and team manager's implementation was not established in hierarchical regression analysis. Thus, further examination was ineffective in terms of Baron and Kenny (1986)'s procedures. But, the result of indirect effect following Hayes (2013) confirmed that the link between HRM-work compatibility and team manager's implementation is bridged by performance expectancy, which is consistent with organizational fit (Wood, 1999) and motivational significance (Kelman & Hamilton, 1989). Moreover, the analysis showed a significant mediation effect of effort expectancy linking HR department's facilitation to implementation behaviors. The result provides support for resource allocation theory (Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989) and the investigation of HR department roles in facilitating HR implementation (Ulrich, 1997). In addition, the analysis demonstrated social influence connecting TMT's HR orientation with enforcement of intended HR practices. The result is consistent with prior studies on top executives activating core processes by influencing subjective norms or organizational culture (Avolio, 1999; Daellenbach et al., 1999; Hansen & Kahnweiler, 1997; Nutt & Backkoff, 1997; Schein, 1986; Thong & Yap, 1995)

Fourth, as opposed to hypotheses, intra-team agreement only worked through social influence in predicting team manager's implementation. It may be that a shared climate for HPWS implementation among members of teams exerts greater influence on team managers' normative conception instead of affecting their utilitarian dimensions (i.e., costs and benefits of displaying target behaviors) of cognitive belief. The result supports such prior studies as Kendall (2011), where explicitly communicated behavioral expectation creates social norms.

Theoretical Contributions

This paper's major contribution to the literature is to identify factors that directly determine the implement intensity of HPWS and its subsequent outcome. To date, studies have focused on examining the effects of HPWS on performance and the mechanism through which HPWS influences important outcome measures (e.g., Wright et al., 2005; Takeuchi et al., 2009). A similar phenomenon has also been observed where researchers attempted to measure HPWS at the within-organization level (Den Hartog et al., 2009; Liao et al., 2009). This research posited that if there exists variability in enforcement patterns or intensity in the organization, exploring factors that precede HPWS intensity merits more attention. In doing so, this thesis established that the implementation of HPWS is mainly a team-level process (Guest & Bos-Nehles, 2013; Pak et al., 2015; Wright & Nishii, 2013) and, thus, team managers' HR role as an agent for the organization may be a primary factor that forms team-level HPWS intensity (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). Therefore, this research integrated two seemingly distinct SHRM research streams (e.g., studies on first-line managers and the HPWS literature) into a single framework.

The review of the extant research on first-line managers revealed two areas of development. To begin with, the literature lacks the conceptualization that encompasses team manager's specific enforcement behavior. As the SHRM literature increasingly recognize the importance of a proper implementation management (Wright & Nishii, 2013), developing a comparable construct may be useful for future endeavor with an implementation focus. Indeed, Bowen and Ostroff (2004) discussed a potential role that a *visible supervisor* plays in shaping a strong psychological climate (i.e., the HRM strength) among employees. However, the concept has rarely been conceptualized nor tested in empirical settings. Therefore, this study conducted a series of field interviews following Yin (2003)'s qualitative research method in order to capture elements of a visible team manager, and combine them with established measures from the innovation implementation literature (e.g., Choi & Price, 2005; Klein et al., 2001), thereby presenting the construct, team manager's implementation of espoused HR practices.

Another issue of studies on first-line managers is that they agree on the significance of team managers over the implementation phase (Gilbert et al., 2011; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Ryu & Kim, 2013; Sterling & Boxall, 2013). Yet, what remains unclear is the source of team manager's commitment to the implementation of intended HR practices. It is probably because those studies have treated a certain role or behavior of first-line managers as an independent variable in their conceptual frameworks. If first-line managers' fidelity contributes to shaping team-level HPWS intensity, exploring factors that could help explicate their commitment should be a meaningful extension. Thus, this research drew on theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991) to suggest that team manager's implementation behavior is a function of his/her cognitive evaluation that: 1) the enforcement of espoused HR practice leads to improvement in team performance (i.e., performance expectancy); 2) the enforcement process requires the least amount of resource allocation (i.e., effort expectancy); and 3) the important others think that he/she should perform the target behavior (i.e., social influence).

This research paper suggested that examining team manger's cognitive belief as antecedents to actual implementation behavior should be a meaningful pursuit, but is not sufficient in reflecting a more complete picture of HRM implementation. Thus, this thesis further extended the discussion into identifying HRM-specific factors that influence team manager's evaluation patterns concerning the enforcement of intended HR practices. First, this thesis drew on Wood (1999) concept of organizational fit, the congruence between the HRM system and the work design. According to Paauwe et al. (2013), the compatibility between HRM and work has relatively been paid little attention among researchers. Second, HR department's facilitation was presented, which refers to the extent to which HR department coordinates the implementation phase, providing means by which espoused HR practices are effectively enforced, and being responsive to meeting customer needs for HR-related inquiries (Ulrich, 1997). Third, TMT's HR orientation was discussed, which relates to top management team's distinct and consistent communication on HR strategies and on-going sponsorship for HRM in order to ensure the effective implementation of espoused HR practices. Although TMT's importance has greatly been acknowledged in the innovation literature (Thong & Yap, 1995), the SHRM literature has not given commensurate attention to its role over the HRM implementation. Fourth, intra-team agreement among team members on the enforcement of HPWS was suggested to be a meaningful antecedent to influencing team managers' implementation decision. The literature on the implementation of HPWS has mainly focused on the roles of key actors (i.e., TMT, HR department, FLM) in ensuring the effectiveness of HRM (Guest & Bos-Nehles, 2013). This paper extended the extant discussion by suggesting that team's shared expectation may also manipulate team manager's cognitive evaluation toward the enforcement of HPWS, subsequently influencing actual implementation behavior.

Here, this research contributes to the SHRM literature by emphasizing the significance of the HRM-work compatibility and identifying specific roles that each key HR actor should assume over the implementation phase and consensus among team members which, taken together, positively influence team manager's fidelity in the implementation of espoused HR practices. To best of my knowledge, it is the first empirical study that encompasses the role of three key HR players and intra-team agreement in a single framework. Each actor has been a subject of interest in separate research stream in the SHRM literature. And, team's shared expectation over the implementation phase has been underaddressed in the literature. The purpose of this research is to delineate a comprehensive framework that may provide an answer to *what needs to be done* to enhance the implementation effectiveness of HPWS. Taking all discussion into account, this thesis presented the implementation model of HPWS.

Practical Implications

Drawing on prior studies, the present study has made clear that the implementation of HPWS is primarily a team-level phenomenon and, thus, team managers play a pivotal role in ensuring the quality of HR strategies that the organizations formulate. In this light, the question, “how could the organization improve its team managers’ commitment to HR roles?”, is quintessential for the effectiveness of HRM. This thesis has developed an integrated framework, which offers practitioners useful guidelines. Team manager’s enforcement of intended HR practices, which ultimately leads to the implementation intensity of HPWS and subsequent outcomes, was found to be a product of positive cognitive evaluation toward HRM-specific situational factors. Thus, ways through which team managers’ cognition is systematically manipulated should merit more attention. That is, any targeted action of the organization should be geared toward shaping affirmative perception of team managers; that is, communicating how adopted HR practices improves team performance (i.e., performance expectancy), how team managers get supported (i.e., effort expectancy), why people management matters so much in the organization (i.e., social influence), and why espoused HR practices are rigorously applied to management of teams (i.e., intra-team agreement).

To be more specific, a high level of alignment between espoused HR practices and characteristics of work is important since it enhances team managers' motivational significance. Thus, heavily involving team managers in the process of HR policy development may increase their acceptance of espoused HR practices. Also, developing uniform HR policies subject to all teams in the organization should be avoided while team-specific contingencies should be reflected on to the greatest possible. It was confirmed that HR department's support and coordination significantly predict team manager's implementation behaviors. Already locked in daily routines, team managers are likely to feel reluctant to put aside time and effort for HR roles. To alleviate, HR department should develop and operate at excellence HR services to effectively respond to issues or inquiries during the implementation phase. To do so, both e-HRM systems and HR operation team should be strengthened. In addition, the gap between espoused and realized HR practices should be kept minimal. Hence, providing team managers with regular training programs before important HR decisions (e.g., appraisal) are made is to ensure the effective enforcement of HR practices since exposure to continuous training/development may bring about incremental changes in attitudes and behavior of team managers.

As in any other change initiatives, the role of top management team cannot be emphasized enough. Team manager having normative pressure from above are more likely to act in accordance with rules and procedures embedded in espoused HR practices. Therefore, top executives' ongoing communication on HRM, and commensurate sponsorship in HR-related initiatives could enhance team managers' perception of social influence, thereby influencing implementation behaviors of intended HR practices. The current study concluded that consensus among members of a team on strictly enforcing HR policies is a significant predictor for team manager's implementation. For team managers, it is necessary to persuade their subordinates to accept espoused HR practices by articulating why enactment of performance-oriented HR practices is important and what benefits members of the teams are to receive. More importantly, team managers are responsible for cultivating performance-oriented team culture. To do so, rigorous and fair application of prescribed HR policies to their work groups is essential in a consistent manner.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

Despite its theoretical contributions, this thesis has several limitations, which offer meaningful avenues for future investigation. First, although the use of time-lag method separated responses to HRM-specific situational factors and team manager's implementation behavior (H3s) with a four-week term, the link for team manager's implementation leading to team performance was rated simultaneously (H1). Indeed, the current research utilized multiple sources for examining the relationship. However, a causal relationship could not be established. Thus, future study is needed with a longitudinal research design. Second, a relatively small sample size (*N*=63) hindered the thesis from acquiring a supporting evidence for full models. In fact, it may not incur serious problems in inferring the relationships among study variables since mediation hypotheses were supported with reduced models, and reaffirmed with bootstrapping methods (Hayes, 2013), which is a more popular solution than Baron and Kenny (1986)'s four-step procedure. But, this paper suggests that the proposed links be tested with a bigger sample. In a similar vein, it should be acknowledged that organizational-level variables (i.e., HDF, THRO) fall short of acceptable level of sample size (*N*=19), which should, although proposed relationships were partially supported, be reaffirmed with a larger sample in future endeavor. This thesis ascribes unsupported hypotheses mainly to the size of sample, not necessarily to theoretical foundation for suggested relationships. Third, the current research has focused on conceptualizing team-level implementation intensity of HPWS and its antecedents. For this reason, the mechanism through which HPWS intensity leads to team performance was out of scope. There is a theoretical void, which explicates particular team-level processes of the relationship between HPWS and team performance. For example, drawing on role theories (Biddle, 1979), and such team interaction processes as exchanging information, learning, motivating, and negotiating among members of teams (Tierney & Farmer, 2002) may be a worthwhile pursuit. Fourth, the thesis has emphasized team manager's commitment to enacting intended HR practices in their work groups and, as antecedents, suggested cognitive belief toward the HRM context (i.e., Venkatesh et al., 2003). Therefore, this paper is limited in considering affective side of team manager's decision to enact intended HR practices. For instance, according to Choi and Price (2005), a team manager's implementation behavior may also be a function of fit between he/her personal values and those embedded in change initiatives (i.e., HPWS). It becomes all the more significant when norms governing the society (i.e., seniority-oriented) are discrepant from espoused performance-oriented HR practices (Pak & Chung, 2013). Thus, further research needs to explore a broader range of determinants for implementation behaviors. Fifth, the thesis has positioned team manager's implementation as a primary source for HPWS intensity. Although a number of HRM-specific situational factors are discussed, they were delineated to play peripheral roles in influencing team-level HPWS (i.e., indirect effects via team manager's implementation). For example, the research suggests that HR department and top management team are important actors over the implementation process of HR practices. Thus, future research should merit more attention to examining how these key actors exert influence on HPWS implementation. Especially, the roles of top management team have been the center of inquiries in the innovation implementation literature (e.g., Klein et al., 2001; Powell & Dent-Micallef, 1997). However, the SHRM literature has been short of the issue compared with attention given to HR department. As the SHRM literature recognizing the importance of implementation, research examining the roles of senior executives over the enactment phase meaningfully adds to the extant literature. Sixth, this paper introduced intra-team agreement on enactment of HPWS as a factor that makes team managers perceive normative pressure with regard to rigorously enforcing intended HR practices, which predicts actual implementation behavior. Here, this paper suggests that future research be needed to explore other potential factors that may enhance subjective norm. For instance, a team manager's evaluation of other team managers' fidelity in HR implementation may also influence his/her decision to enact HR practices in an intended manner, or commitment to HR roles in the work group. Last, to my knowledge, this study is the first attempt to explicate an integrated framework for guiding the effective implementation of HPWS. In its early stage, the implementation process model has kept simple and straightforward. Thus, future research should further explore micro-dynamics (i.e., mediation, moderation) involved in suggested relationships.

A Concluding Note

This thesis set out to answer “how can the effective implementation of HPWS be ensured?” From theoretical perspective, it directs us to explore antecedents to within-organization HPWS, the territory of which has been a veil over the past two decades while examining mechanisms through which HPWS affects performance outcomes has been the center of enquiries in the SHRM literature. Also, the current attempt has embodied hitherto a conceptual discussion of HRM process models by taking it into the empirical arena. To practitioners, this research offers specific guidelines worth considering when formulating HR strategies. The thesis forms the opinion that HPWS research with implementation focus is in the embryonic stage. I hope that the current study provides a meaningful direction in future endeavor.

TABLE 1. Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Cronbach's Alphas of Study Variables

Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Job group	2.57	1.77	-														
2. TMF	2.54	1.82	.18	-													
3. Team size	7.17	2.24	.12	.25*	-												
4. TID	3.63	.63	-.17	.38**	.10	(.65)-											
5. EHRP	3.78	.22	.31*	.01	-.05	.21	(.81)										
6. HWC	3.11	.56	.13	.16	.05	-.29*	-.03	(.94)									
7. HDF	3.11	.38	.40	.33	.07	.37	.27	.66**	(.94)								
8. THRO	3.34	.58	.27	.26	.01	.32	.22	.63**	.74**	(.95)							
9. ITA	3.29	.59	.10	.10	-.36*	.11	-.13	.74**	.72**	.59**	(.89)						
10. PE	3.13	.80	.05	.24	.23	.12	.25	.44**	.42**	.46**	.44**	(.92)					
11. EE	3.28	.66	.03	.36*	.40**	.14	.07	.31*	.35**	.23**	.34**	.69**	(.86)				
12. SI	3.41	.64	.06	.27*	.34**	-.02	-.05	.36**	.34**	.32**	.50**	.68**	.68**	(.86)			
13. TIHR	3.63	.68	.09	.35**	.31*	.16	.25	.20	.31**	.36**	.32*	.60**	.59**	.66**	(.90)		
14. HPWSI	3.20	.49	.19	.11	.00	-.20	-.01	.53**	.40**	.48**	.47**	.45**	.37**	.38**	.23	(.96)	
15. TP	3.71	.58	-.17	.12	.30*	-.05	.00	.36**	.34**	.41**	.41**	.49**	.36**	.45**	.37*	.40*	(.83)

Note. *N* = 63. HDF and THRO are aggregated to the organizational level (*N* = 19). Cronbach's alpha values are in parentheses along the diagonal. TMF = team meeting frequency. TID = task interdependence. EHRP = espoused HR practices. HWC = HR-work compatibility. HDF = HR department's facilitation. THRO = TMT's HR orientation. ITA = intra-team agreement. PE = performance expectancy. EE = effort expectancy. SI = social influence. TIHR = team manager's implementation of espoused HR practices. HPWSI = high performance work systems intensity. TP = team performance.

* p < .05; ** p < .01

TABLE 2. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Team Performance

Variables	**Model 1**	**Model 2**	**Model 3**	**Model 4**
Job group	-.51(.05)	-.51(.04)	-.24(.04)	-.23(.04)
TMF	.07(.05)	-.02(.05)	.00(.04)	-.05(.04)
TID	.27(.13)	.19(.13)	.26(.17)*	.21(.12)
Team Size	-.09(.03)	-.10(.03)	.26(.03)	.01(.03)
EHRP	.08(.36)	-.01(.35)	.09(.32)	.03(.33)
TIHR		.35(.12)*		.24(.11)
HPWSI			.45(.14)**	.40(.14)**
R^2	.12	.21	.30	.35
ΔR^2	.12	.09	.18	.13
ΔF	1.12	6.60*	14.77**	11.17**

Note. *N* = 63. Standardized coefficients and standard errors are shown. TMF = team meeting frequency. TID = task interdependence. EHRP = espoused HR practices. TIHR = team manager’s implementation of espoused HR practices. HPWSI = high performance work systems intensity.

† p < .10; *p < .05; **p < .01.

TABLE 3. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting TIHR by Team Manager's Cognitive Evaluation

Variables	**Model 1**	**Model 2**	**Model 3**	**Model 4**	**Model 5**
Job group	.17(.04)	.18(.04)	.16(.04)	.14(.04)	.17(.04)
TMF	.09(.04)	.02(.04)	.02(.04)	.04(.04)	.01(.04)
TID	-.04(.12)	-.10(.11)	-.14(.12)*	-.12(.12)	-.12(.12)
Team Size	-.26(.03)	-.26(.03)	-.27(.03)	-.23(.03)	-.26(.03)
EHRP	-.02(.33)	-.11(.32)	-.04(.32)	-.01(.32)	-.10(.34)
PE		.36(.09)**			.28(.13)
EE			.31(.11)*		.12(.16)
SI				.26(.11) †	-.01(.16)
R^2	.09	.20	.16	.15	.20
ΔR^2	.09	.11	.08	.06	.11
ΔF	1.11	7.51**	5.07*	3.88 †	2.57 †

Note. *N* = 63. Standardized coefficients and standard errors are shown. TIHR = team manager's implementation of espoused HR practices. TMF = team meeting frequency. TID = task interdependence. EHRP = espoused HR practices. PE = performance expectancy. EE = effort expectancy. SI = social influence.

† p < .10; *p < .05; **p < .01.

TABLE 4. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting TIHR by Situational Factors via Cognitive Evaluation

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Job group	.00(.05)	-.03(.05)	-.07(.05)	.03(.04)	-.07(.04)	-.06(.05)
TMF	.26(.05) †	.22(.05) †	.21(.05) †	.18(.05)	.14(.04)	.17(.05)
TID	.22(.14) †	.22(.14) †	.17(.13)	.14(.13)	.03(.12)	.08(.13)
Team Size	.02(.04)	.10(.04)	.18(.04)	-.00(.04)	.09(.03)	.01(.04)
EHRP	.25(.39) †	.25(.39)*	.29(.37)*	.11(.36)	.26(.34)*	.27(.37)
HWC		.20(.09)		-.06(.16)		-.27(.09)
ITA			.30(.14)**		.07(.14)	.30(.09)
PE				52(.11)**	.06(.13)	.10(.09)
EE					.17(.15)	.13(.09)
SI					.48(.16)**	.41(.09)**
R^2	.23	.26	.35	.44	.57	.58
ΔR^2	.23	.03	.12	.18	.22	.33
ΔF	3.31*	2.49	10.48**	17.21**	8.88**	4.00**

Note. *N* = 63. Standardized coefficients and standard errors are shown. TIHR = team manager’s implementation of espoused HR practices. TMF = team meeting frequency. TID = task interdependence. EHRP = espoused HR practices. PE = performance expectancy. HWC = HR-work compatibility. ITA = intra-team agreement. PE = performance expectancy. EE = effort expectancy. SI = social influence.

† p < .10; *p < .05; **p < .01.

TABLE 5. Results of HLM Predicting TIHR by Situational Factors via Cognitive Evaluation

Variables	Null Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7
Intercept	3.41(.17)**	3.36(.16)**	3.30(.12)**	3.24(.13)**	3.32(.13)**	3.32(.13)**	3.36(.14)**
Job group		.02(.08)	.01(.07)	.03(.04)	-.07(.04)	.04(.06)	.05(.05)
Team Size		-.01(.05)*	-.01(.05)	-.00(.04)	-.01(.03)	.-01(.02)	-.01(.04)
HDF			.35(.17) †		.28(.14)		.26(.15)
THRO			.	.40(.22)*		.29(.20)	.27(.20)
EE					.15(.17)*		.12(.17)
SI						.23(.11) †	.20(.10)
σ^2	.31				.		
τ_{00}	.20						
Pseudo-R^2	.20	.22	.37	.34	.30	33	.29
χ^2	62.72**	50.61**	46.77**	40.59**	49.39**	47.12**	53.45**

Note. Parameter estimate and standard error are shown. Level 1 ($N = 63$) variables are group-mean centered. Level 2 ($N = 19$) variables are grand-mean centered. σ^2 indicates variance in Level 1 residuals. τ_{00} indicates variance in Level 2 residuals. Pseudo-R^2 values are calculated consistent with the protocol in Kreft and De Leeuw (1998). TIHR = team manager's implementation of espoused HR practices. TMF = team meeting frequency. TID = task interdependence. EHRP = espoused HR practices. HDF = HR department's facilitation. THRO = TMT's HR orientation. EE = performance expectancy. SI = social influence.

† $p < .10$; *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$.

TABLE 6. Results of Bootstrapping for Indirect Effects

Model	Effect Estimate	SE	LLCI	ULCI
H1: TIHR → HPWSI → TP	.20	.05	[.02	.24]
H3-1: HWC → PE → TIHR	.31	.10	[.11	.62]
H3-2 HDF → EE → TIHR	.15	.09	[-.48	.26]
H3-3: THRO → SI → TIHR	.16	.08	[.07	.23]
H3-4: ITA → PE → TIHR	.04	.12	[-.22	.26]
H3-5: ITA → EE → TIHR	.05	.07	[-.06	.24]
H3-6: ITA → SE → TIHR	.28	.13	[.09	.59]

Note. Level 1 (*N* = 63). Level 2 (*N* = 19) Indirect effect estimates and standard errors are shown. The single level indirect effect and confidence interval are computed with PROCESS (Hayes, 2013), and the cross-level with RMediation (Tofighi & MacKinnon, 2011). LLCI = lower limit confidence interval. ULCI = upper limit confidence interval. TIHR = team manager's implementation of espoused HR practices. HPWSI = high performance work systems intensity. TP = team performance. PE = performance expectancy. EE = effort expectancy. SI = social influence. HWC = HR-work compatibility. HDF = HR department's facilitation. THRO = TMT's HR orientation. ITA = intra-team agreement.

TABLE 7. Summary of Hypothesis Tests

Model	Baron & Kenny (1986)		Sobel (1982)	Hayes (2013)	Tofighi & MacKinnon (2011)
	Reduced Model	*Full Model*			
H1: TIHR → HPWSI → TP	N/A	supported	significant	supported	N/A
H2-1: PE → TIHR	supported	rejected	N/A	N/A	N/A
H2-2: EE → TIHR	supported	rejected	N/A	N/A	N/A
H2-3: SI → TIHR	supported	rejected	N/A	N/A	N/A
H3-1: HWC → PE → TIHR	rejected	rejected	significant	supported	N/A
H3-2 HDF → EE → TIHR	supported	rejected	N/A	N/A	rejected
H3-3: THRO → SI → TIHR	supported	rejected	N/A	N/A	supported
H3-4: ITA → PE → TIHR	rejected	rejected	insignificant	rejected	N/A
H3-5: ITA → EE → TIHR	rejected	rejected	insignificant	rejected	N/A
H3-6: ITA → SI → TIHR	supported	supported	significant	supported	N/A

Note. TIHR = team manager’s implementation of espoused HR practices. HPWSI = high performance work systems intensity. TP = team performance. PE = performance expectancy. EE = effort expectancy. SI = social influence. HWC = HR-work compatibility. HDF = HR department’s facilitation. THRO = TMT’s HR orientation. ITA = intra-team agreement.

TABLE 8. Model Comparisons

Factor Structure	χ^2	*df*	χ^2/df	IFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
HRM-specific Situational Factors							
Four-factor Model	444.73	203	2.19	.95	.94	.95	.07
Three-factor Model	668.86	206	3.25	.90	.89	.90	.09
Two-factor Model	986.27	208	4.74	.84	.82	.84	.12
One-factor Model	1485.82	210	7.10	.73	.71	.73	.15
Team Manager's Cognitive Belief							
Three-factor Model	96.71	72	1.34	.96	.95	.96	.07
Two-factor Model	158.62	76	2.10	.86	.83	.86	.13
One-factor Model	210.96	77	2.74	.78	.73	.77	.17

Note. HRM-specific situational factors (*N*=271). Team manager's cognitive belief (*N*=63). IFI = incremental fit index. TLI = Tucker-Lewis index. CFI = comparative fit index. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.

TABLE 9. Validity of Study Variables

Survey Items	Factor Loadings	AVE	CR
HRM-work Compatibility (HWC)			
1. Espoused HR practices are compatible with all aspects of our team's work.	.86		
2. Espoused HR practices fit well with the way we work.	.86		
3. Espoused HR practices fit into our work style.	.88	.77	.94
4. Espoused HR practices reflect on the nature of our team's work.	.89		
5. Espoused HR practices are closely aligned with features of our team's work.	.87		
HR Department's Facilitation (HDF)			
1. The HR department is performing its job the way I would like it to be performed.	.77		
2. This department is very responsive to meeting customer (front line managers and employees) needs.	.73		
3. This department provides with me useful and timely information regarding HR issues.	.78		
4. The HR department has developed a well-coordinated set of policies, practices, and procedures to help ensure the effective implementation of HR practices.	.83	.62	.92
5. Guidance from HR department is available over the implementation phase of espoused HR practices.	.79		
6. HR department's specialized instruction concerning the implementation of espoused HR practices is available to me.	.79		

7. HR department is available for assistance with the implementation difficulties.	.80		
TMT's HR Orientation (THRO)			
1. Our top executives have clearly indicated their commitment to HRM.	.87	.64	.90
2. Our top executives have championed HRM within the company.	.85		
3. Our top executives have a strong will in ensuring the implementation of espoused HR practices.	.76		
4. Our top executives have much interest in managing how espoused HR practices are being implemented in teams.	.71		
5. Our top executives communicate HR strategies and relevant initiatives, providing resources necessary to ensure an effective implementation of espoused HR practices	.82		
Intra-team Agreement (ITA)			
1. There is consensus on the enforcement of espoused HR practices in our team.	.82	.64	.90
2. We have little conflict between a team manager and members of the team concerning the implementation of espoused HR practices	.87		
3. In our team, a strict enforcement of espoused HR practices matters.	.72		
4. Our team members have a shared agreement with one another on how HR practices are implemented.	.81		
5. We do not experience conflict over the implementation phase of espoused HR practices.	.75		
Performance Expectancy (PE)			
1. I would find implementing espoused HR practices useful in our team's work.	.72	.75	.92
2. Implementing espoused HR practices enables our team to accomplish tasks more effectively.	.91		
3. Implementing espoused HR practices increases our team's productivity.	.87		
4. If I implement espoused HR practices, I will increase my chances of getting a raise.	.95		

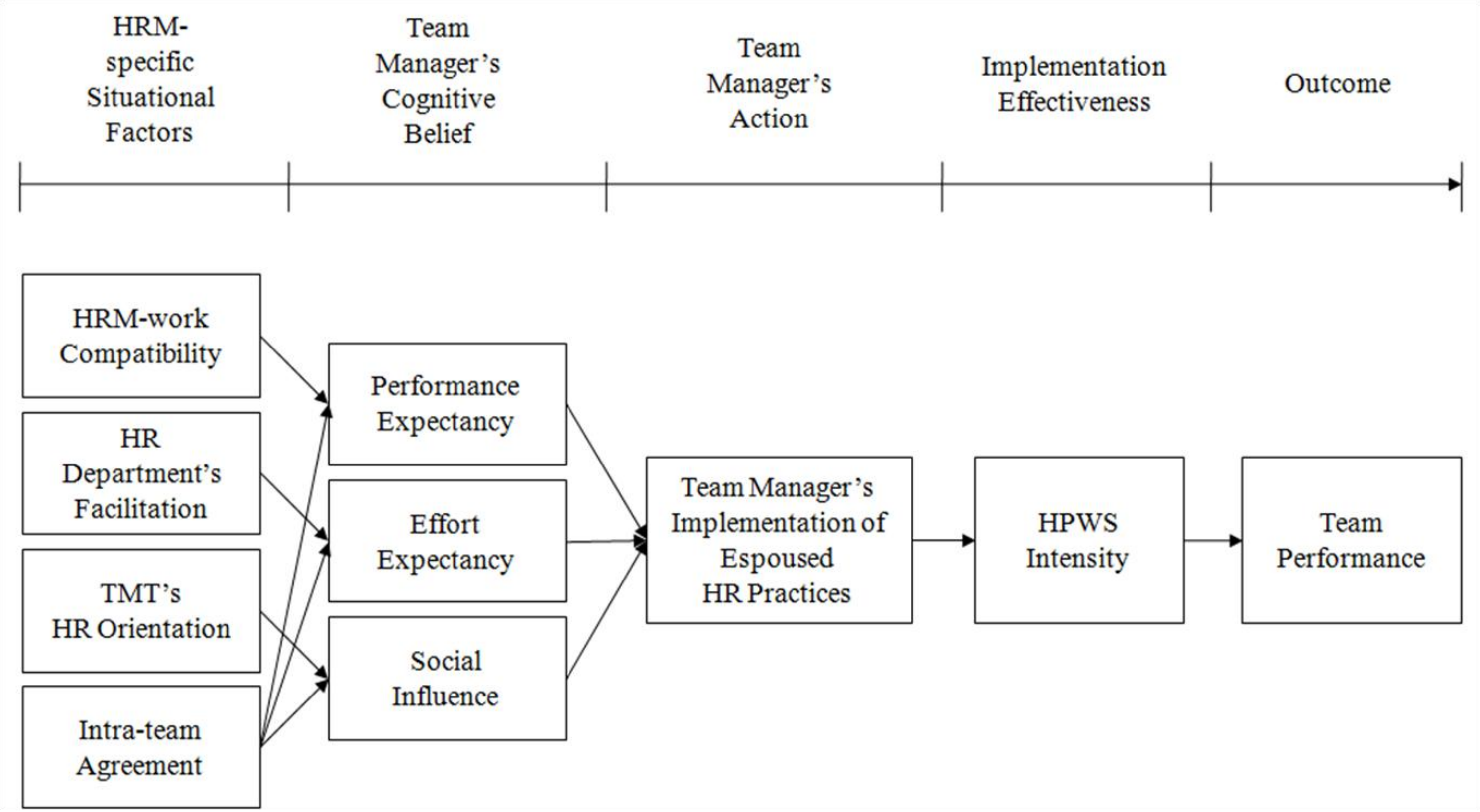
Effort Expectancy (EE)			
1. The rules and procedures of enforcing espoused HR practices are clear and understandable.	.64	.61	.86
2. It is easy for me to become knowledgeable in enforcing espoused HR practices.	.77		
3. I find espoused HR practices easy to implement.	.85		
4. Learning to operate the HRM system is easy for me.	.84		
Social Influence (SI)			
1. People who influence my behavior think that I should implement espoused HR practices.	.66	.51	.86
2. People who are important to me think that I should implement espoused HR practices.	.69		
3. I think that implementing espoused HR practices in a strict manner is considered socially desirable.	.65		
4. I think that there are few who are against the implementation of espoused HR practices.	.79		
5. The senior management of this business has created the implementation climate of espoused HR practices	.75		
6. In general, the organization has emphasized the implementation of espoused HR practices.	.72		
Team Manager's Implementation of Espoused HR Practices (TIHR)			
1. I act as an enthusiastic advocate of the HR policies of our company.	.78	.65	.90
2. I clearly communicate HR-related initiatives or changes in our work group.	.80		
3. I implement HR practices, strictly following corporate HR processes.	.74		
4. I put a strong emphasis on our participating in HR programs (e.g., training, culture-building activities), even when we are busy working.	.86		
5. I emphasize following HR processes and gives team members clear guidance over the course of HR implementation.	.86		

High Performance Work Systems Intensity (HPWSI)			
1. Employees are involved in job rotation.	.73		
2. Employees are empowered to make decisions.	.72		
3. Employees in this team are allowed to make decisions.	.60		
4. Employees are provided the opportunity to suggest improvements in the way things are done.	.60		
5. Jobs are designed around their individual skills and capabilities.	.71		
6. Selection is comprehensive (uses interviews, tests, etc.).	.74		
7. Selection emphasizes their ability to collaborate and work in teams.	.78		
8. Selection involves screening many job candidates.	.80		
9. Selection focuses on selecting the best all-around candidate, regardless of the specific job.	.60		
10. Selection emphasizes promotion from within.	.73	.51	.96
11. Selection places priority on their potential to learn (e.g., aptitude).	.67		
12. Training is continuous.	.71		
13. Training programs are comprehensive.	.70		
14. Training programs strive to develop firm-specific skills and knowledge.	.59		
15. The training programs emphasize on-the-job experiences.	.80		
16. Performance is based on objective, quantifiable results.	.82		
17. Performance appraisals include management by objective with mutual goal setting.	.78		
18. Performance appraisals include developmental feedback.	.78		
19. Incentives are based on team performance.	.76		

20. Compensation packages include an extensive benefits package.	.72		
21. Our compensations include high wages.	.71		
22. The incentive system is tied to skill-based pay.	.64		
23. Our compensation is contingent on performance.	.63		
Team Performance (TP)			
1. Knowledge of tasks	.83	.58	.84
2. Quality of work	.92		
3. Quantity of work	.53		
4. Overall performance	.70		

Note. Employee-rated variables (*N*=271). Team manager-rated items (*N*=63). AVE = average variance extracted. CR = composite reliability. Factor loadings are derived from confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). In AMOS 18, standardized regression coefficients are equivalent to factor loadings. HRM-specific situational factors (i.e., HWC, HDF, THRO, ITA) were rated at time 1 by members of teams. Team manager’s cognitive belief (i.e., PE, EE, SI) and TIHR were measured at time 2 by team managers. HPWSI was rated at time 2 by members of teams. TP was measured at time 2 by team managers.

FIGURE 1. The Implementation Model of High Performance Work Systems


HRM-specific Situational Factors
Team Manager's Cognitive Belief
Team Manager's Action
Implementation Effectiveness
Outcome
HRM-work Compatibility
HR Department's Facilitation
TMT's HR Orientation
Intra-team Agreement
Performance Expectancy
Effort Expectancy
Social Influence
Team Manager's Implementation of Espoused HR Practices
HPWS Intensity
Team Performance

REFERENCES

Amit, R., & Schoemaker, P. J. 1993. Strategic assets and organisational rent. *Strategic Management Journal*, 14: 33–46.

Andersen, K.K., Cooper, B.K., & Zhu, C.J. 2007. The effect of SHRM Practices on Perceived Firm Financial Performance: Some Initial Evidence from Australia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 45: 168-179.

Appelbaum, E., Bailey, T., Berg, P., & Kalleberg, A. 2000. *Manufacturing advantage: Why high performance work systems pay off*. Ithaca, NY: ILR Press.

Arthur, J.B. 1994. Effects of human resource systems on manufacturing performance and turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(3): 670-687.

Ajzen, I. 1985. From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckmann (Eds.), *Action control: From cognition to behavior,* 11-39. Berlin, Heidelber, New York: Springer-Verlag.

Ajzen, I. 1991. The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 50 (2): 179-211.

Ajzen, I. 2002. Perceived Behavioral Control, Self-Efficacy, Locus of Control, and the Theory of Planned Behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 32: 665-683.

Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. 1980. *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behaviour*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Avolio, B. J. 1999. *Full leadership development: Building the vital forces in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., Murry, W. D., & Sivasubramaniam, N. 1996. Building highly developed teams: Focusing on shared leadership processes, efficacy, trust, and performance. *Advances in Interdisciplinary Studies of Work Teams,* 3: 173-209.

Bae, J., & Lawler, J. J. 2000. Organizational and HRM strategies in Korea: Impact on firm performance in an emerging economy. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43: 502–517.

Bandura, A. 1977. *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Barney, J. B., & Wright, P. M. 1998. On becoming a strategic partner: The role of human resources in gaining competitive advantage. *Human Resource Management,* 37: 31-46.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. 1986. The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research - Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations**.** *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6): 1173-1182.

Bartel, A. P. 2004. Human resource management and organizational performance: evidence from retail banking. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review*, 57(2): 181-203.

Batt, R. 2002. Managing customer services: Human resource practices, quit rates, and sales growth, *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(3): 587-97.

Becker, B., & Gerhart, B. 1996. The Impact of Human Resources Management on Organizational Performance: Progress and Prospects. *Academy of Management Journal,* 39: 779-802.

Becker, B.E., & Huselid, M.A. 1998. High performance work systems and firm performance: A synthesis of research and managerial implications. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 16: 53-101.

Biddle, B. J. 1979. *Role theory: Expectations, identities, and behaviors*. New York: Academic Press.

Bliese, P. D. 2000. Within-group agreement, non-independence, and reliability: Implications for data aggregation and analysis. In K. J. Klein & S. W. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions and new directions*: 349-381. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bond, S., & Wise, S. 2003. Family leave policies and devolution to the line. *Personnel Review,* 32(1): 58-72.

Boon, C., den Hartog, D. N., Boselie, P., & Paauwe, J. 2011. The relationship between perceptions of HR practices and employee outcomes: Examining the role of person-organisation and person-job fit. *International Journal of Human Resource Management,* 22(1): 138-162.

Borman, W. C. 1991. Job behavior, performance, and effectiveness. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage, 271-326.

Bos-Nehles, A. 2010. *The Line makes the difference: LMs as effective HR partners*. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation. University of Twente.

Bos-Nehles, A. C., van Riemsdijk, M., & Looise, J. K. 2013. Employee Perceptions of Line Management Performance: Applying the AMO Theory to Explain the Effectiveness of Line Managers' HRM Implementation. *Human Resource Management,* 52(6): 861-877.

Bowen, E., & Ostroff, C. 2004. Understanding HRM–firm performance linkages: The role of the "strength" of the HRM system. *Academy of Management Review,* 29: 203–221.

Boxall, P., Ang, S. H., & Bartram, T. 2011. Analysing the “black box” of HRM: Uncovering HR goals, mediators, and outcomes in a standardized service environment. *Journal of Management Studies,* 48: 1504–1532.

Boxall, P., & Macky, K. 2009. Research and theory on high performance work systems: Progressing the high involvement stream. *Human Resource Management Journal,* 19: 3-23.

Brewer, M. B., & Kramer, R. M. 1986. Choice behavior in social dilemmas: Effects of social identity, group size, and decision framing. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 50: 543-549.

Brewster, C., & Larsen, H. H. 1992. Human resource management in Europe: Evidence from ten countries. *Journal of International Management*, 3: 409-433.

Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. 1993. Alternative ways of assessing model fit. In K. A. Bollen and J. S. Long (Eds.), *Testing structural equation models*: 136-162. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Bryk, A.S., & Raudenbush, S.W. 1992. *Hierarchical Linear Models: Applications and Data Analysis Methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Burt, R. S., 1976. Interpretational Confounding of Unobserved Variables in Structural Equation Models. *Sociological Methods & Research,* 5: 3-52.

Caballer, A., Gracia, F., & Peiro, J. M. 2005. Affective responses to work process and outcomes in virtual teams: Effects of communication media and time pressure. *Journal of Management Psychology*, 20(3-4), 245-260.

Campbell, J. P., McCloy, R. A., Oppler, S. H., & Sager, C. E. 1993. A theory of performance. In J. Schmitt, & W. C. Borman (Eds.), *Personnel Selection in Organizations*, 35‒69. San Francisco: Jossey–Bass.

Chaiken, S., Wood, W., & Eagly, A. H. 1996. Principles of persuasion. In E. T. Higgins & A. W. Kruglanski (Eds.), *Social psychology: Handbook of basic principles*, 702–744. New York: Guilford Press.

Choi, J. N., & Price, R. H. 2005. The effects of person-innovation fit on individual responses to innovation. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 78:* 83-96.

Combs, J., Liu, Y., Hall, A., & Ketchen, D. 2006. How much do high performance work practices matter?: A meta analysis of their effects on organizational performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 59: 501-528.

Cook, F. L. 2001. Human resource strategy to improve organizational performance: a route for firms in Britain? *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 3: 321-339.

Cooper, R.B., & Zmud, R.W. 1990. Information Technology Implementation Research: A Technology Diffusion Approach. *Management Science,* 36(2):123–139.

Cunningham, I., & Hyman, J. 1999. Devolving human resource responsibilities to the line: Beginning of the end or a new beginning for personnel?. *Personnel Review, 28*: 9-27.

Currie, G., & Procter, S. 2001. Exploring the relationship between HR and middle managers. *Human Resource Management Journal,* 11(3): 53-69.

Daellenbach, U. S., McCarthy, A. M., & Schoenecker, T. S. 1999. Commitment to innovation: The impact of top management team characteristics. *R&D Management*. 29:199-208.

Danford, A., Richardson, M., Pulignano, V., & Stewart, P. 2008. Lean production and quality of working life on the shop–floor: The experience of British and Italian car workers. In V. Pulignano, P. Stewart, A. Danford, & M. Richardson (Eds.), *Flexibility at work: Critical developments in the international automobile industry*. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Datta, D. K., Guthrie, J. P., & Wright, P. M. 2005. Human resource management and labor productivity: Does industry matter? *Academy of Management Journal*, 48*:* 135–145.

Davis, F. D. 1989. Perceived Usefulness, Perceived Ease of Use, and User Acceptance of Information Technology. *MIS Quarterly* 13(3): 319-339.

Delaney, J. T., & Huselid, M. A. (1996). The impact of human resource management practices on perceptions of organizational performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39: 949-969.

Delery, J. E., & Doty, D. H. 1996. Modes of theorizing in strategic human resource management: Tests of universalistic, contingency, and configurational performance predictions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39: 802–835.

Delery, J. E., & Shaw, J. D. 2001. The strategic management of people in work organizations: synthesis and extension. In G. R. Ferris (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resource management*, 20: 165-197. Greenwich, CT: JAI.

Den Hartog, D. N., Boon, C., Verburg, R. M., & Croon, M. A. 2013. HRM, Communication, Satisfaction, and Perceived Performance: A Cross-Level Test. *Journal of Management*, 39(6): 1637-1665.

Den Hartog, D.N., & Verburg, R.M. 2004. High performance work systems, organizational culture and perceived organizational effectiveness. Human Resource Management Journal, 14: 55-78.

DiMaggio, P., & Powell, W. 1983. The iron cage revisited: institutional isomorphism and collective rationality in organizational fields. *American Sociological Review*, 48: 147–160.

Dragoni, L. 2005. Understanding the emergence of state goal orientation in organizational work groups: the role of leadership and multilevel climate perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90: 1084-1095.

Ehrnrooth, M., & Bjorkman, I. 2012. An integrative HRM process theorization: Beyond signalling effects and mutual gains. *Journal of Management Studies, 49*: 1109–1135.

Fiske, S. T., & Taylor, S. E. 1991. *Social cognition* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw–Hill.

Fu, N., Flood, P. C., Bosak, J., Morris, T., & O’Regan, P. 2013. Exploring the performance effect of high performance work system on service supply chain in professional service firms. *Supply Chain Management: An International Journal*, 18: 292-307.

Gardner, T. M., Wright, P. M., & Moynihan, L. M. (2011). The impact of motivation, empowerment, and skill-enhancing practices on aggregate voluntary turnover: The mediating effect of collective affective commitment. *Personnel Psychology, 64*(2): 315-350.

Gerhart, B., & Milkovich, G.T. 1990. Organizational differences in managerial compensation and financial performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33: 663-691.

Gerhart, B., Wright, P. M., McMahan, G. C., & Snell, S. A. 2000. Measurement error in research on human resources and firm performance: How much error is there and how does it influence effect size estimates? *Personnel Psychology*, 53: 803-834.

Gilbert, C., De Winnea, S., Selsa, L. 2011. The influence of line managers and HR department on employee’s affective commitment. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(8): 1618-1637.

Godard, J. 2004. A critical assessment of the high performance paradigm. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 42: 349-378.

Grandey, A., & Cropanzano, R. 1999. The conservation of resources model applied to work-family conflict and strain. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 54: 350-370.

Gratton, L., & Truss, C. 2003. The three-dimensional people strategy: Putting human resources policies into action. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 17: 74-86.

Guest, D. 1999. Human resource management – the workers verdict, *Human Resource Management Journal*, 9(3): 5-25.

Guest, D. 2011. Human resource management and performance: still searching for some answers. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 21(1): 3-13.

Guest, D.E. & Bos-Nehles, A.C., 2013. HRM and Performance: the role of effective implementation. In D.E. Guest, J. Paauwe, & P. Wright (Eds.), *HRM and performance: Achievements and challenges*. 79-96. Wiley-Blackwell, Chichester.

Guthrie, J. P. 2001. High-involvement work practices, turnover, and productivity: Evidence from New Zealand. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44: 180-190.

Guzzo, R. A. 1988. Financial incentives and their varying effects on productivity. In P. Whitney & R. B. Ochsman (Eds.), *Psychology and productivity*. 81-92. New York: Plenum Press.

Guzzo, R. A., & Noonan, K. A., 1994. Human resource practices as communications and the psychological contract. *Human Resource Management*, 33: 447-462.

Guzoo, R. A., & Shea, G. P. 1992. Group performance and intergroup relations in organization. In M. D. Dunnette, & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*. 269-313. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Hair, J. F., Jr., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. 2009. *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hall, R. L., Snell, A. F., & Foust, M. S. 1999. Item parceling strategies in SEM: Investigating the subtle effects of unmodeled secondary constructs. *Organizational Research Methods*, 2(3): 233-256.

Hall, L., & Torrington, D. 1998. *The Human Resource Function: The Dynamics of Change and Development*. London: Financial Times – Pitman Publishing.

Hansen, C. D., & Kahnweiler, W. M. 1997. Executive managers: cultural expectations through stories about work. *Journal of Applied Management Studies*, 6: 117-138.

Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., & Hayes, T. L. 2002. Business–unit–level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement and business outcomes: A meta–analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87: 268-279.

Hayes, A. F. 2013. *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York, NY: Guilford.

Heavey, A. L., Beijer, S., Federman, J., Hermans, M., Klein, F., McClean, E., & Martinson, B. 2013. Measurement of human resource practices: Issues regarding scale, scope, source and substantive content. In D. E. Guest, J. Paauwe, & P. M. Wright (Eds), *HRM and performance: Achievements and challenges*: 97–110. Chichester: Wiley.

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. 1972. *Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing human resources* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc

Hill, C. W. L., & McShane, S. L. 2006. *Principles of Management*. McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *The American Psychologist*, 44: 513-524.

Hobfoll, S. E. 2001. The influence of culture, community, and the nest-self in the stress process: Advancing conservation of resources theory. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 50: 337-421.

Hox, J. J. 2010. *Multilevel Analysis: Techniques and Applications*. New York: Routledge.

Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. 1999. Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6(1): 1-55.

Huang, J., & Martin-Taylor, M. 2013. Turnaround user acceptance in the context of HR self-service technology adoption: an action research approach. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(3): 621-642.

Hunter, I., & Saunders, J. 2006. *HR business partners*. London: Gower Publishing, Ltd.

Huselid, M. A. 1995. The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity, and corporate. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38: 635-672.

Hutchinson, S. & Purcell, J. 2010. Managing ward managers for roles in HRM in the NHS: overworked and under-resourced. Human Resource Management Journal, 20(4): 357-374.

Ichniowshil, C., & Shaw, K. 1999. The effects of human resource management systems on economic performance: An international comparison of U.S. and Japanese plants. *Management Science*, 45: 704–721.

Ichniowski, C., Shaw, K., & Prennushi, G. 1997. The effects of human resource management practices on productivity: A study of steel finishing lines. *American Economic Review*, 87: 291-313.

James, L. R. 1982. Aggregation bias in estimates of perceptual agreement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 6: 219-229.

James, L. R., Demaree, R. G., & Wolf, G. 1984. Estimating within-group interrater reliability with and withoutresponse bias. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69: 85-98.

James, L. R., James, L. A., & Ashe, D. K. 1990, The meaning of organizations: the role of cognition and values. In B. Schneider (Ed.), *Organizational climate and culture*, 40-84. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Jensen, J. M., Patel, P. C., & Messersmith, J. G. 2013. High‒performance work systems and job control: Consequences for anxiety, role overload, and turnover intentions. *Journal of Management*, 39: 1699-1724.

Jiang, K., Lepak, D. P., Hu, J., & Baer, J. C. 2012. How does human resource management influence organizational outcomes? A meta-analytic investigation of mediating mechanisms. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(6): 1264-1294.

Jiang, K., Takeuchi, R., & Lepak, D. P. 2013. Where do We Go From Here? New Perspectives on the Black Box in Strategic Human Resource Management Research. *Journal of Management Studies*, 50: 1448-1480.

Johnson, T. 1972. *Professions and power*. London: Macmillan.

Kanfer, R., & Ackerman, P. L. 1989. Motivation and cognitive abilities: An integrative/aptitude-treatment interaction approach to skills acquisition. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74: 657-690.

Kanter, R. M. 1985. Managing the human side of change. *Management Review*. 74: 52-56.

Kelly, H. H. 1967. Attribution theory in social psychology. *Nebraska symposium on motivation*, 15: 192–238.

Kelley, H. H. 1972. Causal schemata and the attribution process. In E. E. Jones, D. E. Kanouse, H. H. Kelley, R. E. Nisbett, S. Valins, & B. Weiner (Eds.), *Attribution: Perceiving*

*the causes of behavior***.** 151-174. Morristown, NJ: General Learning Press.

Kendall, D. 2011. *Sociology in our times: the essentials* (8th ed.) Cengage Learning.

Kelman, H. C., & Hamilton, V. C. 1989. *Crimes of obedience: Toward a social psychology of authority and responsibility*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Khilji, S. E., & Wang, X. 2006. ‘Intended’and ‘implemented’HRM: The missing linchpin in strategic human resource management research. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17: 1171-1189.

Kirkman, B. L., Jones, R., & Shapiro, D.L. 2000. Why do employees resist teams?: Examining the “resistance barrier” to work team effectiveness. *The International Journal of Conflict Management*, 11(1): 74-92.

Klein, K. J., Conn A. B., & Sorra, J. S. 2001. Implementing Computerized Technology: An Organizational Analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(5): 811-824.

Klein, K. J. & Kozlowski, S. W. J. 2000. From micro to meso: Critical steps in conceptualizing and conducting multilevel research. *Organizational Research Methods,* 3: 211-236.

Kline, R.B. 2005. *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. NY: Guilford Press.

Koys, D. J. 2001. The effects of employee satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover on organizational effectiveness: A unit level, longitudinal study. *Personnel Psychology,* 54: 101-114.

Kozlowski, S. W. J., & Bell, B. S. 2003. Work groups and teams in organizations. In W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology: Industrial and organizational psychology*, 12: 333-375. London: Wiley.

Kozlowski, S. W. J., & Klein, K. J. 2000. A multilevel approach to theory and research in organizations: Contextual, temporal, and emergent processes. In K. J. Klein & S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and new directions*, 3-90. San Francisco, CA, US: Jossey-Bass.

Kulik, C.T., & Bainbridge, H.T. 2006. HR and the line: The distribution of HR activities in Australian organizations. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 44 (4): 240-256.

Lado, A. A., & Wilson, M. C. 1994. Human resource systems and sustained competitive advantage: A competency based perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 19: 699-727.

Larsen, H. H., & Brewster, C. 2003. Line management responsibility for HRM: What is happening in Europe? *Employee Relations*, 25: 228-244.

Larson, F., & La Fasto, C. 1989. *Teamwork: What must go right/what can go wrong*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

LeBreton, J. M., & Senter, J. L. 2008. Answers to 20 questions about interrater reliability and

interrater agreement. *Organizational Research Methods*, 11: 815-852.

Lee, Y., Kozar. K. A., & Larsen, K. R. T. 2003. The Technology Acceptance Model: Past, Present and Future. *Communications of the Association for information systems*, 12(50): 752-780.

Legge, K. 2005. *Human resource management: Rhetorics and Realities*. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave-MacMillan.

Lepak, D. P., Liao, H., Chung, Y., & Harden, E. E. 2006. A conceptual review of human resource management systems in strategic human resource management research. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 25: 217–271.

Lepak, D. P., & Snell, S. A. 1999. The human resource architecture: Toward a theory of human capital allocation and development. *Academy of Management Review*, 24: 31-48.

Lepak, D. P., & Snell, S. A. 2002. Examining the human resource architecture: The relationship among human capital, employment, and human resource configurations, *Journal of Management*, 28: 517-543.

Li, X., Frenkel, S. J., & Sanders, K. 2011. Strategic HRM as process: How HR system strength and organizational climate influence Chinese employee attitudes. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22: 1825–1842

Liao, H., Toya, K., T., Lepak, D. P., & Hong, Y. 2009. Do they see eye to eye? Management and employee perspectives of high–performance work systems and influence processes on service quality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94: 371-391.

MacDuffie, J.P., 1995. Human resource bundles and manufacturing performance: Organizational logic and flexible production systems in the world auto industry. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 48(2): 197-221.

Marchington, M. 2001. Employee involvement at work. In J. Storey (Ed.) Human resource management: A critical text: 232-252. Padstow, UK: Thomson Learning.

Marler, J.H., & Dulebohn, J. H. 2005. A model of employee self-service technology acceptance. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 24: 137-180.

Mathieson, K. 1991. PredictingU ser Intentions:C om-paring the Technology Acceptance Model with the Theory of Planned Behavior. *Information Systems Research*, 2(3): 173-191.

Mathieu, J. E., & Taylor, S. R. 2007. A framework for testing meso-mediational relationships in Organizational Behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28(2): 141-172.

McGovern, P., Gratton, L., Hope-Hailey, V., Stiles, P., & Truss, C. 1997. Human resource management on the line? *Human Resource Management Journal*, 7 (4): 12-29.

Messersmith, J. G., Patel, P. C., Lepak, D. P., & Gould-Williams, J. 2011. Unlocking the black box: exploring the link between high-performance work systems and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96: 1105–1118.

Meyer, J. W., & Rowan, B. 1977. Institutionalized organizations: Formal structure as myth and ceremony. *American Journal of Sociology*, 83: 340–363.

Meyer, J. W. 1994. Rationalized environment. In W. R. Scott, J. W. Meyer, & Associates (Eds.), *Institutional environments and organizations: Structural complexity and individualism*: 28-54. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

McGuire, W. J. 1972. Attitude change: The information processing paradigm. In C. G. McClintock (Ed.), Experimental social psychology, 108-141. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Milgrom, P., & Roberts, J. 1995. Complementarities and fit. Strategy, structure, and organizational change in manufacturing. *Journal of Accounting and Economics*, 19:179-208.

Mitchell, T. R., & Silver, W. W. 1990. Individual and group goals when workers are interdependent: Effects on task strategies and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75: 185-193.

Moore,G . C., & Benbasat, I. 1991. Development of an instrument to measure the perceptions of adopting an information technology innovation. *Information Systems Research*, 2(3): 192-222.

Naumann, S. E., & Bennett, N. 2000. A case for procedural justice climate: Development and test of a multilevel model. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43: 881-889.

Nehles, A. C., van Riemsdijk, M. J., Kok, I., & Looise, J. C. 2006. Implementing human resource management successfully: The role of first-line managers. *Management Review*, 17(3): 256-273.

Nishii, L. H., & Wright, P. M. 2007. Variability within organizations: Implications for strategic human management. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University. (CAHRS Working Paper #07–02). *Retrieved from http://digitalcommons.ilr.cornell.edu/cahrswp/467*.

Nishii, L. H., Lepak, D. P., & Schneider, B. 2008. Employee attributions of the “why” of HR practices: Their effects on employee attitudes and behaviors, and customer satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, 61: 503–545.

Nunnally, J. C. 1978. *Psychometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Nutt, P. C, & Backoff, R. W. 1997. Crafting vision. *Journal of Management Inquiry,* 6: 308-328.

Paauwe, J., Wright, P., & Guest, D. 2013. HRM and Performance:What do we know and where should we go?. In D. E. Guest, J. Paauwe, & P. M. Wright (Eds), *HRM and performance: Achievements and challenges*: 1-13. Chichester: Wiley.

Pak, J., & Chung, G. H. 2013. Top management commitment to HRM, visibilities, and HRM gap: A qualitative approach. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Academy of Management, Orlando, FL.

Pak & Kim (in press) Team manager's implementation, high performance work systems intensity, and performance: A multilevel investigation, *Journal of Management*

Pak, J., & Kim, S. 2016. Effects of team manager visibility in the implenmation of high performance work systems on performance. Paper presented at the Academy of Management, the 2016 Second HR Division International Conference, Sydney, Australia.

Pak, J., Kim, S., & Li, L. Z. 2015. The effects of an innovation-inducing HRM system on the innovation performance of teams and the mediating effects of team creative processes. *Korean Journal of Management*, 23(2): 131-157.

Pak, J. Kim, S., & Park, K. 2016. Employee perception of high performance work systems and its outcomes: Moderating effects of individual goal orientation. Korean Management Review, 45(1): 121-150

Parker, C. P., Baltes, B. B., Young, S. A., Huff, J. W., Altmann, R. A., Lacost, H. A., & Roberts. 2003. Relationships between psychological climate perceptions and work outcomes: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24: 389-416.

Patel, P. C., Messersmith, J. G., & Lepak, D. P. 2013. Walking the tightrope: An assessment of the relationship between high-performance work systems and organizational ambidexterity. Academy of Management Journal, 56: 1420-1442.

Poole, M., & Jenkins, G. 1997. Responsibilities for Human Resource Management Practices in the Modern Enterprise; Evidence from Britain. *Personnel Review,* 26: 333-356.

Powell, T. C., & Dent-Micallef, A. 1997. Information technology as competitive advantage: The role of human, business and technology resources. *Strategic Management Journal,* 18(5): 375-405.

Purcell, J., & Hutchinson, S. 2007. Front–line managers as agents in the HRM–performance causal chain: theory, analysis and evidence. *Human Resource Management Journal*. 17: 3–20.

Ramsey, H., Scholarios, D., & Harley, B. 2000. Employees and high performance work systems: Testing inside the black box. *British Journal of Industrial Relations,* 38: 501-531.

Rentsch, J. R. 1990. Climate and culture: Interaction and qualitative differences in organizational meanings. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*: 668-681.

Renwick, D., & MacNeil, C.M. 2002. Line Manager Involvement in Careers. *Career Development International,* 7: 40.

Richman, J., Makrides, L., & Prince, B. 1980. Research methodology and applied statistics. Part 3: Measurement procedures in research. *Physiotherapy Canada*, 32: 253-257.

Rogers, E. M., 1983. *Diffusion of Innovations*, (3rd Ed.). New York: The Free Press.

Ross, L., & Nisbett, R. E. 1991. *The person and the situation: Perspectives of social psychology*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

Russell, J. S., Terborg, J. R. & Powers, M. L. 1985. Organisational performance and organisational level training and support. *Personnel Psychology*, 38: 849-863.

Ryan, A. M., Schmit, M. J., & Johnson, R. 1996. Attitudes and effectiveness: Examining relations at an organizational level. *Personnel Psychology*, 49: 853-882.

Ryu, S., & Kim, S. 2013. First–line managers' HR involvement and HR effectiveness: The case of South Korea. *Human Resource Management,* 52(6): 947-966.

Sanders, K., Dorenbosch, L., & DeReuver, R. 2008. The impact of individual and shared employee perceptions of HRM on affective commitment: Considering climate strength. *Personnel Review*, 37: 412–425.

Schein, E. 1986. Organizational culture and leadership (2nd ed). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

Schippers, M. C., Den Hartog, D. N., Koopman, P. L., & Wienk, J. A. 2003. Diversity and team outcomes: The moderating effects of outcome interdependence and group longevity and the mediating effect of reflexivity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24(6): 779-802.

Schneider, B. 1990. The climate for service: An application of the climate construct. In B. Schneider (Ed.), *Organizational climate and culture,* 383-412. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schuler, R. 1989. Strategic human resource management and industrial relations. *Human Relations, 42*: 157-184.

Schuler, R. S., & Jackson, S. E. 1987. Linking competitive strategies with human resource management practices. *Academy of Management Executive*, 1: 207–219.

Scott, W. R. 1994. Institution and organizations: toward a theoretical synthesis. In W. R. Scott, & J. Meyer (Eds.), *Institutional environments and organizations: structural complexity and individualism.* 55-80. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Solem, A. R. 1958. An Evaluation of Two Attitudinal Approaches to Delegation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 42: 36-39.

Steiger, J. H. 1990. Structural model evaluation and modification: An interval estimation approach. *Multivariate Behavioral Research,* 25(2): 173-180.

Sterling, A. & Boxall, P. 2013. Lean production, employee learning and workplace outcomes: A case analysis through the ability-motivation-opportunity framework. *Human Resource Management Journal,* 23(3): 227-240.

Stewart, G. L., & Barrick, M. R. 2000. Team structure and performance: Assessing the mediating role of intrateam process and the moderating role of task type. *Academy of Management Journal,* 43: 135-148.

Sobel, M. E. 1982. Asymptotic confidence intervals for indirect effects in structural equation models. In Samuel Leinhardt (Ed.) *Sociological Methodology*. 290-312. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Storey, J. 1992. *Developments in the Management of Human Resources,* Oxford: Blackwell.

Subramony, M. 2009. A meta–analytic investigation of the relationship between HRM bundles and firm performance. *Human Resource Management,* 48: 745–768.

Sun, L., Aryee, S., & Law, K. S. 2007. High-performance human resource practices, citizenship behavior, and organizational performance: a relational perspective. *Academy of Management Journal,* 50: 558-577.

Sundstrom, E., DeMeuse, K. P., & Futrell, D. 1990. Work teams: Applications and effectiveness. *American Psychologist*, 45: 120-133.

Takeuchi, R., Chen, G., & Lepak, D. P. 2009. Through the looking glass of a social system: Cross–level effects of high–performance work systems on employees' attitudes. *Personnel Psychology*, 62: 1–29.

Takeuchi, R., Lepak, D. P., Wang, H., & Takeuchi, K. 2007. An empirical examination of the mechanisms mediating between high-performance work systems and the performance of Japanese organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 92: 1069-1083.

Taylor, S., & Todd, P. A. 1995a. Assessing IT Usage: The Role of Prior Experience. *MIS Quarterly*, 19(2): 561-570.

Taylor,S ., & Todd, P. A. 1995b. Understanding Information Technology Usage: A Test of Competing Models. Information Systems Research 6(4): 144-176.

Terpstra, D. E., & Rozell, E. J. 1993. The relationship of staffing practices to organizational level measures of performance. *Personnel Psychology,* 46: 27-48.

Tierney, P., & Farmer, S. M. 2002. Creative self-efficacy: Its potential antecedents and relationship to creative performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45: 1137-1148.

Thompson, R. L., Higgins, C. A., & Howell, J. M. 1991. Personal Computing: Toward a Conceptual Model of Utilization. *MIS Quarterly*, 15(1): 124-143.

Thong, J., & Yap, C. 1995. CEO characteristics, organizational characteristics and information technology adoption in small businesses. *Omega*, 23: 429-442.

Tofighi, D., & MacKinnon, D. P. 2011. RMediation: An R package for mediation analysis confidence intervals. *Behavior Research Methods*, 43: 692-700.

Tornatzky, L. G., & Klein, K. J. 1982. Innovation characteristics and innovation adoption-implementation: A meta-analysis of findings. *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management*, 29(1): 28-45.

Triandis, H. C. 1980. Values, attitudes, and interpersonal behavior. In H. Howe & M. Page (Eds.), *Nebraska symposium on motivation*, 195–295. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.

Ulrich, D. 1997. *Human Resource Champions: The next agenda for adding value and delivering results*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Ulrich, D., & Brockbank, W. 2005. *The HR value proposition*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Van Dyne, L., Kossek, E., & Lobel, S. 2007. Less need to be there: Cross-level effects of work practices that support work-life flexibility and enhance group processes and group-level OCB. *Human Relations*, 60(8): 1123-1154.

Van Raaij, E. M., & Schepers, J. J. L. 2008. The acceptance and use of a virtual learning environment in China. *Computers & Education*, 50(3): 838–852.

Van Veldhoven, M. 2005. Financial performance and the long-term link with HR practices, work climate and job stress. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 15: 30–53.

Venkatesh, V., & Davis, F. D. 2000. A Theoretical Extension of the Technology Acceptance Model: Four Longitudinal Field Studies. *Management Science,* 46(2): 186-204.

Venkatesh, V., Morris, M., Davis, G.B., and Davis, F.D. 2003. User Acceptance of Information Technology: Toward a Unified View. *MIS Quarterly,* 27(3): 425-78.

Vroom, V. H. 1964. *Work and motivation*. New York: Wiley.

Wall, T., & Wood, S. 2005. The romance of human resource management and business performance, and the case for big science. *Human Relations*, 58: 429-462.

Weick, K. E. 1995. *Sensemaking in organizations*. Thousands Oaks: Sage Publications Inc.

Whittaker, S., & Marchington, M. 2003. Devolving HR responsibility to the line: threat, opportunity or partnership? *Employee Relations*, 36: 3: 245-261.

Wixom, B.H., & Todd, P.A. 2005. A Theoretical Integration of User Satisfaction and Technology Acceptance. *Information Systems Research*, 16(1): 85-102.

Wood, S. 1999. Human resource management and performance. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 1: 367-413.

Wood, S., & Albanese, M. T. 1995. Can we speak of a high commitment management on the shop floor? *Journal of Management Studies*, 32: 215–247.

Woodrow, C., & Guest, D. E. 2014. When good HR gets bad results: Exploring the challenge of HR implementation in the case of workplace bullying. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 24: 38-56.

Wright, P. M., Gardner, T. M., Moynihan, L. M., & Allen, M. R. 2005. The relationship between HR practices and firm performance: Examining causal order. *Personnel Psychology*, 58: 409–446.

Wright, P. M., & McMahan, G. C. 1992. Theoretical perspectives for strategic human resource management *Journal of Management*, 18 (2): 295-321.

Wright, P. M., McMahan, G., Snell, S., & Gerhart, B. 2001. Comparing line and HR executives’ perceptions of HR effectiveness: Services, roles, and contributions. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 40: 111-124.

Wright, P. M., & Nishii, L. 2013. Strategic HRM and organizational behaviour: Integrating multiple levels of analysis. In D. E. Guest, J. Paauwe, & P. M. Wright (Eds), *HRM and performance: Achievements and challenges*: 97–110. Chichester: Wiley.

Wright, T. A., & Cropanzano, R. 1998. Emotional exhaustion as a predictor of job performance and voluntary turnover. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83: 486-493.

Yin, R. K. 2003. *Case study research: Design and methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Youndt, M.A., Snell, S.A., Dean, J.W., & Lepak, D.P. 1996. Human resource management, manufacturing strategy, and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(4): 836-866.

Zacharatos, A., Barling, J., & Iverson, R. D. 2005. High-performance work systems and occupational safety. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90: 77-93.

Zander, A. 1983. *Making groups effective*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publisher.

< 국문 초록>

고성과 작업시스템에 대한 실행 모형의 개발 및 검증

서울대학교 대학원
경영학과 경영학 전공
박 종 욱

최근 고성과 작업시스템의 실행에 대한 관심이 높아지고 있다. 이는 고성과 작업시스템이 조직 성과에 미치는 긍정적인 영향에 대한 합의가 아직까지 이루어지지 못한 점 그리고 도입된 인사제도가 실제로는 조직 내에서 상이한 방식으로 실행될 가능성을 인식한데 기인한다. 하지만, 기존의 연구를 살펴보면 아직까지 실행 문제를 명확하게 논점화 하지는 못한 것으로 판단된다. 먼저, 실행 상황에 대한 연구자들의 관심은 고성과 작업시스템을 유닛(unit) 및 개인과 같은 조직 내 수준에서 측정하고 다양한 성과 변수들과의 작용 관계를 밝히는데 한정되어 있다. 즉, 고성과 작업시스템의 실행 과정에서 조직 내 가변성(variability)이 관찰된다면 왜 그런 현상이 나타나는지에 대한 체계적인 접근이 아직까지 부족하다는 것이다. 한편, 최근 몇몇 연구자들은 전략적 인적자원관리의 프로세스(process) 모형을 제안하였지만, 이들의 연구는 가변성을 형성케 할 수 있는 주요 요인들을 정리한 리뷰(review)형식을 띄고 있어 고성과 작업시스템의 효과적인 실행을 위한 제언을 도출하기에는 미흡하다.

따라서, 본 연구는 크게 세 가지 관점에서 기존 문헌을 확장하고자 한다. 먼저, 고성과 작업시스템의 실행은 팀 현상으로 상정하고 팀 수준 고성과 작업시스템을 개념화하였다. 이와 함께 팀 수준 고성과 작업시스템의 실행 강도를 결정하는 주요한 요인으로 팀장의 역할에 주목하였다. 조직의

대리인(agent)로서 팀장은 인사제도의 실행 과정에서 매우 중요한 역할을 수행하는데, 팀 구성원들이 인식하는 고성과 작업시스템의 실행 강도는 상당 부분 해당 팀장이 얼마나 충실하게 도입된 정책을 팀에 적용하냐의 문제로 보았다. 따라서, 조직에서 표방하는 인사제도에 대한 팀장의 실행 행동은 팀 수준 고성과 작업시스템의 실행 강도에 영향을 미치고 이는 궁극적으로 팀 성과와 정적인 관련성을 보일 것이라는 것이다.

사실, 전략적 인적자원관리 문헌에서 팀장의 역할에 대한 논의는 새로운 것이 아니다. 다만, 팀장의 실행 행동에 대한 중요성의 인식에 비해 인사 역할에 대한 몰입도가 팀장들 사이에서 왜 차이가 나타나는지에 대한 체계적인 규명은 아직 부족한 것으로 판단된다. 따라서, 본 논문은 도입된 인사제도에 대한 실행 행동의 선행 요인으로 계획행동이론(theory of planned behavior)을 적용하였다. 즉, 도입된 인사제도의 실행이 팀 성과의 향상을 가져올 것이라는 기대가 높을수록(예: 성과기대), 인사제도를 팀 내에서 실행하는 과정이 팀장에게 많은 노력을 요구하지 않을수록(예: 노력기대), 그리고 인사제도를 충실히 실행하는 것이 조직 내에서 매우 중요하게 여겨진다고 믿을수록(예: 사회적 영향) 인사 역할에 대해 팀장이 더욱 몰입할 것이라고 보았다.

기술 수용 모형은 팀장의 실행 행동을 예측하는 의미 있는 인지적 평가의 틀을 제공하지만 어떤 상황적 요소들이 팀장의 긍정적 평가를 이끌어내도록 하는지 답하기에는 부족하다. 팀장의 성과 및 노력기대 그리고 사회적 영향에 대한 인식을 향상시킬 수 있는 상황 요인을 밝혀냄으로써 본 논문은 고성과 작업시스템의 실행 모형을 체계적으로 구축할 수 있을 것이라 기대한다. 먼저, 인사제도가 팀 업무의 성격을 적절히 반영하도록 설계하는 것이 팀장의 실행 행동에 긍정적인 영향을 미치는데 이를 성과기대가 매개할 것이라고 가설을 설정하였다. 또한, 실행 과정에서 인사부서의 지원 및 조정 역할은 팀장의 노력기대를 향상 시킴으로써 도입된 인사제도의 실행 행동을 이끌어 낼

것이라고 보았다. 아울러, 인적자원관리의 중요성에 대한 최고경영진의 지속적인 관심과 커뮤니케이션(communication) 그리고 상응한 투자는 팀장이 인식하는 사회적 영향 정도를 증가시켜 실행 행동으로 귀결된다고 가설을 설정하였다. 마지막으로, 고성과 작업시스템의 팀 내 적용에 대해 팀장과 팀 구성원들 간의 공감대 형성 및 합의는 팀장의 인지적 평가 요소 전반에 걸쳐 영향을 미침으로써 도입된 인사제도의 실행 행동을 이끌어낸다고 보았다.

국내 19 개 기업의 총 63 팀 334 명의 자료를 바탕으로 검증한 결과, 상기 가설 대부분이 지지되는 것으로 나타났다. 따라서, 본 연구는 기존 문헌에 몇 가지 중요한 함의를 내포한다. 첫째, 팀 수준 고성과 작업시스템의 실행 강도의 제시와 함께 이에 대한 선행 요인으로써 도입된 인사제도에 대한 팀장의 실행 행동을 개념화하였다. 이는 전략적 인적자원관리 문헌에서 고성과 작업시스템의 효과를 규명하는 연구와 일선 팀장에 대한 연구가 서로 분리되어 논의되어온 양상을 고려해볼 때, 이들을 통합한 것으로 더욱 의미를 더한다. 둘째, 인사 역할에 대한 팀장의 몰입도를 형성하는 요인을 기술 수용 모형을 토대로 설명하고자 하였다. 셋째, 팀장의 인지적 평가에 긍정적인 영향을 미치는 다양한 상황적 요인을 밝혀냄으로써 고성과 작업시스템의 실행 모형을 개발하였다. 고성과 작업시스템의 실행 모형은 그간 피상적으로 머물러 온 전략적 인적자원관리의 프로세스 모형을 구체화하여, 인사시스템의 효과적인 실행을 위해 필요한 요소들에 대한 통합적 프레임워크(framework)로서 기존 문헌에 의미 있는 기여를 한다.

주요어: 고성과 작업시스템 강도, 팀장의 실행 행동, 계획행동이론, 인적자원관리 상황 요인

학번: 2009-30880