The Effect of Culture on Strategic Human Resource Management Practices: A Theoretical Perspective

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Abstract

The nature of management skills are culturally specific, a management technique or philosophy that is appropriate in one country is not necessarily appropriate in another. To the best of the authors' knowledge, there are few studies that shed light on the relationship between national culture and strategic human resource management practices. Hence, this study aims to review the literature review that shows the relationship between national culture and strategic human resource management practices. More specifically, review of literature on the concepts of culture, national culture, organization culture and strategic human resource management will be presented. The discussion of the dimensions will be briefly discussed. Also, Hofstede's cultural dimensions namely, Individualism/Collectivism; Power Distance; Masculinity/ Femininity; Uncertainty avoidance; Long versus Short-Term Orientation and critiques of Hofstede's model will be discussed. Finally, the impact of national culture on human resource management practices will be presented. This study will provide valuable insights for management to recognize the impact of national culture and evaluate its impact on the organization.

Keywords: Culture, National Culture, strategic human resource management, Human resource management, Jordan

1. INTRODUCTION

The importance of human resource management to effective implementation of strategy has been recognized for some time (Alkalha et al., 2012; Alenezi et al., 2015). Thus, effective management of human resource management is spirited for the success of organizations (Almajali et al., 2016). Also, HRM practices that provide employees with skills, incentives, information, and decision making responsibility have been shown to be associated with improved business performance (Abdul Hamid, 1996). In the face of globalization, organizations struggle to find the balance between global and local markets in designing and implementing HRM practices, which is a critical issue for both multinational and domestic organizations (Masa'deh et al., 2015; AL-Syaidh et al., 2015).

HRM practices and policies that are adopted by companies in different countries with different national culture are not identical to one another (Abdul Hamid, 1996). A wealth of international HRM research confirms that the approaches to investigate the influence of culture on HRM practices vary according to the adopted context (Milikic, 2009; Al-Tamony et al., 2016). This variation differ from investigating SHRM practices within multinational companies, study the differences of HRM practices among countries, to single country studies aiming to draw conclusions with home-country implications (Milikic, 2009; Masa'deh et al., 2014). Moreover, among such practices, human resource management practices are likely to be most sensitive to culture diversity as they are designed by culture bearers (Shannak et al., 2012). Thus, the assumptions and values of the local designers are likely to be amplified by the expectations of the natives to create a culture product that may be highly meaningful and potentially effective for the home country but possibly meaningless, confusing, and ineffective for another country (Laurent, 1986).

The study of culture provides captivating insights into the common elements and distinguishing variety of human experiences (Munley, 2011; Tarhini et al., 2015; Abbasiet al., 2015; Almajali et al., 2016). For example, women have advanced in management in the Middle East but have a career and development constraints due to strong gender roles in Islamic culture (Metcalfe, 2006). In Islamic cultures, organizations that have effective rewards are those that base on connections and logically consistent with those which Muslims believe to exist, and rewards should be based on employees inputs (Baligh, 1998). Since, Islam makes everyone responsible for his/her own behavior (Baligh, 1998).

The nature of management skills are culturally specific, a management technique or philosophy that is appropriate in one national culture may not be appropriate in another (Hofstede, 1984a; Katebet al., 2014; Masa'deh et al., 2016). For this reason, there is a need among international managers to understand the culture systems among countries (Hofstede, 1984a). Further, people should be aware, they belonged to a culture and have a specific way of doing things, and they should be prepared (Trompenaars and Charles, 1997; Maqableh et al., 2014).

To the best of the authors' knowledge, there are few studies that shed light on the relationship between national culture and strategic human resource management practices. Hence, this study aims to review the literature review that shows the relationship between national culture and strategic human resource management practices. More specifically, review of literature on the concepts of culture, national culture, organization culture and strategic human resource management will be presented. The discussion of the dimensions will be briefly discussed. Also, Hofstede's dimensions of national culture Hofstede's' cultural dimensions namely, Individualism/Collectivism; Power Distance; Masculinity/ Femininity; Uncertainty avoidance; Long versus Short-Term Orientation and critiques of Hofstede's model will be discussed. Finally, the impact of national culture on human resource management practices will be presented. This study will provide valuable insights for management to recognize the impact of national culture and evaluate its impact on the organization.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Culture

Culture is the collective programming of the mind that differentiates individuals of one group from another (Hofstede, 1984b). While, Trompenaars and Charles (1997) defined it as a series of rules and methods that a society has developed to deal with the recurring problems it faces. In another study, it was defined by Cooper and Denner (1998) as core societal values, contexts, caste, capital, and set of universally adaptive tools, intergroup relations. Not so far from this definition, House et al., (2001), viewed it as values, beliefs, identities, and explanations of significant events that outcome from mutual experiences of people. Accordingly, the concept of culture includes institutions and the collective representations and forms the collective behavior (Kassidou et al., 2010).

Culture is often difficult to change, because it is not only exists in the minds of the people but, because it has become crystallized in the institutions of these people (their family structures, educational structures, work organizations) (Hofstede, 1980). In his study (1993) Hofstede explained culture as a construct which means that it can be understand from verbal statements and other behaviors. Therefore, the features and practices that differentiate cultures from each other, are predictive of the mangers characteristics and behaviors, also organizations practices (Hajir et al., 2015; Obeidat et al., 2016). Likewise, culture can shape organizational processes, but processes also act to create and modify culture (Tarhini et al., 2016). Thus, the diverse cultures should be viewed as opportunities for business, as resource, capital and 'set of tools' (Ludviga, 2009).

The nature of management skills are culturally specific, a management technique or philosophy that is appropriate in one national culture is not necessarily appropriate in another (Hofstede, 1984a). For this reason, there is a need among international managers to understand the culture systems among countries (Hofstede, 1984a). Moreover, people should be aware, they belonged to a culture and have a specific way of doing things, and they should be prepared (Trompenaars and Charles, 1997).

The study of culture provides captivating insights into the common elements and distinguishing variety of human experiences (Munley, 2011). For example, cultural values (e. g. freedom, prosperity, security) are the

bases for the specific norms that told people what is appropriate in various situations (Schwartz, 1999). Whereas, women have advanced in management in the Middle East but have a career and development constraints due to strong gender roles in Islamic culture (Metcalfe, 2006). In Islamic cultures, organizations that have effective rewards are those that base on connections and logically consistent with those which Muslims believe to exist, and rewards should be based on employees inputs (Baligh, 1998). Since, Islam makes everyone responsible for his/her own behavior (Baligh, 1998).

In this section, the culture has been defined and different concepts have been presented. Since, the culture shapes organizations processes; it means that there is another type of culture which is related to organizations. Thus, the next section will discuss the organization culture and differentiate it from national culture term.

2.2 National Culture and Organization Culture

National culture and organization culture are different terms (Hofstede, 1993). Moreover, cultures within organizations will differ to some extent within one nation, also differ more from one nation to another (Oudenhoven, 2001; Tarhini et al., 2016). Furthermore, it refers to the values, beliefs and practices that are shared by most members of an organization (Oudenhoven, 2001). Furthermore, Robbins and judge (2011, p. 554) defined organizational culture as "a system of shared meaning held by members that distinguishes the organizations from other organizations". In other words, "Culture is the social glue that helps hold the organization together by providing appropriate standards for what employees should say and do. Finally, it is a sense-making and control mechanism that guides and shapes employees' attitudes and behavior" (Robbins and judge, 2011, p. 557). Moreover, national cultures distinguish members of one nation from another, and organization cultures differentiate the employees of one organization from another (Oudenhoven, 2001). Ming Lau and Yue Ngo (1996) found that, the company with different country origins adopts different organizational cultures and policies to run their operations, even within the same country. In another study, Wu (2008) concluded that, organizational cultures are individual choices aggregated into critical masses of people, and it defines every organization. This study focuses on national culture, for this reason national culture will be presented in the next section.

2.3 National Culture

The concept of national culture has suffered from ambiguity; also there is a consensus on what represents the national culture (Hofstede, 1984b). According to Schuler and Rogocsky (1998), characterizing a national culture does not mean that every person in the nation has all the characteristics assigned to that culture. Thus, national cultures refer to the common elements within each nation (the national norm) and it is not describing individuals (Hofstede, 1984b). In addition, national cultures differ mostly in the substantial, hidden values held by a majority of people within their country (Hofstede, 1993). Also, national cultures change very slowly, while organizations cultures may be wisely changed (Hofstede, 1993).

National cultures refer to beliefs, values, and practices that are shared by the majority of people belonging to a nation, and enriched by national laws and governmental policies with respect to education, family life, business, and etcetera (Oudenhoven, 2001).

Personal and national cultures derived from peoples' personal values and pervade the role of effective management leadership and successful company performances (Byrne and Bradley, 2007). Therefore, the national culture and individual culture values can be determined by the characteristics of age, gender, education, and socio-economic, which provide a clarification of changing of culture at the individual and national levels (Steel and Taras, 2010).

Many scholars have study the national culture and developed many models for it. Thus, the dimensions of national culture will be presented and explained briefly in the next section.

2.4 Dimensions of National Culture

GLOBE is a method which examines the relationships between social culture, organization culture, and organization leadership (House et al., 2001). The main goal of GLOBE is to create a theory to characterize, understand, and predict the impact of particular culture variables on leadership and organizations processes (House et al., 2001).

The following are the nine cultural dimensions studied in GLOBE: Uncertainty Avoidance, Power Distance, Collectivism I: Societal Collectivism, Collectivism II: In-Group Collectivism, Gender Egalitarianism which is related to reduces gender role differences and gender discrimination in their organizations, Assertiveness, Future Orientation is the degree of participation in future behaviors such as planning and investing in the future, Performance Orientation is encouraging and rewarding group members for performance improvement and achievement, Humane Orientation is encouraging and rewarding individuals for being fair, friendly, generous, caring, and kind to others (House et al., 2001).

Moreover, GLOBE project allows researchers to investigate the culture variations and their impacts on HRM practices (Reiche et. al., 2009). Furthermore, three of the cultural dimensions used by GLOBE, are originally developed by Hofstede: Uncertainty avoidance, power distance, and individualism / collectivism (Weber, 2006).

In another study developed by Schwartz (1999), a theory of the types of values is presented and validated with data from 49 nations around the world, and seven types of values are identified, structured along three dimensions: Conservatism versus Intellectual and Affective Autonomy; Hierarchy versus Egalitarianism; and Mastery versus Harmony. These dimensions in brief are: *Conservatism*: social order, respect for tradition, family security, and wisdom. *Intellectual Autonomy*: curiosity, broadmindedness, creativity. *Affective Autonomy*: pleasure, exciting life, varied life. *Hierarchy:* social power, authority, humility, wealth. *Egalitarianism*: equality, social justice, freedom, responsibility, honesty. *Mastery*: ambition, success, daring, competence. *Harmony*: unity with nature, protecting the environment, world of beauty (Schwartz, 1999).

In analyzing cultural differences, Trompenaars and Charles (1997) identify seven dimensions in which different attitudes are particularly crucial. There are: Universalism vs. particularism, Individualism vs. collectivism, Neutral vs. emotional, Specific vs. diffuse, Achievement vs. ascription, Attitude toward time, Attitude toward the environment. The first five factors describe relationships with other people, they are: universalisms versus particularism, individualism versus collectivism, neutral versus emotional, specific versus diffuse, and achievement versus ascription (Hofstede, 1996). However, its adaptation in researches remains limited consequent to concerns of conceptual and methodological vagueness (Reiche et al., 2009).

In another study, based on Freudian psychoanalytic theory, Hall (1966, 1976, 1983) argued that individuals tend to be slightly unaware of elements of their non-verbal communication behavior (Kittler et al., 2011). The three dimensions are: Time refers to how members of different cultures orient towards time and the way they perceive it (monochronic vs. polychronic). Space refers to differing cultural frameworks for defining and organizing space. Context refers to the nature of how meaning is constructed differently across cultures (Kittler et al., 2011). Moreover, three of these dimensions are interrelated which are time, space and context (Kittler et al., 2011). For instance, Hall assumed that members of monochronic cultures are low context and need information, while members of polychronic cultures tend to be high context and pre-programmed to a larger degree (Kittler et al., 2011). Also, Hall described context as the information and knowledge that surrounds an event, which differ across societies according to their values and norms (Reiche et al., 2009).

Since, Hofstede's model is the most widely known in the business and in the cross cultural field (Manrai and K. Manrai, 2011). Besides, it has been considered as the benchmark of culture analysis for the last three decades (Orr and Hauser, 2008). This study will focus on investigating the impact of national culture on SHRM practices by using Hofstede's model, thus the next section will discuss Hofstede's dimensions briefly.

2.5 Hofstede's Dimensions of National Culture

The four dimensions of national culture were found through a combination of theoretical reasoning and massive statistical analysis, with a largest survey material obtained using a single questionnaire (Hofstede, 1980). Also, this survey material was collected between 1967 and 1973 among employees of one large U.S. multinational corporation (MNC) in 40 countries around the world (Hofstede, 1980). Moreover, the total data contains more than 116,000 questionnaires collected from everyone in the corporation, from unskilled workers to Ph.D.s and top managers (Hofstede, 1980). The dimensions of national culture he used represent criteria for describing national cultures (Hofstede, 1980). The four dimensions he explained are:

• **Individualism versus Collectivism (IDV)**

Individualism stands for members who to take care of themselves and their direct families only (Hofstede, 1984a). On the other hand, collectivism refers to which individuals can expect their relatives, clan, or other to look after them for unquestioning loyalty (Hofstede, 1984a). Moreover, this dimension is also called social orientation, which is referring to the importance of the interests of the members versus the interests of the group (Griffin and Pustay, 2010). In addition, individualists tend to have a high need for personal achievements and value individual rights (Swaidan and Hayes, 2005). Also, individuals with low scores have an emotional dependence on the group (Swaidan and Hayes, 2005). Beside, individualism refers to high degree of self-respect and independence, and the relationship between employer- employees is moral model (Griffin and Pustay, 2010).

However, collectivism is based on the groups rather than on the self (Swaidan and Hayes, 2005). Likewise, collectivism is the belief that the group comes first and individual are expected to put the good of the group ahead of their interests and success (Griffin and Pustay, 2010). Moreover, individualism includes a low preference for receiving benefits and a high in preference for personal decision making and takes challenges for a job (Daniels et al., 2011). In contrast, collectivism encourages dependence on the organisation and a preference for training, satisfactory workplace conditions and benefits (Daniels et al., 2011).

Furthermore, this dimension is a measure of whether people prefer to work alone or in groups (Jones and Alony, 2007). According to Hofstede, Jordan, with a score of 30 is considered a collectivistic society, they

focus on relationships where everyone takes responsibility and take care of their families and others, the relationship between employee and employer are moral like a family link, also hiring and promotion decisions are making to the employee's in-group (www.geert-hofstede.com).

• **Power Distance (PD)**

Power distance is the extent to which individuals accept that power in companies is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 1984a). For this reason, people in large power distance societies accept a hierarchical order (Hofstede, 1984a). Beside, members in high power distance prefer little consultation between superiors and subordinates, while in low power distance they prefer consultative styles (Daniels et al., 2011). Whereas, people in low power distance societies strive for power equalization and demand justification for power inequalities (Hofstede, 1984a). In addition, high power distance is called power respect; this means that members tend to accept power and authority of their superiors (Griffin and Pustay, 2010). In contrast, low power distance is called power tolerance, which indicates that people are willing to question a decision from someone at a higher level or even refuse to accept (Griffin and Pustay, 2010).

According to Hofstede, Jordan scores high on this dimension (score of 70) which means that people accept a hierarchical order, which reflecting inequalities and centralization exists since of hierarchical (www.geert-hofstede.com).

• **Uncertainty Avoidance (UA)**

Uncertainty avoidance is the extent to which people are uncomfortable with the uncertainty and vagueness (Hofstede, 1984a). Beside, strong uncertainty avoidance cultures preserve rigid codes of belief and behavior and are unforgivable towards deviant persons and ideas (Hofstede, 1984a). Also, in cultures where UA is high, most employees prefer following set rules even if breaking them may be in the company's best interests, and they prefer the certainty of present positions over the uncertainty of potential advancement positions (Daniels et al., 2011). While, weak uncertainty avoidance cultures preserve a more relaxed since they counts for practice rather than principles and the deviance is more easily tolerated (Hofstede, 1984a). Also, members in cultures with high uncertainty avoidance dislike ambiguity and they avoid it, also they consider ambiguity and change as undesirable (Griffin and Pustay, 2010).

Furthermore, individuals with high uncertainty avoidance are less likely to take risks and they believe that loyalty to culture is a recommendation (Swaidan and Hayes, 2005). Whereas, Societies with weak uncertainty avoidance try to have few rules, and are more permissive of alternative opinions and behaviors, and they accepting a different beliefs (Swaidan and Hayes, 2005). Moreover, UA is the extent to which people are threatened by uncertain events or absence of structure (Jones and Alony, 2007). According to Hofstede, Jordan scores 65 on this dimension, thus they need for rules even if it never seems to work, also they value time, precision and punctuality ,and they consider the security as important element in individual motivation (www.geert-hofstede.com).

• **Masculinity versus Femininity (MAS)**

Masculinity stands for achievement, courage, persistence, and material success (Hofstede, 1984a). While, femininity stands for relationships, humility, caring for the weak, and they value quality of life (Hofstede, 1984a). Also, people in feminine cultures place a higher value on social relationship, quality of life, and concern for others (Griffin and Pustay, 2010). In other words, masculinity–femininity measures national culture according to the division of roles and values between the genders (Chiang, 2005). According to Hofstede, Jordan scores 45 on this dimension and it is considered a relatively feminine society, they focus on working in order to live, and managers pursue for consensus, also they value equality, consistency and quality in their working environment, also incentives such as free time and flexibility are preferable and they take decisions through involvement (www.geert-hofstede.com).

In brief, the four dimensions represent elements of culture systems of the countries, which they are based on human values and behavior (Hofstede, 1984a). After that, in 1991 Hofstede added a fifth dimension to his model ,based on a study of students' values in 23 countries around the world, using a Chinese Values Survey (CVS), initiated by Michael Harris Bond (Minkov and Hofstede, 2012). Furthermore, Michael Bond named this new dimension "Confucian Work Dynamism" (Chinese Culture Connection, 1987), Hofstede adopted this dimension, he renamed it "**Long versus Short-Term Orientation**" (LTO) (Minkov and Hofstede, 2012). According to Hofstede, long-term orientation refers to the values oriented towards the future, like thrift (saving) and persistence (Hofstede, 1993). While, the short-term orientation refers to the values oriented towards the past and present, like respect for tradition and loyalty social obligations (Hofstede, 1993). Likewise, values included in this dimension were both future or long-term oriented as well as present and past or short-term oriented (Manrai and K. Manrai, 2011). According to Hofstede, Jordan scores 35, which is consider a short term orientation culture, this indicates there is a great respect for traditions, low ,tendency to save, work for achieving quick results truth (www.geert-hofstede.com).

In another study, Hofstede formulated these dimensions (Individualism, Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Masculinity) to be independent, and hypothetically (Kelly, 2008). With these dimensions,

Hofstede confirmed the importance of national and/or cultural context on human resource management practices and perceptions (Kelly, 2008). Besides, Hofstede suggested that culture types are rooted in the value systems of essential grouping of the population (Reiche et al., 2009). Afterward, the first four dimensions were revealed through a comparison of the people values of (employees and managers) in sixty-four national countries of the IBM Corporation (Hofstede, 1993). Moreover, the employees for the same multinational companies, but in different countries, represent very similar samples from the populations of their countries, similar in all respects except nationality (Hofstede, 1993).

Despite its popularity, many methodological and theoretical criticisms surround Hofstede's dimensions of national culture (Chiang, 2005). Perhaps, the most contentious issue is whether his model can be operationalized (Chiang, 2005). Beside, when countries share similar scores on Hofstede's dimensions of national culture the expectation is that management practices can be transplanted (Chiang, 2005). Moreover, Hofstede's work continues to be used as a basis for international research on cultural dimensions and it is used in a variety ways (Rapp et al., 2011). Even though, Hofstede's research has been considered a leading in many scholarly quarters, but significant criticism has been raised against his cultural model (Tarhini et al., 2016). Thus, the next section will present the critiques of Hofstede's model.

2.6 Critiques of Hofstede's Model
Hofstede attempted to identify national cultural dimensions which used to compare cultures (Imm Ng et al,. 2006). Hofstede derived his framework empirically, while Schwartz developed his framework theoretically (Imm Ng et al,. 2006). Furthermore, Hofstede's dimension of culture is the most widely popular, his observations and analysis provide researchers a valuable knowledge of cross-cultural relationships (Jones and Alony, 2007). Hofstede argued that there is no one set of measures or items that will always account for national differences throughout time (Eckhardt, 2002). Furthermore, the four dimensions head for divide in an East–West division, but long-term orientation dimension does not (Eckhardt, 2002).

Hofstede argued that there are five primary criticisms surround his work. Accordingly, the survey is not a suitable way to measure culture differences, the nations are not the best units for studying national culture, also studying members of one company is not representative of national cultures, the data is old and obsolete, and finally the five dimensions are not enough to represent the culture of a society (Eckhardt, 2002). Also, many researchers indicate that a survey is not an appropriate instrument for determining the culture differences (Jones and Alony, 2007).

Overall, the main problem with Hofstede's research is that he holds onto a static vision of culture (Eckhardt, 2002). Moreover, it appears that Hofstede's theoretical constructs need to be re-examined within the context of early 21' century cross-cultural attitudes and patterns of behavior (Orr and Hauser, 2008). Also, Hofstede's work has engaged significantly to the foundations of cross-cultural analysis and understanding, but it needs to be re-examined, re-defined, and adapted to the current environment (Orr and Hauser, 2008). In addition, Hofstede identified the four dimensions at the country level but he did not find dimensions at the individual level (Fischer et al., 2010). Furthermore, this criticism (Cultural Homogeneity) is the most popular, since Hofstede's study assumed that national domestic population is a homogenous whole (Jones and Alony, 2007).

Fischer et al., (2010) argued that, the Hofstede's original argument which considers the values at the country and individual levels are not at the same it can be rejected. In another study, Fang (2003) discussed a number of drawbacks in Hofstede's fifth national culture dimension First, Confucian dynamism (long term orientation) divides overlapping values into opposing two terms, 'short-term oriented' or 'negative', and 'long term oriented' or 'positive' may not necessarily be so. Second, there is a redundancy among the 40 Chinese values in the Chinese Value Survey (CVS), which indicates that they are actually not opposed to each other (Fang, 2003). Moreover, finally compared with the four dimensions, the fifth dimension does not result from the same techniques of factor analysis and it does not have the same sampling background (students vs. IBM employees) (Fang, 2003). According to Fischer and Al-Issa (2012), they conclude from a study conducted with an Arab student sample, the scores for power distance and uncertainty avoidance were lower than expected, while scores for masculinity and individualism were higher, which conclude that there are doubts about the convenience of Hofstede procedure and dimensions.

In this section, the dimensions of Hofstede's model has been presented briefly, the next section will present and discuss the strategic human resource management practices.

2.7 Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM)
Human resources are counted to be the most significant asset of any organization, but few organizations are able to completely employ its potential (Ahmad and Schroeder, 2003; Jaussauda and Liub, 2011). Moreover, Human resources management (HRM) is a necessary function in organizations, it involves all managerial personnel, and it considers people as the most important single asset of the organization and enhances company performance (Schuler, 2000; El-Masri et al., 2015). Thus, HRM is defined as, the policies and practices needed to carry out the people or human resource aspect of a management position, including

selection, job definition, training, performance appraisal, compensation, career planning and are encouraging employee participation in decision making and measure the organizational performance, customer satisfaction and maximize the profitability of organization (Nayyab et al., 2011).

In another study, HRM practices are activities which an organization engages in to help it achieve goals (Delery, 1998). Also, "HRM practices include analyzing and designing work, determining human resource needs (HR planning), attracting potential employees (recruiting), choosing employees (selection), teaching employees how to perform their jobs and preparing them for future (training and development), rewarding employees (compensation), evaluating their performance (performance management), and creating a positive work environment (employee relation)" (Noe et al., 2010, p.4). Furthermore, two essential functions of human resource management, staff training and internal communications, were developed to contribute strategically to the firm's performance (Miller, 2006). Moreover, researchers suggested many HRM practices which have the chance to enhance and sustain organizations performance (Ahmad and Schroeder, 2003). These practices include, that the confirmation on employee selection is account for the compatibility with the company's culture (Ahmad and Schroeder, 2003). Furthermore, Pfeffer (1998) had suggested seven HRM practices which are expected to improve the organizations performance. The practices are:

- Employment security.
- Selective hiring of new personnel.
- Self-managed teams and decentralization of decision making
- High compensation.
- Extensive training.
- Reduced status distinctions and barriers.
- Extensive sharing of financial and performance information throughout the organization.

Strategic human resource management is a sub field of human resource management (Lee, 2011). SHRM has developed as a field of management practices and became popular since 1980s (Altarawneh and Aldehayyat, 2011; Jain, 2005; Lee, 2011; Orozco et al., 2015; Masa'deh et al., 2016). Also, it considered to be as an overall process to deal with human resource issues as a part of the organization strategy (Jain, 2005). It enhances the productivity and effectiveness of organizations, since it combined HR practices with the overall goal of organizations (Daley et al., 2002).

Wright and McMahan (1992) defined Strategic HRM as the pattern of planned human resource deployments and activities purposed to enable the company to achieve its goals. Furthermore, SHRM it links, it integrates, and it connects across levels in organizations (Schuler, 2000). Likewise, this definition implied at least four components to SHRM; first, it focuses on a company's human resources (people), second, the concept of activities highlights HR programs, policies and practices, third, both pattern and plan described the goal and process of strategy, finally, the people, practices, and planned pattern are all purposeful, that being goal achievement (Wright, 1998). Furthermore, SHRM it links HRM practices with the firm's strategy (Wei et al., 2008). Moreover, SHRM focuses on many issues including the fit between human resource management practices and organizational strategic goals, the integration of human resource management in the organizational strategic management, the involvement of human resource function in senior management teams (Jimoh and Danlami, 2011). Also, strategic HRM involves designing and implementing of HR policies/practices that ensures the firm's human capital contributes to the achievements of its corporate objectives (Wan et al., 2002).

Delery (1998) argued that, SHRM focuses on several issues, that human resource management practices and policies are the main tools that organizations employ to develop and sustain the necessary human resources. Furthermore, the concern of SHRM is to ensure that: (1) HRM is fully integrated with the organization through its strategy and the strategic needs of the firm; (2) human resource practices are consistent both across policy areas and across hierarchies (Schuler, 2000). Ismail et al. (2010) in their study, classified SHRM practices according to two terms the first one is instrumental practices which leads the organization to meet the strategic vision and mission such as recruitment/selection, training, performance and rewards management ,and the second is administrative practices.

Recruitment is a pool of possible candidate, the goal of recruitment process is to attract qualified candidates which in turns allow to the companies to select the best one (Milikic, 2009). This process is followed by the selection, which is concerning of assessing job applicants in order to select the best applicant for hiring in the companies (Milikic, 2009). The goal of selection process is to select the individuals with knowledge, skills and positive work attitude (Yan, 2010; Masa'deh et al., 2015).

Training and development has been recognized as one of the most important practice in the field of human resource management (Joarder et al., 2011; Masa'deh and Obeidat, 2014). Beside, training and development is one of the important ways to facilitate individual employees to earn new skills and knowledge and improve their skills and knowledge (Joarder et al., 2011). Human resource planning is the process for forecasting the shortage and surpluses of employees (Milikic, 2009).

The goal of performance management or evaluation is to guide and encourage the employees' activities to be in line with the organization objective (Yan, 2010). Besides, it is considered a judgment decision for promotion, demotion, transfer, retention and pay; also it is a developmental guide for employees' feedback and for training needs for employees (Daley et al., 2002). Strategic pay requires that all decisions related to compensation are designed to attract and retain or motivate employees (Daley et al., 2002). Moreover, compensation is concerned with the salary increases and incentives for employee. Furthermore, compensation assists to encourage individuals, since they know they will share in the results of their work (Pfeffer, 1998; Masa'deh et al., 2015). The analysis and design of work considered to be the most important component to develop and maintain a competitive advantage for an organization, which is consist of work flow analysis, job analysis and job design (Noe et al., 2010). Moreover, employee relation concerning with creating positive work environment (Noe et al., 2010).

This study attempt to investigate the impact of national culture on SHRM practices, the next section will present and discuss the national culture and SHRM practices briefly.

2.8 National Culture and SHRM Practices

The era of strategic HRM was started in nearly two decades ago, and since then, a behavioral perspective has emerged as the predominate paradigm for research (Wan et al., 2002). However, in the 1990s the concept of bundling of human resource practices became popular and attracted to numerous studies (Wan et al., 2002; Obeidat et al., 2014). On the other hand, a few studies had addressed the implications of the cultural dimensions on HRM management processes and practices that can be applied to any country or organization (Milikic, 2009). However, there has been some concern about to some extent to which models and practices of HRM are capable of being transferred from one country to another (Easterby-Smithy et al., 1995). For this reason, in the late 1970s there was a concern that Japanese ideas might be adopted by US companies and to some extent there are considerable variations in the form of HRM in different settings (Easterby-Smithy et al., 1995).

Easterby-Smithy et al. (1995) argued that, their comparative analysis showed how much both practices of, and debates about, HRM are dependent on the culture assumptions underlying them. Besides, Reiche et al. (2009) discussed how culture values and norms form administrative choices among national societies also how these interpret the variations in HRM. Also, HRM policy or practice is likely to be attributed quite different meanings by different culture groups (Laurent, 1986). Moreover, socio- culture environment affected the internal work culture, which in turn influences human resource management practices (Aycan et al., 1999). Also, managers implement HRM practices based on their assumption about the nature of both the task and the employees (Aycan et al., 2000; Buller and McEvoy, 2012). But these assumptions are affected by their culture.

In another study, Schuler and Rogocsky explored a number of relationships between the cultural dimensions suggested by Hofstede (Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism-Collectivism, and Masculinity-Femininity) and specific compensation practices(four categories of compensation practices based on status, performance, social benefits and programs, and employee ownership plans), they analyzed the relationships between Hofstede's dimensions and specific HR practices (Schuler and Rogocsky, 1998). In summary, the results suggest that national culture provides an important explanation for the variance in the utilization of different compensation practices in different countries (Schuler and Rogocsky, 1998).

Moreover, comparative research shows that managers from different national cultures hold different assumptions and values as to the nature of management and organization (Laurent, 1986). These different sets of assumptions shape different value systems and translated into different management and organizational practices which in turn enhance the original assumptions (Laurent, 1986). In another study, the results indicate that the effect of national culture on HRM in Greece is quite prominent, for example HR practices, such as planning, recruitment and performance appraisal are to a great extent in congruence with the cultural values of Greek society (Myloni et. al., 2004).

In another study, the managerial attitudes, values, behaviors differ across national cultures and these differences call for differences in management practices (Newman and Nollen, 1996). For example, the main differences in HRM between these two countries (china and UK), appear in the 'softer' areas where relationships are important: appraisal, reward systems, the process of assessing potential and the basic stance of unions towards management, such these differences can be linked to known cultural factors such as the greater concern for relationships, for harmony and the preservation of 'face' in China (Easterby-Smithy et al., 1995). In another study, substantial use of pay and promotion should improve profitability in masculine countries, such as Anglo and Germanic countries, but worsen it in feminine countries, such as Nordic countries (Newman and Nollen, 1996). Furthermore, Aycan (2005) found out that job analysis may be affected by three of Hofstede`s cultural dimensions: Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism vs. Collectivism, and Power Distance. In order that, these three dimensions affect the specificity of job description and job specification, the unit of analysis and the method of job analysis (Milikic, 2009).

Moreover, the culture influences many aspects of the recruitment process, so only those recruitment methods and practices that fit the culture are probably to be effective (Milikic, 2009). Also, numerous studies have focused on many aspects of recruitment, including the methods of recruitment and recruitment sources ,and the plurality of studies have focused on the influence of only two of Hofstede`s cultural dimensions: Collectivism vs. Individualism and Power Distance (Milikic, 2009). Besides, recruitment/selection, and training/development show little difference in practices between the Malaysian and Japanese owned companies, these differences in the practices in terms of elaborateness, approach and process (Othman, 2009). In addition, power distance or uncertainty avoidance is positively correlated with seniority and good interpersonal relationships with higher management and important criteria for compensation and reward management (Aycan, 2005). Moreover, in high power distance, differential compensation plans are prepared based on subjective decisions of the top management (Aycan, 2005). Also, employees in feminine and collectivistic cultures prefer flexible benefit plans such as child-care, maternity leave or career-break schemes (Aycan, 2005).

Miah and Bird (2007) in their study, they investigate that the national and organization culture impact the managers who work in different companies, they conclude that a Japanese parent company's culture tends to have a much stronger influence with Japanese companies operating in Japan, also Japanese parent company culture tends to have less influence than the South Asian national culture in shaping the HRM styles and practices in Japanese subsidiaries/joint ventures operating in South Asia.

As well as, national differences are still obvious in recruitment, development and termination practice (Faulkner et al., 2002). Beside, Japanese companies were more long term than those of the other nations and they had less managerial job rotation than nations (Faulkner et al., 2002). On the other hand, US companies' HRM practices were short term on recruitment, and they remain the most likely to 'hire and fire' (Faulkner et al., 2002). While, the French emphasized formal qualifications as criteria for promotion also the Japanese still favored priority as an important criterion for promotion (Faulkner et al., 2002). In other words, there is a distinguished difference in the HRM practices employed by companies from each of the countries, influenced by the characteristic of HR practices of companies in the origin country (Faulkner et al., 2002).

Also, HRM practices that are highly successful in the industrialized society, western societies often fail in non-western societies, because they were uncritically adopted without any regard to their appropriateness in non-western cultures (Mendonca et al., 1999). However, it must be emphasized that to be effective, the organizations in every culture must fit it is HR practices with the national culture in the origin country (Mendonca et al., 1999). Therefore, it is important to consider the cultural aspects of the context which are significant to the organizational HRM practices (Joarder et al., 2011).

Oudenhoven (2001) concluded that across nations (Belgium, Canada, United States, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Spain, The Netherlands and United Kingdom). He found some differences in preference scores, such as a lower desired level of power distance by women, and the higher preference for femininity of young respondents, he argued that Students and employees, or men and women may differ with respect to their preferences, but they all have common experiences when working in the same organization or in the same country, also he recognized that their perceptions do not differ within one nation.

3. CONCLUSION

Taking into consideration the fact that what maybe applicable in one country may not be applicable in another, this paper aimed to shed light on the relationship between national culture and strategic human resource management practices to culture. More specifically, a review of literature on the concepts of culture, national culture, organization culture and strategic human resource management was presented. In addition, Hofstede's' cultural dimensions namely, Individualism/Collectivism; Power Distance; Masculinity/ Femininity; Uncertainty avoidance; Long versus Short-Term Orientation and critiques of Hofstede's model were discussed. Finally, the impact of national culture on human resource management practices was briefly discussed. This study will provide valuable insights for management to recognize the impact of national culture and evaluate its impact on the organization.

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