

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the organization's background and the relevant literature on organizational studies, characteristics linked with organizational commitment, and the prospective mediating influence of the organizational learning capability towards organizational commitment were reviewed accordingly. The evaluation was undertaken to consider the established literature on organizational commitment and organizational learning capability, including various associated topics.

The list includes human resource management practices, servant leadership, organizational learning capability, and organizational commitment; whereby the topics collectively resulted in a solid theoretical framework. Therefore, this particular chapter was categorized into three sections. The first section was commenced by a comprehensive outline of the concept associated with organizational commitment from early organizational commitment literature. It was also supplemented by an in-depth discourse on the Social Exchange Theory to ensure explicit interpretation regarding the primary theory forming the groundwork for this work. The subsequent section contains the evaluation of the theoretical and recent empirical studies on organizational commitment, followed by the third section that expounded on empirical studies on human resource management practices, servant leadership, organizational learning capability, and its relationship with organizational commitment.

2.2 Background of Organization

In Malaysia's National Vision, government-linked companies (GLCs), as a central growth driver are projected to drive the domestic economy to increase profitability and effectively boost profitable growth (Osman et al., 2015), as they play a dominant role in Malaysia's economy (Abu Kasim et al., 2019). GLCs employed 5 percent of the country's total workforce, accounting for around 36% and 54% of Bursa's market capitalization and Kuala Lumpur Composite Index respectively (The Khazanah Report, 2018), and were the nation's leading service providers in key strategic industries and services, including energy, telecommunications, postal services, airlines, airports, public transport, banking, and financial services, thereby playing a significant role as service providers that further underscored their significance to the economy (GLC Transformation Programme Graduation Report, 2015).

The aviation industry is one of the largest and most significant industries in the world today. In Malaysia, the airport industry is almost monopolized by Malaysia Airport Holdings Berhad, a single operator, operating 39 of the 42 airports. The framework was established due to Malaysia's privatization policy, which saw Malaysia Airports Holdings Berhad created to maintain, manage and operate airports later listed as Malaysia Airport Holdings Berhad (Malaysia Aviation Commission, 2019).

Inaugurated in 1992, it was designed to emphasize airport operations, management, and maintenance after the Malaysian Parliament passed the bill in 1991 (Malaysia Airports Annual Report, 2019). The bill aimed to segregate the Department of Civil Aviation (DCA) into two independent entities with different responsibilities. DCA maintained its role as an airport regulatory body. At the same time, Malaysia Airports Holdings Berhad was subsequently consolidated as a publicly-listed

organization in the Main Board of Bursa Malaysia Securities Berhad in 1999 (Malaysia Airports Annual Report, 2019). As a result, Malaysia Airports Holdings Berhad was the pioneering airport operator in Asia and the sixth globally listed stock exchange. Moreover, Malaysia Airports Holdings Berhad remains the only airport company providing a wide variety of airport portfolios, catapulting it to a league of its own. Its operations include airports with five global gateways, 16 domestic airports, and 18 short take-off and landing ports (STOLports) serving rural and remote parts (Malaysia Airports Annual Report, 2019).

Malaysia Airports Holdings Berhad was categorized as one of the top-ranked GLCs in Malaysia, i.e., Khazanah Nasional's top 20 GLCs (or G20s) 2006. G20 is a selection of broad GLCs managed by a government-linked investment company (GLICs) under the Government-linked Business Transformation Program (GLCT Program). It is used as a proxy for the output of GLCs. This list initially consisted of 20 GLCs but currently has 17 due to numerous mergers, mergers, and other organizational exercises (GLC Transformation Programme Graduation Report, 2015).

With a total of 10,724 employees (Malaysia Airports Annual Report, 2019), it is a formidable and distinctive organization that functions as the driving force behind the national economy, with its characteristic distinction of being the only airport operator in the world. GLCs are classified as companies with a primary commercial objective and under the control of a government-linked investment company (GLIC) (GLC Transformation Programme Graduation Report, 2015). GLIC has power over GLC because it is a majority shareholder or a single largest shareholder and can exercise and influence significant decisions, such as the appointment of board members and senior management, the award of tenders and contracts, and so on. Subsidiaries of such GLCs often fall under the responsibility of the GLCT Programme. GLICs are defined

as federal government-linked investment firms (GLC Transformation Programme Graduation Report, 2015). There are five GLICs under the Government-Linked Company Transformation (GLCT) Scheme, namely Employees Provident Fund (EPF), Khazanah Nasional Berhad (Khazanah), Lembaga Tabung Angkatan Tentera (LTAT), Lembaga Tabung Haji (LTH), and Permodalan Nasional Berhad (PNB).

Given the presence of a near-monopoly in Malaysia's airport industry structure, MAVCOM's stance on the industry structure focuses on the problems and challenges arising from this near-monopoly of Malaysia Airport Holdings' activities Berhad airport. Malaysia Airport Holdings Berhad was not immune from criticism of the efficiency of its service. The mainstream media also reported aeronautical failure at Kuala Lumpur International Airport and poorly maintained toilets. These issues are reflected in the decrease in international airports' global ranking, such as the Skytrax World Airport Awards, where Kuala Lumpur International Airport dropped from 9th in 2011 to 44th in 2018 (Malaysia Aviation Commission, 2019).

Nevertheless, human capital growth remains one of the main components of the company. Malaysia Airports Holdings Berhad categorized employees as the top stakeholder to be an integral part of business, embedded in how the company operates. With the investment of RM11.0 million for human capital development, focusing on improving workforce capability and driving cultural transformation. (Malaysia Airports Holdings Berhad Annual Report, 2019).

The contribution to human talent growth was recognized when Malaysia Airports Holdings Berhad was awarded 2nd Runner Up of the Graduates Choice Awards 2019 - Best Employer Brand, HR ASIA Best Companies to Work for in Asia 2019, and 1st Runner Up – GLCs Most Popular Graduate Employer of The Year 2019 (Malaysia Airports Annual Report, 2019), which recognized the employees as the vital

drivers of company success. Therefore, based on the above discussion, and recognizing the employees are the main drivers of company strategy and critical factors to succeed in the business objectives and spur nation-building (Malaysia Airport Annual Report, 2019), this led to the selection of Malaysia Airports Holdings Berhad as the contextual avenue of this study.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

Social Exchange Theory was applied as a theoretical foundation for hypotheses development to answer the stated research questions and research objectives. Although numerous scholars contribute to social exchange studies' underlying theory, social exchange theory has imparted the assertive basis for grasping exchange linkages in the organizational environment. Blau (1964) has been exceptionally noteworthy in imparting the central doctrine laid down on employee-organizational relationship studies (Shore et al., 2009). Presbitero et al. (2019) concluded that social change is the most prevalent theory embraced in the different antecedents of organizational commitment. Workers appear to reciprocate employers' right treatment by being committed to and remaining longer in an organization.

Fundamentally, two parties will be involved in social exchange through a series of associations and unforeseeable interdependence, leading to definite commitment that may connect to a high standard relationship (Blau, 1964). Social exchanges could also delve into reciprocity (Blau, 1964), as the norm compels the receiver of advantage to pay back the giver in a certain way. Blau (1964) elucidates a social exchange relationship encompassing accountability that is not specified favors that fabricate spread obligations in future, unclearly defined ones. The nature of the return is non-

bargainable about, but ought to depend on the pleasure of the one who creates it'. Therefore, the employee-employer relationship might be viewed as a social exchange. An employer may recognize an employee's work and outcomes by providing chances and rewards, and in business, employees may feel compelled to give back and may become more loyal to the organization (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976; Tansky and Cohen, 2002; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005).

Based on the research discovered across the fields, the better social exchange is related to more incredible employee offers towards employers in the variable of more significant commitment, lower turnover intention, more significant organizational citizenship behavior, and higher performance (Shore et al., 2009). The social exchange theory model prescribes that the predictors in workplace antecedents guide interpersonal linkages, alluded to as social exchange relationships (Cropanzano et al., 2001).

Social exchange relationships develop when employers "oversee and knowing their employees" which thereby incites behaviour outcomes. The strong connection between fair and more behaviour transactions leads to creating effective and efficient behaviour and a pragmatic employee approach. This logical argument has captured much consciousness, most of which applies Blau's (1964) framework to elucidate the social exchange relationships. Academic experts in the social exchanges field propounded that employees are inclined to exchange their commitment to gain the employer's behaviour (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005).

In supporting this, Eva et al. (2018) asserted the empirical research in servant leadership mostly adapted from the social-based theories, i.e., Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) as the underpinning theoretical frameworks. The approach has laid out an essential foundation for research in servant leadership. The connection between servant

leaders and their employees would dispense worth capital and underpin in exchange for resources and support accepted from the dyadic partner. For example, the social exchange theory has been used to explain how servant leaders enhance followers' commitment.

Since the early studies by Homans (1961), Blau (1964), and Emerson (1976), exchange theory has been one of the utmost theoretical lenses in the field of social psychology. Despite several scholars contributing to the underpinning theories in the social exchange literature, Blau (1964) and Gouldner (1960) have been dominantly influential in imparting the fundamental principles that have been applied to the employee-organizational relationship literature (Shore et al., 2009). Based on Blau (1964), social exchange prevails through interactions and links between parties, each of the parties creates a felt obligation to reciprocate or return to the other. However, the nature of the reciprocation is undetermined. Social exchange counts on trust that interactions and communication will trigger accountability in the alliances, such that each will reciprocate to fulfil his or her obligation. These linkages are commonly seen as interdependent within the social exchange theory and contingent on another person's actions (Blau, 1964).

The Social Exchange Theory also underlines that these interdependent affairs have the potential to trigger high-quality relationships, even though we might observe this only will prevail under certain circumstances (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Inside the contemporary management research, Social Exchange Theory has accumulated by far the most research attention in the assumption of within organizational relationships. This Social Exchange Theory model prescribes that specific workplace predictors would lead to interpersonal linkages, alluded to as social exchange relationships (Cropanzano et al., 2001). Social exchange relationships

develop when employers “take care of employees,” which thereby arouses beneficial consequences.

Kanter’s (1968) Social Action Theory posited three factors that influence commitment towards a social system: the way a system is organized and phenomenological variables, i.e., cognitive orientations, cathectic orientations, and evaluative organized and the learning significantly impacts both the way a system is orientations. For instance, if a firm is organized into smaller knowledge-based units, such arrangements will result in higher employee interaction and involvement (Brooks, 2002). High involvement with all the system members (cognitive orientation) will lead to gratification and increase the affective ties with the system (Kanter, 1968).

However, this study had used Blau’s Social Exchange Theory for the underpinning theory as it is among the most influential conceptual paradigms for understanding workplace behavior (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Blau (1964) supports the notion that when employees perceive something positive about their organization, they reciprocate with commitment. Social exchanges theorists have proposed that employees are prone to exchange their commitment to an employer’s support. Shore et al. (2009) posited the theory as a universal phenomenon, having broad applicability in explaining interpersonal interaction processes in social and organizational life, and demonstrated a central theoretical perspective that accounts for relationship development universally.

2.4 Organizational Commitment Concept

Research on organizational commitment spans over four decades and remains an area of interest among researchers and practitioners. Becker (1960) had introduced a side-bet theory of commitment. Although generally not considered a stand-alone theory of organizational commitment today, it continues to be influential as a result of its incorporation into popular multi-dimensional models of organizational commitment, including Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model. Powell and Meyer (2004) findings provide strong support for the side-bet theory. Their findings support Becker's (1960) contention that there can be economic and social costs associated with leaving an organization. Some of the costs of leaving come from side bets made outside of the workplace. Powell and Meyer (2004) deduced that its clear evidence that Becker (1960) was accurate in his evaluation, i.e., related to the course of their employment, individuals make investments, or side bets, that make it more difficult for them to leave the organization. For many employees, this can be an essential basis for their commitment.

Although approaches to the definition of organizational commitment significantly differ, specific trends are apparent. The numerous explanations share a common theme, which indicates that organizational commitment is an association of individuals to the organization (Suman and Srivastava, 2012). Becker (1960) characterized commitment as a proneness to undertake in "consistent lines of activity" and asserted that it evolves as a "person finds that his involvement in social organization has, in effect, made side bets for him and thus constrained his future".

Porter et al. (1974) expound organizational commitment as the reciprocal strength of an individual's recognition and participation in a particular organization.

According to Ogilvie (1986), commitment diverges from the concept of job satisfaction. Commitment is more comprehensive, reflecting a typical affective response to the organization entirely. On the contrary, job satisfaction demonstrates one's response to one's job or a particular facet of one's career. Commitment accentuates bond or closeness to the employing organization, including its visions and values, while job satisfaction underlines the explicit task environment where the employee performs his duties.

Mowday et al. (1979) posited organizational commitment as more stable over time than job satisfaction. Commitment attitudes become visible to grow gradually but continuously as individuals anticipate their engagement and employer engagement. Contrarily, job satisfaction found to be a less stable measure over time, reflecting more expeditious reactions to specific and substantial aspects of the work environment (e.g. pays, rewards, etc.). Many previous studies found organizational commitment is the stronger antecedent of intention to leave than job satisfaction (Guchait, 2007). O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) theory's main contributions are their approach upon the difference among the antecedents and consequences of commitment and the outcomes for attachment on the other.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) described the commitment as the psychological attachment felt by an individual for the organization, reflecting the extent to which the person internalizes or embraces the organisation's dimensions or viewpoint. They asserted that three independent variables might anticipate one's psychological engagement, (a) Compliance or instrumental involvement for specific, extrinsic rewards; (b) Identification or engagement based on eagerness for affiliation; (c) Internalization or involvement predicated on the compatibility between individual and organizational values.

Although O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) presented a compelling perspective in commitment, for debatable reasons and because of its ambiguous questionable mechanism, only a few researchers have to go along with this mean (Weibo et al., 2010). As the research area expanded, the multidimensional framework's new idea was converged and adopted based on three distinct but related forms of commitment, i.e. affective, continuance, and normative (Allen and Meyer, 1990). For more than 20 years, Allen and Meyer's approach became the dominant one to the study of commitment. Organizational commitment is described as a psychological state that a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for the organization's decision to continue or discontinue membership" (Meyer and Allen) (1991).

The three-component measurement model of organizational commitment developed by Allen and Meyer (1990, 1996) has been the most widely adopted in previous research until now and has been measured as a higher-order construct in most studies (Presbitero et al., 2019). The affective commitment described as an emotional attachment to and involvement with an organization. In contrast, continuance commitment clarified as the perceived cost of leaving an organization, and normative commitment is defined as the commitment typology and perceived as having the responsibility to support and remain a member of an organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Allen and Meyer (1990) developed their model of three main components to incorporate the existing single-dimensional formulation of organizational commitment, including that depicted in Becker's (1960) side-bet theory. They asserted that the repeated ingredient in all definitions was the thought that commitment links an individual to a course of action. What varied was the "mindset" presumed to designate

the commitment. Becker (1960) expended that commitment was accompanied by an awareness of the costs of discontinuing a course of action. Then, Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed the continuance dimension to assess how employees feel committed to their organizations under the costs they think are associated with leaving.

Allen (2003) noted that continuous commitment reflects the degree to which the employee 'recognizes', or is aware that they are bound to stay because of the costs associated with leaving, not the mere existence of the costs themselves. Powell and Meyer (2004) argued that although the measure of continuance commitment developed by Meyer and Allen (1984; Allen and Meyer, 1990) to test their three-component model has been found to correlate with variables akin to side bets see (Allen and Meyer, 1996; Meyer et al., 2002), research to date has been limited. Moreover, there is some question about whether this measure accurately reflects commitment as Becker conceptualised (Ko et al., 1997). A few years later, a third dimension was added, the normative commitment (Allen and Meyer, 1990). The normative commitment was defined as a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they should remain within the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Normative commitment is affected in the main by socialization and culture before entering into an organization.

It wasn't until 1991, when Meyer and Allen (1991) re-conceptualized their views on engagement dimensions, that they coined the term organizational commitment. In this analysis, Meyer and Allen (1991) described engagement as a multidimensional construct indicating a relative strength of an individual's identity, participation, and loyalty to a particular organization (Faloye, 2014; Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Guest (2002) asserted that organizational commitment is essential because it increases employee retention and persuades them to accept change rather than because

it leads to job satisfaction or motivation. Guest (2002) viewed that a more organization-centered and potentially more stable concept and organizational commitment seemed appropriate because previous researchers failed to strongly associate job satisfaction and performance.

As the employees' attitude to the organization, organizational commitment is treated as the core predictor of turnover behavior, withdrawal tendency, and organizational citizenship behavior (Sinclair et al., 2005). Weibo et al., (2010) reviewed that for organizational commitment its evolution has developed over 50 years from Becker's (1960) one-side-bet theory, Porter's (1974) affective dependence theory, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986); Meyer and Allen (1991) multi-dimension period till today's Cohen (2003) two-dimension, and Somers (2009) combined theory, each of which had a substantial impact on the existing current status of organizational commitment. Weibo et al. (2010) asserted that the most developed approaches to organizational commitment could advance to a better mastery of organizational commitment and cannot be disregarded in any re-conceptualization of commitment.

Oliveira and Homorio (2020) maintained that while Meyer and Allen's three-dimensional model (1991) represents advances in topic research and still leads to a lack of conceptual consensus or overlaps between the researchers, it remains a guide in this field. The overview of organizational commitment multidimensional definition adapted in this analysis is as follows:

- Affective Commitment (AC) is a positive emotional attachment to the employee and a passionate sense of identification with the organization. An employee who has an effective commitment to his/her workplace wishes to remain part of the organization.

- Continuance Commitment (CC) is characterized as employees' commitment based on leaving the organization's economic and social costs. An employee who has a continuance commitment prefers to continue with the company because of a better option.
- Normative commitment (NC) is defined as a sense of moral obligation to the organization. An employee who is legally committed to reciprocating the benefits it provides remains with the company.

However, only two components were adopted in this study, specifically affective and continuance commitment, respectively, based on Cohen's (2007) two-dimensional commitment method to prevent overlapping with the predictive intention on organizational commitment. Such a decision parallels Somer's (2009) work that indicated commitment-focused research to emphasize commitment variables' amalgamation. Moreover, Drury (2004), and Gellatly et al. (2009) also previously did not use normative commitment when conducting their works due to high association found between normative and affective commitment (Meyer et al., 2002).

Furthermore, Weibo et al. (2010) assessed continuance commitment to show better content and discriminant validity. Cohen (2007) indicated that affective commitment posed the maximum order form of commitment compared to the basic instrumental version. Affective commitment corresponds to an employee's attachment and with a strong affective commitment continues employment with the organization because they want to do so (Pare and Tremblay, 2007).

In comparison, Ko et al. (1997) further debated normative commitment, highlighting the conceptualization burden due to the remarkable conceptual overlap between normative and affective commitment. The normative component was

rooted in the understanding that it was the correct action to stay with an organization. In comparison, affective commitment referred to the organization's closeness due to an individual's identification, involvement, and enjoyment of his membership (Weibo et al., 2010). Besides, Weibo et al. (2010) indicated that the significant association between the two components caused scholars to doubt the contribution of normative commitment and its conceptualization. The standard utilization of the element caused Jaros (2003) to indicate that an analysis of the scales' precision was required to tap into the construct. The role in reinforcing variables toward continuance commitment had been less clearly established (Pare and Tremblay, 2007). Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment because they need to do so.

2.5 Human Resource Management Practices Concept

Human resource management is a systematic and coherent approach to managing an organization's most valued assets, i.e. people who work individually and collectively to achieve a common goal (Armstrong, 2006). Michigan model of Fombrun et al. (1984) human resource management cycle, and Harvard School model of Beer et al. (1994) or known as 'Harvard framework' were among the pioneers in the human resource management concept, replacing historical personnel management.

Interestingly, human resource management researchers turned their focus to look more broadly at bundles of human resource management practices that facilitate employee commitment and involvement, instead of focusing on specific human resource practices used independently or in isolation (McDuffie, 1995). McDuffie (1995) acknowledges the interrelationships between activities in the overall human

resource management system by exploring the assumption that 'bundles' of interrelated and internally consistent human resource management practices rather than individual courses produce multiples, mutually strengthening the conditions for motivating and gaining skills employees that shape the interaction patterns between managers and employees McDuffie (1995) has viewed research that focuses on the performance impact of human resource management practices which may lead to misleading results and a single way capturing the effects of the whole human resource system.

The implication is that human resource management practices should be complementary. These bundles are referred to in the literature as “high involvement” (Lawler, 1986), “high commitment” (Arthur, 1992), and “high performance” (Huselid, 1995). This view is supported by Armstrong (2010), who argues that bundling can occur in several ways. The ways include the development of high performance, high commitment, and increased involvement systems.

Huselid (1995) defined human resource management practices as high-performance human resource management practices that focused more on the firm-level impact of human resource management practices through the organizational structure. Lawler's (1996) high involvement in human resource management practices' framework is focused on the management approaches to involve the employee in the organization (Yang, 2012). These practices allow the employees to make decisions regarding their jobs and organizational business holistically (Lawler et al., 2001). These would enable the employees to develop multidisciplinary skills in developing human capital and implementation through various efforts and interventions (Lawler, 2005). Besides, with the growing importance of human capital, high-involvement human resource management practices have become high-value-added parts of organizations (Lawler, 2003).

Lawler's proposed high-involvement model (1986) is seen as the primary engine behind contemporary strategic human resource management (McMahan et al., 1998). Pare and Tremblay (2007) developed a multidimensional theoretical set of high-involvement human resource management practices based on the Lawler (1996) high-involvement management conceptual framework, integrating the notion of high-involvement human resource management practices with the current understanding of the relationship between job attitudes and role behaviours.

Pare and Tremblay (2007) indicate that any four different, supportive HR activities can affect employees' attitudes and performance behaviours related to work. First, companies encourage workers to assume multiple roles and responsibilities through empowerment and significantly impact the job while enjoying increased autonomy. Second, high-performing businesses use skills development practices (e.g., job rotation systems, mentoring, and training) to boost current workers' efficiency and send the signal to employees that decision-makers are prepared to invest in them for long-term returns). Also, training and other activities for developing skills can be significant sources of competitive advantage and efficiency, as organizations rely on frontline workers' skills and initiative to identify and solve issues, implement improvements in work methods, and take responsibility for quality.

Third, appreciation is a central driver of human behaviour. Most of their motivation for most highly trained workers comes from the appreciation they get from managers for a job well done and the sense they are a vital part of the company. They often involve the company's attempts to evaluate employees' input and provide positive feedback carefully.

Fourth, equal organizational incentives relate to the perceived fairness of different job results, including pay, performance ratings, and work assignments. A high

degree of perceived equity indicates to workers that they are valued by the company and have their well-being at heart. Pare and Tremblay (2007) suggested that HR activities that strengthen these five components are likely to increase the perception of organizational commitment (both affective and continuance).

In other respects, based on McDuffie (1995), Kooij et al., (2010) focuses on high dedication or high involvement human resource management practices as viewed by employees and describes high dedication human resource management practices as practices aimed at generating a strong dedication to the organization and at creating circumstances in which employees are highly active in the organization and agree with its overall goals. Social exchange theory supports the idea that high-commitment human resource management practices influence work-related attitudes through employees' perceptions or experiences.

These theories indicate that high dedication to human resource management activities impacts workers by encouraging them or acting as "signals" of their intentions. To formulate hypotheses on the impact of high commitment human resource management practices on employees of different ages, these practices are categorized as theoretically meaningful human resource management bundles based on MacDuffie (1995). Kooij et al. (2010) conceptualized a growth of high commitment HR practices based on McDuffie's (1995) bundle of human resource management practices as those related to success, development, and achievement that helps individual employees achieve higher levels of functioning.

Human resource management practices for staffing include selection; whereas human resource management practices for skills development include career development; and human resource management practices for performance management include performance assessment and performance pay. Therefore, the integration of

conceptualization based on Tremblay et al. (2007) and Kooij et al. (2010) identified and incorporated human resource management practices as a high involvement or bundle of human resource management practices. In summary, there are six multi-dimensional elements selected in this study, namely; recognition, empowerment, competence development, performance management, fair rewards, and staffing and selection.

2.6 Servant Leadership Concept

In contrast with the well-documented research of transformational leadership in organizational studies literature, servant leadership is systematically undefined and not yet supported by much empirical research (Stone et al., 2004). Servant leadership is a newer area of study, and only a handful of empirical studies have been conducted to test the effects of servant leadership (Van Dierendonck et al., 2014).

This shows that the acceptance of the theory of servant leadership literature has not been strong enough to generate widespread acceptance (Russell et al., 2002). Parolini et al. (2009) suggested that servant leadership should be useful for most, if not all, employees. These organizations' employees considered this leadership behaviours model suitable and appropriate, suited with organizational desire. Servant-leader behaviours portrayed by the management team or senior leaders may influence other organizational leaders to practice and carry out this style, resulting in consistent expectations for employees through a consistent organizational culture.

Employees expect a healthy leadership style that would drive organizational success, not to mention embracing the demand for Industrial Revolution 4.0, leading to high-performance industrialization. A great leader can significantly steer the employee to perform at the expected or beyond the desired level, and for this achievement,

employees strongly relate with the organization. Thus, in turn, this will give success and benefit to the organization. Walumbwa et al. (2010) added servant leadership is theoretically distinct in several important ways. The authors justified three-manifolds: (1) servant leadership includes a moral component, a missing concept that is lacking from other established leadership theories, such as visionary, charismatic, and transformational leadership; (2) servant leadership distinctively give priority or concerned with the success of everyone that is related to the organization and (3) the strong concern of the servant leaders towards the best interest of the follower, with no exploitative and self-centric leadership behaviour.

On the contrary of other leadership behaviours, such as visionary, charismatic, transactional, and transformational leadership behaviours, these lean more towards attaining the goals to be achieved, the means of mission-oriented through a focus on inspiring and engaging followers to valued aspects of the followers' self-concept (Bass, 1985). Nonetheless, in the current situation this criticism is being addressed through the increased empirical study of servant leadership (See Dierendonck, 2010, Cerit, 2010, Ambali et al., 2011, Van Dierendonck and Nuijten, 2011, Choudhary et al., 2012, Mittal and Dorfman, 2012, Chan and Mak 2014).

Before this, research in servant leadership focused on constructing measurement and operationalizing, and thereby to validate the various dimensions of servant leadership through empirical studies by considering that the writing of Greenleaf was not based on research or logic but a keen intuitive sense of people and their relationships within institutions (Mittal and Dorfman, 2012). The study of the validation of measurement is continuously being carried out today. Laub (1999) had produced the first empirical study with a survey involving 847 people from 41 organizations and developed a 43-item instrument measuring six dimensions of servant leadership:

developing people, shared leadership, displaying authenticity, valuing people, providing leadership, and building community. More researchers continue defining, designing, validating, and operationalising servant leadership measurement; (See Sendjaya et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck and Nuijten, 2011; Mittal and Dorfman, 2012).

Sendjaya et al. (2008) strongly suggested that another essential research direction is to establish the measure's predictive and concurrent validity in light of some critical antecedents and servant leadership outcomes. Thus, there are numerous studies which had attempted to examine the impact of servant leadership towards organizational outcomes, e.g., organizational performance (Melcha and Bosco, 2010; Choudhary et al., 2013), organizational citizenship behavior (Vondey, 2008), and organizational commitment (Cerit, 2010; Ambali et al., 2011).

The current scenario has set the stage for "servant leadership" where new leaders must sketch new futures in the post-modern period. This leadership is a breakthrough in the field of leadership that, while at its incipient stage, has captured the imagination of researchers worldwide (Dutta and Khatri, 2017). Despite the growing academic interest in servant leadership, there is still a lack of coherence and consistency in the field (Eva et al., 2019).

In the face of today's demanding and dynamic world, people are becoming increasingly aware that conventional autocratic leadership patterns no longer guarantee long-term financial and social benefits for organizations. As a result, an ongoing call has been made for the old leadership paradigms to be replaced with the focus to be transferred to a new style of leadership that will enhance trust, promote a clear moral compass and social responsibility to ensure success as well as profit in today's organizations (Van Dierendonck and Nuijten, 2011). Servant leadership is a type of people-centred leadership, proof that servant leaders are expected to be more fulfilled,

more dedicated, and better performing employees (Van Dierendock, 2011). Servant leadership research is currently in the third phase, a model creation phase where more complex research designs go beyond essential relationships with results to consider the context, mediating processes, and boundary conditions of servant leadership (Eva et al., 2019).

Servant leadership is believed to have great potential as one of the new leadership theories (Erdurmazli, 2019). The idea of servant leadership has recently gained attention by holding an essential role in organizational management. Servant leadership varies from other leadership models, with different main leadership philosophies, such as philosophical overlapping with transformative, ethical, inspirational leadership, but concentrating primarily on its followers and stakeholders' needs and helping them evolve and grow (Palta, 2019).

The interest is in the leadership literature appearing in Robert Greenleaf's writings. He is against an organizational business that is too restricted, with a highly profit-oriented motive and urged organizations to serve society more as worthwhile (Drury, 2004). According to Greenleaf's view, the leader is first seen as a servant to others. The servant presumes a non-attentive motive within a particular group, facilitating and aiding resources and support without any expectation of special treatment, praise, or recognition. And by having a repetition of servant habits and practised consistently, these many leaders ultimately become apparent and decisive for group survival and are thrust into a leadership position (Smith et al., 2004). According to Parolini et al., (2009), the servant leader's correctness through good deeds and conscience were best asserted in Greenleaf's (1977) classic statement: "The servant-leader is servant first. It begins with a natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead" (p. 27).

Greenleaf elucidated that servant-first leaders will ensure serving other people's needs at the highest priority and rendered selflessness as underlying to help others. Greenleaf emphasized that the followers should have the opportunity to develop and become healthier, wiser, have the freedom to make a decision, and more apparent to become servants themselves. Furthermore, Greenleaf advocated that servant leaders observe their influence on the needy and unprivileged in communities, and ascertain if the practices impart a more desirable way of life for the least privileged (Parolini et al., 2009).

From the Islamic perspective, a leader's two primary roles are servant-leader and guardian-leader (Ambali et al., 2011). Prophet Muhammad (SAW) said that the leader of a *Jamaah* (organization/community/nation) is their servant. In this connection, a servant leader signifies that the leader is his followers' servant (*sayyid al qawn khadimuhum*). Hence, a leader should be in the business of serving and helping others get ahead (Ather, 2008). He is to seek their welfare and guide them towards good deeds. A leader's idea as a servant has been part of Islam since its beginning (Beekum and Badawi, 1999). As pointed out clearly by Prophet Muhammad (SAW) in one of the *Alhadiths*, "Every one of you is a shepherd, and everyone is responsible for what he is the shepherd of" (*Sahi Bukhari and Muslim*, 3:733). Beekun (2006) and Khaliq (2009) approached servant leadership that leans toward values, ethics, principles, virtues, morality, spirituality, and authenticity. It advocates that leaders should serve those under them, helping them to reach maximum effectiveness. The viewpoint of the servant-leadership approach as practised by Prophet Muhammad (*PBUH*) is that leadership is not seen as a privilege or position. It is a huge responsibility. Thus, leaders need to feel that they are servants to fulfil their duties in the best way possible. They share their responsibilities and authority with others to meet a greater need, that is, by

involving followers in planning and decision making (*Shura*). The approach revolves around brotherhood in which the leader and all members of the organization are considered part of an extended family.

Duta and Khatri (2017) asserted a servant leader shifts attention from processes and outcomes to people. This people-oriented approach, coupled with an altruistic element, makes servant leadership a favourable style for employees' inculcating positive behaviour. Erdurmazli (2019) asserted that servant leadership's core behaviours, which mainly are focused on followers' needs, individual growth, and development without any covert agenda regarding organizational objectives and leader's expectations, are considered as relatively much more right and proper leadership concept.

Chan and Mak (2014) argued that there is minimal agreement about servant leadership measurements, and it was suggested that for future research on servant leadership, an extensive investigation should be performed to establish that servant leadership has distinctive constructs with other leadership behaviors.

Van Dierendock and Nuijten (2011) have conceptualized servant leadership in a multidimensional concept. First, Empowerment seeks to encourage and give them a sense of personal power in a proactive, self-confident attitude among followers. This reflects individual values and supports their personal growth (Laub, 1999). Leadership empowerment involves promoting self-directed decision-making and exchanging knowledge and coaching for imaginative success (Konczak et al., 2000).

Humility is the second key feature. It refers to the ability to place one's achievements and skills in a proper perspective (Patterson, 2003). Servant-leaders dare to recognize that they will profit from the experience of others. They continuously seek feedback from others. Humility demonstrates the degree to which the leader puts others' needs first, encourages their success, and provides them with critical support. Humility

is also a matter of modesty; a servant leader retreats into the background when a mission has been accomplished.

Third, accountability: keeping individuals responsible for results that they can regulate (Conger, 1989). This makes accountability a process that gives results to individuals and teams (Konczak et al. 2000). This ensures that individuals understand what is required of them, which is beneficial to both workers and the company (Froiland et al. 1993). It is a powerful instrument to display faith in one's followers; it offers limits beyond which one is free to accomplish one's objectives. While mainstream literature on servant leadership stresses accountability as very relevant, scholars have often ignored it and never integrated it into any other servant leadership measures.

Fourth, Standing Back: the degree to which the leader prioritises others' needs first and gives them the requisite support and credits. When a job has been virtually completed, standing back is often applied. Standing around should be closely connected to most other facets of the workers' management, including honesty, empowerment, modesty, and leadership.

Authenticity: is closely linked to the expression of a 'true self,' expressing oneself in ways compatible with inner thoughts and feelings (Harter 2002). Authenticity is about being true to oneself, reflecting internal states, intentions, and commitments accurately – privately and publicly (Peterson and Seligman 2004). From an organizational point of view, it can be described as acting so that professional roles remain secondary to which the individual is a human (Halpin and Croft 1966).

(6) Courage: daring to take risks and try new approaches to old problems (Greenleaf 1991). Courage is a significant attribute that separates the servant leader from other leaders, according to Greenleaf (1991). Courage is about challenging conventional working behaviour models within the organizational context (Hernandez

2008); it is necessary for innovation and creativity. Courage is related to pro-active actions and includes creating new ways of behaving. To do so means to rely heavily on the principles and convictions that control one's actions (Russell and Stone 2002).

Besides, interpersonal acceptance is about being able to forgive when faced with offences, arguments and errors. Servant leaders need to build an environment of trust where individuals feel welcomed, are free to make mistakes and recognize that they will be rejected (Ferch, 2005). This promotes the creation of high-quality interpersonal relationships by better-knowing other people's behaviours. Servant leaders are not vengeful or desperate to get away with it, creating a setting that brings out the best in people.

Stewardship: the desire to take responsibility for the greater organization and go to service instead of power and self-interest (Block 1993). Not only should leaders serve as caretakers, but they should also act as role models (Hernandez 2008). Leaders may stimulate others to behave in common interest by setting the right example. Stewardship is strongly linked to social responsibility, loyalty, and teamwork. These structures all reflect a sense of affiliation and a sense of duty to a common good that includes self but extends beyond one's self-interest (Peterson and Seligman, 2004).

Based on the discussion, Van Dierendock and Nuijten (2011) extensive servant leadership conceptualization was adapted in this study since the eight dimensions in the concept cover the essential aspects of servant leadership.

2.7 Organizational Learning Capability Concept

The concept of learning as learning systems can be traced in the late 1950s by several theorists such as Richard Cyert, James March and Herbert Simon at Carnegie

Mellon University. However, this concept's interest is further centred on Argyris and Schon (1978) work. Since then, the organizational learning field has evoked a great deal of interest and has achieved eminence among the ideas since it has gauged the focus and attracted attention from academic scholars and industrial practitioners.

From the Islamic perspective, personal growth and collective development are presented as an inclusiveness view to accentuate human resource development through learning (*minal mahd ilal-lahd*). Cited in (Ali, 2010), Prophet Muhammad *PBUH* asserted that learning leads to development:

“Knowledge is obtained through studying. The dialectic relationship among the learned individuals, knowledge, and work is captured in the Prophet’s saying, “Learned people, knowledge, and work are blessed. When those who have knowledge do not act upon it, they are not blessed; but work and knowledge are always blessed”.

The concept of organizational learning capability emphasizes the importance of facilitating factors for organizational learning or propensity to learn (Bapuji and Crossan, 2004; Goh and Richards, 1997). Initially, DiBella (1995) conceptualized organizational learning capability as an alternative paradigm of organizational learning and learning organization concepts differently. Essentially, the concept of organizational learning capability derived from organizational learning in the early years, as processes of learning to the content of the knowledge generated and used in an organization (DiBella, 2011). Nevis et al. (1995) offered their description of organizational learning capability, defining it as the proficiency or undertakings present in an organization towards retaining or enhancing performance per experience obtained.

Such processes included knowledge procurement, dissemination, and implementation (DiBella et al., 1995).

Nonetheless, a newer interpretation offered by Jerez-Go´mez et al. (2005) conceptualized organizational learning as the organizational capability to process knowledge; to build, acquire, move to incorporate information and adjust actions to reflect the new cognitive situation to improve efficiency.

Alegre and Chiva (2008) defined organizational learning capability as a collection of resources or skills, whether corporeal or intangible, that are exploited to gain a new organizational competitive advantage. Inadvertently, this will ease the overall process. In this process, organizational learning capability, often described as the organizational and management features that promote the organizational learning process, or enable and encourage an organization to learn, plays a vital role (Chiva et al., 2007). Thus, actions that foster the organization's capacity to learn are described below, such as generating ideas utilizing experimentation, continuous improvement and observation, working in teams, and participative policies. Organizational learning can be understood as a process, whereas organizational learning is constituted by organizational features that allow an organization to learn (Lopez-Cabrales et al., 2011). Hooi and Ngui (2014) postulate a robust organizational learning capability that contributes to meeting knowledge needs to pursue specific competitive strategies.

Contextually, Chiva et al. (2007) developed an organizational learning capability multi-dimensional concept to understand the organizational learning capability. These were based on the comprehensive analysis by taking both descriptive and prescriptive literature to determine organizational learning capability's facilitating factors. This organizational learning capability dimensionality is explained through the importance of interactions: interactions between actors (individuals and groups) and

artefacts (things, values, processes, etc.), and interactions among actors. The former includes experimentation and risk-taking, and the latter refers to interaction with the external environment, dialogue, and participative decision making (Alegre and Chiva, 2008).

This dimension is considered the most underlined facilitating factors in the literature. This was a comprehensive approach by analyzing organizational learning and the learning organization literature (Alegre and Chiva, 2008). The five underlying dimensions of which are: experimentation, risk-taking, interaction with the external environment, dialogue, and participative decision making. On the one hand, these five dimensions are essential enablers of the organizational learning process. On the other hand, they represent the organizational learning capability of a particular firm. (1) Experimentation is defined as the degree to which new ideas and suggestions are attended to and dealt with sympathetically (Chiva et al., 2007). Scholars conceptualized and strongly supported experimentation in the literature of organizational learning capability. Dibella et al. (1996) considered that experimentation involves trying out new ideas, being curious about how things work, or carrying out work processes changes. Watkins and Marsick (1993) described by organizational experimentation build systems for learning, for example, methods to tap more readily into the capacity of an organization's workforce, to bring people together to redesign works, to plan systematically for innovation.

(2) Risk-taking is understood as the tolerance of ambiguity, uncertainty (Chiva et al., 2007). Researchers supported the essential of risk-taking, open to criticisms, and accepting mistakes for organizations to learn (Garvin, 1993; Goh and Richards, 1997). Goh and Richards (1997) paralleled the experimentation with risk-taking by observing the degree of freedom employees enjoy in pursuing new ways of getting the job done

and the freedom to take risks. When the organization allowed the people to take some risks, this would create some mistakes, but that might to learning (Watkins and Marsick, 1993).

(3) Interaction with the external environment is understood as the external environment's scope of relationships. Chiva et al. (2007) defined the external organizational environment as factors that the organization has no control directly or indirectly to influence. Among others are industrial agents such as competitors, and the economic, social, monetary, and political/legal systems changing environment. Nevis et al. (1995) emphasized the organization's importance to understand or comprehend the external environment scrutinizing. Due to the limited or lack of scrutinizing efforts caused many organizations to have turbulence times.

In (4) dialogue - Nevis et al. (1995) asserted that learning could be promoted if there is an opportunity for the people to meet with others and see the next step to higher management levels. People want to share their views and errors, not hidden, and express opinions through legitimate disagreement or debate. Similarly, Garvin (1993); Goh and Richards (1997) advocated emphasising a cross-functional team to work as teamwork and solve problems in a group. An organization can have a dialogue in enabling to evolve new and deeper shared understandings. Those who were participating unconditionally would be able to deliberately and mutually adjust their actions (Crossan et al., 1999)

In (5) participative decision making, Shrivastava (1983) noted that the organization must encourage a participative decision making practice, thus increase communication among decision-makers and be the key facilitator of learning in organizations. As a result, the learning capabilities of the organization is enhanced. The participation of all relevant organizational members in decision situations is

fundamental for an organization to function, communicate, and evaluate in decision-making is a participative process. Nevis et al. (1995) suggested an organization that supports variation in strategy, policy, process decision making is more adaptable when unforeseen problems arise. It provides more options that allow for rich stimulation and interpretation for all its total members.

Having synthesized the literature of organizational learning capability, Chiva et al. (2007) conceptualization was adapted for this study, derived from the theoretical lens of organizational learning capability literature.

2.8 Relationship between Variables and Formation of Hypotheses

The followings sub-section nearly further review previous empirical researches on the relationship of the variables or the main constructs, i.e., between human resource management practices and organizational commitment, servant leadership and organizational commitment, human resource management practices and organizational learning capability, servant leadership and organizational learning capability, and organizational learning capability with organizational commitment.

2.8.1 Human Resource Management Practices and Organizational Commitment

Theoretically, the correlation between human resource management practices and organizational commitment is reinforced by the theory of social exchange as the underlying principle: when workers experience organizational investment, they feel the need to reciprocate in the form of commitment (Akkermans et al., 2019). Shahid (2017) argued that while several studies have attempted to examine human resource management practices that affect work outcomes and job efficiency, there is a need for

a greater understanding of this organizational phenomenon by growing further research on organizational commitment.

It is now mandatory for an organization to have effective human resource management practices to ensure organizational stability and a harmonious environment (Shahid, 2017). The goal of human resource management practices is to use the people available to align human resource functions with strategic organizational needs, thus improving organizational commitment to achieve the desired results (Abujudeh, 2019). Since developing nations, such as Malaysia, are in acute need of adopting and pursuing viable human resource management practices to make their service industry (in this study, Malaysia Airports Holdings Berhad) grow and flourish, it needs to be committed and satisfied staff (Jawaad et al., 2019). Besides, Jawaad et al. (2019) argued that a high organizational commitment is a good representation of sound human resource management practices used in every workplace to promote ties between organizational and employee objectives. Human resource management practices have played an essential role in increasing the organizational commitment of employees. Human resource management needs to efficiently incorporate human resource management practices to match workers' goals with organizational objectives (Hassan and Mahmood, 2016). Due to the workforce's diversity today, more appropriate and creative human resource management practices are needed (Shahid, 2017).

To accomplish organizational tasks, organizational commitment is vital. Organizational commitment ensures the relationship between the company and its workers. Therefore, it is imperative to explore ways to encourage organizational commitment amongst employees effectively (Al Daresi and Darun, 2017). It was pointed out by Jawaad et al. (2019) that organizational commitment is one of the metrics or criteria that confirms whether human resource management practices in companies

can promote mental relations between firms and the goals of employees. Sendogdu et al. (2013) found a reliable, statistically positive relationship between other human resource management variables and organizational commitment. While analyzing the regression, Hassan and Mahmood (2016) found a positive relationship between human resource management practices and organizational commitment. Overall findings show that workers pleased with human resource management practices are loyal to the organization. In their research, Jawaad et al. (2019) hypothesized and found positive correlations between employee expectations of the jobs of proper human resource management practices and more significant organizational commitment under the focal lens of social exchange theory. In their research, Aboramadan et al. (2019) found that human resource management practices substantially affect workers' organizational commitment to higher education.

Ramaprasad et al. (2017) found that organizational commitment is found to have beneficial effects for both organizations and workers. Organizational commitment is a significant criterion for evaluating the efficacy of activities in human resources management practices. Instead of the engagement of workers concerned with how employees participate in their jobs, the organizational commitment's essence focuses more on the interaction between people in the company and the organization itself (Aboramadan et al., 2019).

Ujma and Ingram (2019) found that human resource management practices have an impact on organizational commitment. In particular, their study means that if a company is willing to invest in human resource management practices, human resource management practices' investment pays back in this regard. Stein and Min (2019) found moderate positive and negative linear correlations between bundles of human resource management practices and organizational commitment. Significant discrepancies were

also established between the degree of employees' organizational commitment and their understanding of human resource management practices' influence on their performance (Aydogan and Arslan, 2020). Employees who agree that human resource management practices related to enhancing the working environment improve efficiency have higher affective commitment levels.

Oliveira and Honorio (2020) found that organizational commitment is greatly influenced by most human resource management practices, demonstrating that affective and normative commitment is the most affected and continuance commitment is on a weaker scale. Thus, the above discussion leads the researcher to formulate the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis (H₁): There is a significant relationship between human resource management practices and organizational commitment.

2.8.2 Servant Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Qiu and Dooley (2019) stressed that to analyze servant leadership's implications and their interrelatedness rigorously, the study is very much required. Erdurmazli (2019) believed that the essence of servant leadership behaviours could make significant contributions, just as their leaders do to the motivation and devotion of followers who sacrifice their considerable personal resources for others' well-being without any expectation in return.

Presbitero et al. (2019) stated that many leadership studies of organizational commitment align with social exchange theory. The theoretical structures for empirical studies on servant leadership are primarily based on social exchange (Blau, 1964). Servant leaders and their followers offer valuable resources and support in exchange for

the dyadic partner's help and support. In particular, when servant leaders reflect on their followers' development and growth, followers feel obliged to reciprocate these positive leadership behaviours with their positive follower behaviours (Eva et al., 2019).

Specifically, Al Jabri and Ghazzawi (2019) propose that future empirical research focuses more on the role of leadership and organizational contexts as it assumes that leaders play the most crucial role in the commitment of workers to ensure that an ethical atmosphere will contribute to a well-performed organization and a dedicated workforce internally.

Erdurmazli (2019) highlighted that organizations should create suitable conditions to improve the feelings of their members' commitment. As the critical founders of such circumstances in organizations, leaders are believed to have essential responsibility for building and preserving these sentimental relations. Erdurmazli (2019) indicates that servant leaders would extensively cultivate followers' feelings of commitment to their organizations.

Empirically, Miao et al. (2014) found that servant leadership greatly influences affective and normative commitment while not affect continuance commitment. The outcome of this study indicates that managers should practice servants leadership. Servant leadership has a significant key to building confidence in the direction and organizational commitment of employees. This result suggests that workers have a higher level of leadership confidence and a higher organizational commitment level when they practice the servant leadership style of management. That is because servant leadership's actions can help leaders break down the barriers between their leader and followers by promoting their well-being. Therefore, managers should also increase support to others, display empathy and compassion to followers, and promote a sense of community to boost faith in their leadership and organisational commitment level.

This study also suggests that managers need to concentrate on the traditional top-down leadership and hierarchical pyramid. Leaders must instead assume leadership as a collaborative way in which the servant leadership stresses a deep engagement between the leader and the follower and seeks the agreement of all. It has a positive effect on employees by doing so. It has been shown that servant leadership in this study can increase trust in leadership and organizational commitment among employees.

Newman et al. (2017) found the relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment was significantly related. Jang and Kandampully (2017) discovered that servant leadership positively affects employee affective organizational commitment. Allen et al. (2018) believed that servant leadership impacts organizational commitment proposed to build structurally empowering working environments that promote employees' greater commitment to the organization. Lapointe and Vandenberghe (2018) agreed that the servant's leadership was determined to predict organizational commitment. Results suggest that servant leaders influence the relationship's essence and strength with their company that employees establish. Servant leaders are likely to provide workers with meaningful and rewarding job experience that instils a sense of emotional attachment to the company. Another result was that staff leadership fostered workers' emotional commitment to the company, which, in turn, empowered them to make constructive suggestions and recommendations to fix organizational problems. Organizations can thus inspire administrators when communicating with their teams to implement servant leadership behaviours.

Palta (2019) also found that teachers and servants' organisational contribution to leadership is linked. This correlation is positive and low. Erdurmazli (2019) has a substantial and positive influence on volunteers' affective and normative engagement

attitudes through servant leadership behaviours. Servant leadership habits demonstrated by leaders have profoundly and positively affected volunteers' organizational commitment to their organizations. By their acts and words, servant leaders clearly show their concern for their followers, show their sympathy to them, and show that they are genuinely mindful of what followers feel and think. So, they recognize followers' problems and are willing to help them overcome those personal problems.

Therefore, this study considers that servant leaders' emotional healing behaviors support followers' protective motives. They can hold the belief that their leaders will always be with and help them solve their problems. When leaders dedicate themselves to serve and support their followers and other stakeholders, followers develop moral connections toward their leaders and organization as a specific form of exchange, i.e. followers feel a moral requirement to remain with the organization and decide to continue their helping behaviors until they perceive a balance of exchange exists, just as the social exchange theory suggests (Blau, 1964). In light of the discussions presented above, the researcher posits the following:

Hypothesis (H₂): There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment.

2.8.3 Human Resource Management Practices and Organizational Learning Capability

Although studies related to organizational learning capability antecedents in the form of an integrative framework are limited, literature shows that researchers attempted to conceptually propose the factor of human resource management practices towards organizational learning capability (Chau, 2008). It appears that the linkage between human resource management practices and organizational learning capability

started in mid-2000 (See Perez-Lopez et al., 2005; Bhatnagar, 2007; Theriou and Chatzoglou, 2008).

However, the linkage between human resource management practices and organizational learning capability has rarely been dealt with (Jerez-Gómez et al., 2005). Ulrich (1997) mentions the link between human resource management practices and organizational capabilities, with learning capability being one of them. Further, he notes that managers should continuously ask themselves questions, such as how human resource management practices can create the needed capabilities. Organizational studies researchers (e.g. Lopez-Cabrales et al., 2011, Hooi and Ngui, 2014, Hooi, 2019) applied the firm's resource-based view theory Resource-Based Theory developed by Barney (1991) as the underlying theory to the link between human resource management practices and organizational learning capability. Barney (1991) argues that the possession of strategic resources (an asset that is important, unique, hard to imitate, and non-substitute) provides an organization with a golden opportunity to establish competitive advantages over its competitors, in turn, may help the organization enjoy high profits. In this analysis of human resource management practices and organizational learning capability, resources refer to what an organization owns, capabilities refer to what the organization can do (Barney, 1991). Thus, Hooi and Ngui (2014) postulate human resource management practices play a crucial role in the growth of organizational learning capabilities whereby management can signal a clear commitment to learning by introducing distinctive human resource activities to promote learning at the employee, community, and organizational levels.

Bhatnagar and Sharma (2005) empirical analysis between human resource management roles and organizational learning capability stipulate that correlation was significant and positive. The findings discover empirical support that strategic human

resource management roles are substantial, concurrent with organizational learning capability. These are positively associated and better comprehended by human resource management managers. Based on the Resource-based View (RBV) Theory of Firm, López-Cabrales, et al. (2011) empirical evidence established the theory with the significance and direct relationship between human resource management practices, i.e., workforce selection and competency-based performance evaluation with the organizational learning capability. Nevertheless, the hypothesis relating the development of employees with organizational learning capability was not supported.

Hooi and Ngui (2014) have established that adopting a set of human resource management practices that enhance Malaysian small and medium-sized manufacturing and service companies' organisational learning capability. Formal managerial action to promote efficient organizational learning capability should also integrate acceptable human resource management practices to encourage and foster organizational learning capability.

Jerez-Gomez et al. (2017) said that the implementation and application of high human resource management practices would enable businesses to distinguish themselves from rivals in terms of their organizational learning capabilities. The application of high-performance human resource practices is positively related to the development of organizational learning capability. Jerez-Gomez et al. (2017) postulate organizational learning as a strategic organizational capability and a source of competitive advantages. Chia (2016) found human resource management practices from the lens of high commitment human resource management practices significantly related to Japanese MNCs' organizational learning capability in Malaysia. The evidence provides the human resource management practices successfully developing the organizational learning capability when implementing specific human resource

management practices supports the management's learning capabilities. For example, selection aimed at hiring personnel with a flexible, dedicated, and high learning capability of the essential positions and skills required by organizations to win the future. Meanwhile, compensation practice, including incentives and rewards, encourages employees to engage in continuous learning capability and enhance cooperative behaviour across the workforce. Finally, training and development activities that concentrate on refreshing and improving new multi-dimensional skills, knowledge, and experience will ensure that workers strengthen their commitment and other responsibilities.

Hooi (2019) concluded that the effect of organizational learning capability on improving organizational outcomes could be more critical if organizational learning capability were to operate following human resource management practices. The research offers evidence that a strong indication of distinctive human resource management practices has positively contributed to organizational learning capability. Altogether, these discussions suggest the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis (H₃): There is a significant relationship between human resource management practices and organizational learning capability.

2.8.4 Servant Leadership and Organizational Learning Capability

“Leadership and learning are indispensable to one another.”

– John F. Kennedy

Senge (1990) and, Slater and Narver (1995) were among the early organizational learning researchers that associated leadership and organizational learning. Leadership commitment indicates the attitudes of a firm's leaders in supporting learning. The

leader's role is to develop a shared vision, provide the resources needed, delegate authority, and celebrate learning successes (Senge, 1990).

Based on previous research, the direct link between transformational leadership and organizational learning has already been empirically well documented and well documented in the literature (García-Morales et al., 2012; Mirkamali et al., 2011; Amy, 2008; Aragón-Correa et al., 2007). However, servant leadership literature remains mostly limited (Mittal and Dorfman, 2012; Schneider and George, 2011; Cerit, 2010). Choudhary et al. (2013) relate the transformational leader and servant leadership to organizational learning and performance empirically. The studies revealed that servant and transformational leadership have many commonalities; they influence followers, empower followers, encourage them for good performance, communicate, and listen to subordinates. The finding showed that both leadership behaviors positively impact organizational learning and latter towards organizational performance.

Ahmad and Ogunsola (2011) assessed three leadership approaches in one of the international universities in Malaysia, i.e., transformational, transactional, and servant-leadership approaches. Results show the servant leadership approach is more dominant in leaders in the university. It is found that the transformational and transactional leadership approaches are not perceived to be neglected. They are used when situations demand that added further flexibility to allow leaders to respond to environmental and group dynamics (Ahmad and Ogunsola, 2011). This research also suggested that the servant leadership approach is preferably used in conjunction with alternative Bass's transactional and transformational leadership approach.

Undoubtedly, more research needs to be conducted to support the positive effects of the servant leadership style in the business environment and societies.

Dominguez-Escrig et al. (2016) reported that the role of servant leadership had been

recognized in fostering an atmosphere that facilitates organizational learning capability and as a precedent. Leaders who unselfishly take care of others and aim to improve their well-being will cultivate an atmosphere that encourages experimentation, dialogue, risk-taking, openness to the external environment, and participatory decision-making. The study shows that servant leadership has a direct impact on organizational learning capacities. The higher the degree of employee understanding of the style of servant leadership directly implemented by management, the greater the potential of organizational learning, and vice versa. This study confirms previous studies by Choudhary et al. (2013), Oktavia and Devie (2014), which clarified that the workers' servant leadership has a direct and vital direct impact on organizational learning skills. The author's findings also reaffirm Choudhary et al.'s (2013) research, which shows that servant leadership in the organization can improve the learning environment.

However, the above discussion on previous empirical studies discussed the significant effect of servant leadership on organizational learning per se, but not organizational learning from an organizational learning capacity perspective. Dominguez-Escrig et al. (2020) reported that their study was the first empirical research to examine the impact of servant leadership on organizational learning capability to the best of their knowledge. The outcome offers evidence that there is an essential link between servant leadership of servants and organizational learning capability. Hence, the above indicates that servant leadership is considered a potential predictor of organizational commitment for future research. However, the empirical research that linked servant leadership and organizational learning remain limited, even though the above discussion emphasized servant leadership's significant importance towards organizational learning capability (Escrig et al., 2020). Based on the gap of empirical studies on servant leadership with organizational learning

capability, it is hypothesized that servant leadership to have a linkage with organizational learning capability as the following:

Hypothesis (H4): There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and organizational learning capability.

2.8.5 Organizational Learning Capability and Organizational Commitment

In furtherance of the conceptual and theoretical arguments on organizational learning capability, several empirical studies have linked it with the organizational outcomes. Although there was no strong underpinning theory relating organizational learning capability and organizational commitment in an organizational setting, it is predicted that the social exchange theory provided the dominant basis for understanding exchange relationships in said settings (Shore et al., 2009). This subsection reviews recent empirical studies on the relationship between these two variables.

Researchers extensively linked organizational learning capability and organizational performance, innovation, and other organizational variables (See Alegre and Chiva, 2013; Mallén et al., 2016; Hooi, 2019; Migdadi, 2019). On the other hand, several previous researchers link organizational commitment to organizational learning (Hanaysha, 2016; Kamali et al., 2017). However, researchers have yet to widely explore the relationship between the organizational learning capability with organizational commitment empirically. Thus more research is required to analyze the relationships between the said relationship (Tirelli and Goh, 2015; Chiva et al., 2007). Goh et al. (2012) argued that organizational learning capability has a significant positive relationship with non-financial outcomes, i.e., organizational commitment. In the Malaysian context, the need to study organizational learning from an organizational

learning capability perspective in an organizational context is apparent to support the findings. Embracing culture and learning in organizations is essential in tackling Malaysia's organizational commitment (Lau et al., 2016).

Ussahawanitchakit (2008), among others, had explored and asserted the importance of relationship organizational learning capability and organizational commitment. Unlike the previous researches that extensively applied processes or cultures (i.e., based on learning organization literature) as the components of organizational learning, this study used capability as the key driver in promoting organizational commitment in the competitive markets and environments and found that learning capabilities integration has significant positive impacts on organizational commitment. Jaiswal et al. (2019) also found organizational learning capability has a substantial effect on affective organization commitment.

Camps and Rodríguez (2011) attempted to link between organizational learning capability and organizational commitment in Spain. It is concluded that the employee's commitment to the employer due to the trust and investment when employees work in an atmosphere of learning. Camps and Rodríguez (2011) viewed the social exchange theory as the theoretical framework for explaining organisational support perceptions that contribute to employees' subsequent affective commitment to the organization, creating feelings of obligation that foster behaviors that support organizational goals. Thus, it is likely that the more employees perceive that an organization can learn, the higher they are psychologically attached to their organization.

However, Camp et al. (2016) studied organizational learning capability with employee individual performance related to organizational commitment. However, the result indicated no significant direct effect between both variables.

Research by Tirelli and Goh (2015) indicates that organizations can use learning skills to create meaningful organizational commitment. Organizational learning capability has been substantially positively associated with an affective organizational commitment. Results show that an organization with better learning skills is more likely to establish employee loyalty. In other words, workers are more likely to want to be part of the organization and are prepared to participate in it emotionally, and believe in the methods and procedures used to accomplish organizational goals. Caballero and Guhao (2020) suggest that organizational learning capability and organizational commitment are closely related and have a significant relationship. Higher organizational learning capability results in higher organizational commitment. The indicators of organizational learning capability, i.e., knowledge sharing, dialogue, participative decision-making, experimentation and openness, and risk-taking, were correlated with organizational commitment. The findings explain that putting high regard on employees' educational requirements and supporting the job's learning will promote abilities, skills, loyalty, and commitment to the organization.

Nonetheless, based on the above discussion, the need for further research is apparent to be examined further to prove the significant impact of organizational learning capability towards organizational commitment and to expand this study due to its limitation. The deep connection between the two constructs research has not yet been adequately explored. Thus, the above discussion leads the author to formulate the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis (H₅): There is a significant relationship between organizational learning capability and organizational commitment.

2.8.6 Mediating Effect of Organizational Learning Capability between Human Resource Management Practices and Organizational Commitment

Based on previous discussions and hypotheses to better understand the role of organizational learning capability, this study aims to examine organizational learning capability as a potential mediator in the relationship between human resource management practices and organizational commitment.

Although previous studies show that human resource management practices are related to organizational commitment, researchers have found that these relationships are not necessarily straightforward or unconditional. Theriou and Chatzoglou (2014) argued that human resource management practitioners could improve their organizational commitment by creating effective frameworks to integrate best practices with learning, experience, and organizational commitment. It is essential to explain this problem to show that the introduction of particular human resource management practices does not inherently directly lead to organizational performance. However, its indirect contribution through the creation of strategic capabilities is significant. Latorre et al. (2016) argued that human resource management research did not adequately understand the mechanism by which human resource management practices and results could be related. Jerez-Gomez et al. (2017) and Torlak et al. (2018) concluded that the effect of human resource management practices on organizational outcomes is mostly indirect. The premise is that human resource management practices' precise application would not guarantee an organizational commitment (Torlak et al., 2018).

An increasing number of studies has explored the boundary conditions of the connections between organizational commitment and its antecedents. (Presbitero et al., 2019). Akkermans et al. (2019) decided to fill the so-called "black box" of human resource management (Becker and Huselid, 2006) to research a process by which better

organizational performance can be obtained through human resource management practices. Therefore, organizational learning capability is considered a fundamental strategic capacity, and study should examine mediating company capacities to understand better the role of human resource management practices (Jerez et al., 2017).

Dominguez-Escrig et al. (2020) argued that it is crucial to understand the organizational sense in which it takes place; its implications can not be analyzed in isolation because it does not occur in a vacuum. Several studies take the same method, and the impacts of leadership by mediating variables are explained. In this vein, one of those mediating variables that previous studies have shown to be important is organizational learning capability.

Hooi (2019) postulates that the basic concept for selecting organizational learning capability as a mediator is that organizational learning capability directly affects individuals' capacity and motivation to learn. The human resources management practices theoretically promote the various learning processes and levels, leading to a sustainable competitive advantage by cultivating vital tacit human asset expertise special, invaluable, extraordinary, unparalleled and non-substitutable. Hooi and Ngui (2014) assessed and selected organizational learning capability as a three-fold mediating factor. First, people are primary learning agents, as an organization can mobilize their capital to learn from them (Hughes, 2000). Second, human resources practitioners have a significant impact on the ability and motivation of individuals to learn. Distinctive human resource management strategies can be put in place to facilitate different learning processes and levels.

Third, high organizational learning capability leads to a sustainable competitive advantage by creating valuable knowledge-based tools (Becker and Huselid, 1998). In this research, employees' impressions of human resource management activities (i.e.,

evaluation of events and situation) may influence the willingness of organizational participants to learn (affective reactions) within the organization, which can contribute to an increase in organizational commitment (individual or organizational behavior).

However, evidence from previous empirical studies different intervening variables as the mediator between human resource management practices and organizational commitment such as motivation (Mostafa, 2015), organizational justice (Fesharaki, 2018), employability (Akkermans et al., 2019), task uncertainty (Ujma and Ingram, 2019), work engagement (Aborahman et al., 2019), and job satisfaction (Jawwad et al., 2019; Cherif, 2020).

On the other hand, previous empirical studies had extensively and significantly posit organizational learning capability mediates between human resource management practices and organizational performance (see Hooi and Ngui, 2014, Theriou and Chatzoglou, 2014, Tirelli and Goh, 2015, Li, 2016, Jerez et al., 2017, Peris-Ortiz et al., 2018, and Hooi, 2019).

Hence, based on the above discussion that leads to mediation gap considering that human resource management practices, as proposed in Hypotheses 3, may boost the conditions of organizational learning capability, i.e. enhancing participation in decision-making, dialogue, experimentation, interaction with the external environment and risk-taking; and taking into account the potential mediation of organizational learning capability between the human resource management practices and organizational commitment is worthy of study. Accordingly, the researcher argues, to the best of the researcher's understanding, that organizational learning capability plays an important role in explaining the relationship between employee perceptions of human resource management practices and organizational commitment. The following hypothesis is therefore proposed:

Hypothesis (H₆): Organizational learning capability mediates the relationship between human resource management practices and organizational commitment.

2.8.7 Mediating Effect of Organizational Learning Capability between Servant Leadership and Organizational commitment

Van Dierendock et al. (2014) were among the early researchers who identified the need to investigate the underlying mechanisms through which servant leadership affects outcomes. These issues are currently relevant as Eva et al. (2018) asserted that servant leadership research is in the third phase, a model development phase in which more sophisticated research designs are used to move beyond superficial relationships with outcomes to understand the mediating mechanisms of leadership. Domínguez-Escrig et al. (2020) stated that it is crucial to understand the organizational context in which it takes place while researching leadership; it does not occur in a vacuum. Its impacts should not be analyzed in an isolated manner.

However, the previous empirical research has different intervening variables that mediate servant leadership with organizational commitment, such as trust (Goh and Low, 2014), leaders effectiveness and need satisfaction (Van Dierendonck., 2014), need motivation (Gutierrez-Wirsching et al., 2015; Erdumazli, 2019), structural empowerment (Allen et al., 2018), and career growth opportunity (Wrinkler, 2020).

On the other hand, previous empirical studies had examined the mediation effects of organizational learning capability between servant leadership with various dependent variables. Goh and Low (2014) findings indicate that servant leadership has an indirect relationship with organizational commitment. Trust is used as the mediator, but the result shows that servant leadership still directly impacts organizational commitment, thus indicating trust is a partial mediator. Mallen et al.'s (2015) study were

one of the first empirical research to concentrate on altruistic leader behaviors, which implicitly conceptualises leadership style in service leadership. Still, it is not a style in itself. Results suggest that organizational learning capability fully mediates between altruistic leader behaviors and organizational performance. Domínguez-Escrig et al. (2020) studied the mediation of organizational learning capability between servant leadership and radical innovation. Results have shown servant leadership has a positive effect on organizational learning capability, and there is an indirect effect which indicates organizational learning capability mediates between both variables.

Thus, since servant leaders, as indicated in Hypotheses 4, may foster conditions that promote involvement in decision-making, dialogue, experimentation, engagement with the external environment, and risk-taking, it is fair to depend on the capacity of servant leaders to foster conditions in which organizational commitment develops. In this study, therefore, the researcher argues that organizational learning capability potentially plays a vital role in explaining the relationship between employee perception of servant leadership and organizational commitment to the best of the researcher's knowledge. The following hypothesis is, therefore proposed:

Hypothesis (H7): Organizational learning capability mediates the relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment.

2.9 List of Hypothesis

The overall above discussion in this chapter leads the author to formulate overall hypotheses as to the following:

Hypothesis (H₁): There is a significant relationship between human resource management practices and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis (H₂): There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis (H₃): There is a significant relationship between human resource management practices and organizational learning capability.

Hypothesis (H₄): There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and organizational learning capability.

Hypothesis (H₅): There is a significant relationship between organizational learning capability and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis (H₆): Organizational learning capability mediates the relationship between human resource management practices, servant leadership and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis (H₇): Organizational learning capability mediates the relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment.

This lead to the development of the research framework of this study, as illustrated in Figure 2.1 below:

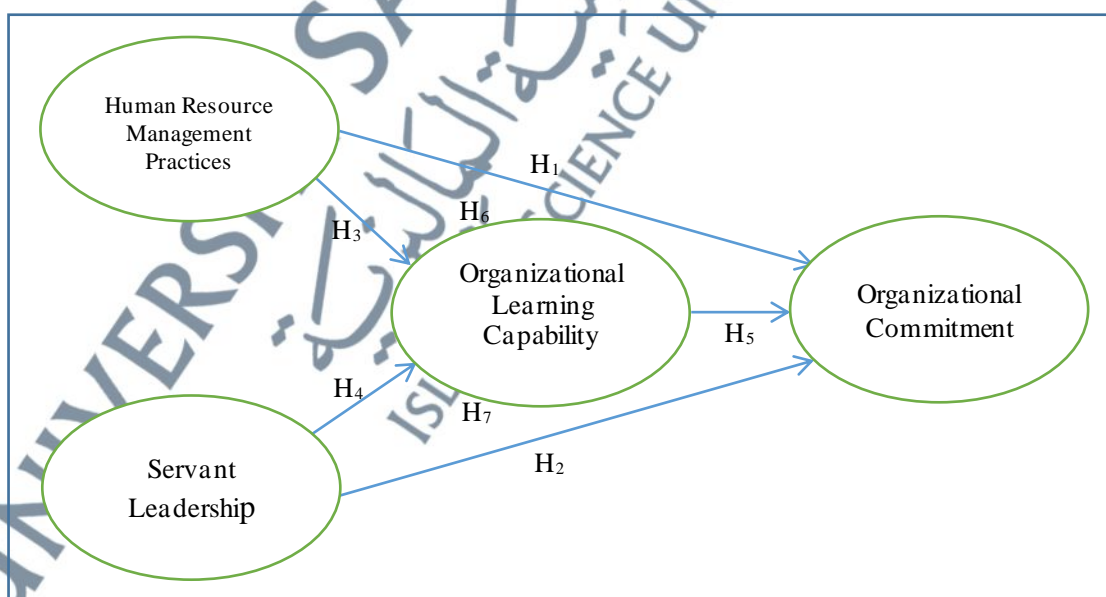


Figure 2.1: Research Framework

2.10 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the theoretical framework and previous empirical research that linked among the variables were described. Blau (1964) Social Exchange Theory is used as the underpinning theory or the relationships' dominant basis. The organizational commitment multidimensional construct of Meyer and Allen (1990) and organizational learning capability concept by DiBella (1995) and were applied and integrated for the understudy variables. Further, supported by human resource management practice on high involvement theory by Lawler (1986), and Greenleaf's (1977) servant leadership concept was used to integrate with the mediator's organizational learning capability.

Furthermore, this chapter discussed the various empirical researches to support this study. These include the evidence linkages between human resource management practices and servant leadership on organizational commitment, prediction of human resource management practices and servant leadership towards organizational learning capability, and the impact of organizational learning capability on organizational commitment. Furthermore, the potential organizational learning capability as a mediator between human resource management practices and servant leadership on organizational commitment. Next, in the following chapter, the researcher will discuss the research methodology in Chapter 3.