THE IMPACT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES ON
EMPLOYEE’S JOB COMMITMENT: A STUDY OF UNIVERSITY OF
EDUCATION WINNEBA – KUMASI CAMPUS

VESTAL ESI TAY

JUNE, 2017
UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

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A Dissertation in the Department of Management Studies Education, Faculty of Business Education, submitted to the School of Graduate Studies, University of Education Winneba, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Masters of Business Administration (Organizational Behaviour and Human Resource Management)

JUNE, 2017
DECLARATION

STUDENT’S DECLARATION
I, VESTAL ESI TAY, declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in the published works which have been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely the results of my own original research work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

SIGNATURE………………………..….……
DATE………………………..….……

SUPERVISOR’S DECLARATION
I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of project work laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

SUPERVISOR’S NAME: DR. LORD OPOKU ANTWI
SIGNATURE………………………..….……
DATE………………………..….……
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my mother who would have wish I get to this stage but unfortunately did not live to see it. May her soul continue to rest in perfect peace.

My Husband Mr Matthew Tay, this is for you.
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ABSTRACT

Human Resource Management (HMR) Practices and their impacts on employees’ performance have received enormous cover in literature. The main objective of the study was to examine the impact of these HRM practices on the performance of employees in the University of Education, Winneba in the College of Technology Education. The sample for the study was 75 employees consisting of junior staff, senior staff and senior members. Data for the study was collected through the administration of structured questionnaire. Descriptive statistics such as charts, tables and regression analysis were used to analyze and present the data collected. The study established a very important relationship among HRM practices and employees’ commitment to work. The selected HRM practices which formed the independent variables are training & development, motivation, performance appraisal, internal communication, and reward/remuneration while employees’ commitment stood as the dependent variable. It was found that, the independent variables together explained 98% of the variance in employees’ performance. Internal communication came in as having the strongest relation with employees’ performance in respect of all the independent variables. Although a great deal is known about the implications of employee commitment for organizations, less attention has been paid to its ramifications for employees themselves. The most consistent findings pertain to the positive link between affective commitment and employee well-being. Relations between continuance commitment and well-being are more variable, but generally negative. Little is known about relations involving normative commitment. There is considerable inconsistency in findings pertaining to the moderating effects of commitment on stressor–strain relations. Training & Development of employees took the fourth most significant slot among all the five (5) measurement dimensions employed in the research. Recommendations were then given in accordance with the research findings.
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

This research explores the impact of human resource management practices on employee’s job commitment in public Universities taking a case study of the University of Education, Winneba-Kumasi Campus. Today, operating organizations continue their existence for different goals according to organization’s type and aims. These organizations can be classified as private, non-governmental and public establishment. While the preferential aim of the public establishments are fulfilling the public’s needs, private establishments’ aim is earning profit. Non-governmental (civil) establishments’ aim is fulfilling the public’s needs and carrying on their business like public establishments Akçakaya, (2010). These three kinds of establishments’ common aim is giving quality service. There is an important issue to be considered here: All these three organizations need a common ground. This common ground is human resource. No matter how strong the financial resources of an organization, probability of success will be low if the human resources do not have sufficient activity. Low effectiveness of human resources means that the organization slogs on reaching the targets set for the future and profitability level.

Owing to the virtue of human capital as a main source for productivity and competitive advantage (Khan, 2015), organizations must consider the critical role of human resource practices and make every effort to develop and sustain this capital. The development of human capital can be achieved by HR practices. Literature looks at these practices as antecedents of various organizational outcomes. Findings from Guerci et al. (2015) demonstrated that HR practices enhance the organizational climate. According to
Shahnawaz and Juyal (2006), HR practices (i.e. training, employee participation, training and career development) are significantly predicting organizational commitment. Furthermore, HR practices are significant for improving employees’ performance and enhancing the achievement of organizational goals (Ahmed & Akhtar, 2012).

Research on HRM practices has been studied extensively among manufacturing and small & medium enterprises. These theoretical and empirical studies have generally focused on HRM practices within western organizations. Relatively few studies have been done about the impact of HRM practices on firm performance in Asian countries (Zheng, & O’Neill, 2006; Goodall & Warner, 1997, 1999; Li, 2003; Lu & Bjorkman, 1997) as cited by (Rathnawerera, 2010). The HRM environment can be more important determinant of productivity in the service sector than in the manufacturing sector, given the much larger share of total production costs accounted for by employment, and the much more extensive direct contract between employees and customers, in services Ann, (2004). However, most of the prior research on HRM and employees commitment that improves organizational performance has focused on the manufacturing sector than the service sector despite the fact that today most employees work in service sector industries.

In fact, the concept of HRM Practices has been down-played in many public institutions as compared to the private sector but Ahmad and Schroeder (2003) found a positive influence of human resource management practices (information sharing, extensive training, selective hiring, compensation and incentives, status differences, employment security, and decentralization and use of teams) on organisational performance as operational performance (quality, cost reduction, flexibility,
deliverability and commitment). In furtherance of this assertion, Sang (2005) also found a positive influence of human resource management practices (namely, human resource planning, staffing, incentives, appraisal, training, team work, employee participation, status difference, employment security) on organisation performance.

Job Performance has become one of the significant indicators in measuring organizational performance in many studies (Sheehan, Clegg, & West, 2004). Even though performance is oftentimes determined by financial figures, it can also be measured through the combination of expected behavior and task-related aspects. In fact, performance that is based on an absolute value or relative judgment may reflect overall organizational performance.

Guchait (2007) asserts that to study the employee-employer exchange, that is employers HR practices and it concomitant employee’s commitment, two important frameworks have been increasingly, but not exclusively, adopted by scholars, namely perceived organizational support (POS) and psychological contracts (PCs). Both factors were found to have a significant relationship with employees’ commitment to organizations (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Eisenberger et al., 1990). PC is defined as an employee’s belief regarding terms and conditions of an exchange relationship with their organization Rousseau (1989), such as (1) wages based on time on job, rank or performance, Coyle-Shapiro & Conway (2005), or (2) compensation, training etc in exchange for loyalty, performance etc. (Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni, 1994). Psychological contract constitutes of employment obligations, embedded in the context of social exchange Rousseau, (1989). Obligations are the basic components of social exchange relationships and are defined as beliefs, held by an employee or
employer, that each is bound by promise to an action in relation to the other party Robinson, et al., (1994). According to the authors, PCs consist of sets of individual beliefs or perceptions regarding reciprocal obligations. The individual nature of psychological contracts is their defining attribute which makes them conceptually different from both a formal and implied contract, as it considers an individual’s beliefs of the terms and conditions of an agreement between the individual and his/her employer Lester & Kickul, (2001). Unlike formal employee-employer contracts, PC is inherently perceptual and therefore an individual’s interpretations of the terms and conditions of the obligations within the contract may not be similar to the other individual Kickul, et al., (2004). Employees’ PCs specify contributions that they believe they owe to their employer and the inducements that they believe are owed in return Robinson, et al., (1994). PCs are developed and executed through interactions between an employee and organizational agents such as recruiters, human resource personnel and direct superiors but in the employee’s mind, the contract exists between him or her and the organization.

In addition they tend to hold beliefs concerning what the organization is obligated to provide and how well the organization actually fulfilled those obligations (Robinson & Morrison, 1995). Thus, the content of PCs may include any item that might be exchanged between the organization and the employee (e.g., compensation, training, support, in exchange for loyalty, performance) Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, (2005). PC research has explored the employer-employee exchange relationship by investigating consequences of perceived contract fulfillment or breach (the extent to which an employee believes that their employer has fulfilled or failed to fulfil one or more of its promised obligations) on employee attitudes and behavior (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005). Prior studies have reported a positive relationship between perceived contract
fulfilment and employees’ organizational commitment Coyle-Shapiro, & Kessler, 2000; Pathak, et al., (2005) whereas a perceived contract breach resulted in reduced organizational commitment (Guzzo & Noonan, 1994).

Perceived organizational support (POS) refers to an individual’s perception concerning the degree to which an organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (i.e. the degree to which the organization is committed to its employees) Eisenberger et al., (1986). Eisenberger et al. (1986) used a social exchange framework to argue that employees who perceive high level of support from their organizations tend to feel obligated to the organizations which in turn makes them more committed to their organization. Based on the literature, POS and PC share some similarities. First, both concepts use social exchange (Blau, 1964) and norm of reciprocity Gouldner, (1960) to explain their consequences on employee attitudes and behaviour. Second, both are the key means by which employees evaluate their employment relationships with their organization Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, (2005). Third, both have been reported to have a positive relationship with employees’ organizational commitment. Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2000) reported a positive relationship between perceived contract fulfilment and commitment, and Eisenberger et al. (1990) reported a positive relationship between POS and OC. However, three distinctive differences have also been reported between the two concepts. First, POS refers to employees’ beliefs about whether an organization is committed to them Wayne et al., (1997), whereas PC is about employees’ perceived mutual obligations and the extent to which they believe that their organizations have fulfilled the promised obligations Robinson, et al., (1994). Second, POS is about an individual’s perception of an organizational treatment irrespective of the fact that the treatment was
promised or not, whereas for PC employees reciprocate when there is a difference between what was promised and what is fulfilled Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, (2005). Third, relates to the interdependence of an employer and an employee to the exchange. POS focuses only on the employer’s side of the exchange as perceived by the employees, whereas PC includes an employee and employer perspectives, as PC is about an employee’s perception of the reciprocal obligations between that individual and the employer, (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005).

According to organizational support theory employees form general beliefs about the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being, Eisenberger et al., (1986). Based on the norm of reciprocity, such perceived organizational support make employees feel obligated to care about the organization’s welfare and to help the organization reach its objectives. One way that employees may approach to satisfy this indebtedness is through greater affective commitment to the organization and greater efforts to help the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Schmitt & Chan (2003) categorized Employee Job commitment into „will-do“ and „can-do“. The former refers to individuals’ knowledge, skills, abilities and other characteristics (KSAOs) required in performing certain job and the latter denotes the motivation level that individuals may have in performing their work.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Noe et al. (2010), defined Human Resource Management (HRM) as a philosophy, policy, system and practices that can affect the behaviour, attitudes and commitment. Activities of HRM include HRM planning, staffing, training and development, performance management, compensation management, safety and health and
employee relations. In an early stage, the management of organization has ignored the function of HRM practices as a main driver of organizational success. Only lately, the potential role of HRM in enhancing organization performance has been realized. HRM practices can improve the performance of organizations by contributing to employee and customer satisfaction, innovation, productivity, and development of good reputation among firm”’s community (Noe et al., 2010). However many literature available tends to look at HRM practices and its resultant effects on organizational performance neglecting the fact that organizations success is achieved on the commitment of it “bedrock” that is the employee”s.

Despites the immense importance of Human Resource Management (HRM) Practices towards the realization of Employees commitment in particular and organizational performance in general, many organizations do not give emphasis to its effective utilization so as to ensure organizational performance in developing countries like Ghana. Series of studies have been conducted on Human Resource Management (HRM) Practices in Europe, America, and different parts of Asian continents but little were conducted in Africa in general and Ghana in particular. Most of those little studies conducted on Human Resource Management (HRM) Practices in Ghana, focus more on organization strategy in private organizations like banks, manufacturing firms etc with few from public sector organizations. Furthermore, the studies emphasized on the effects or impacts of Human Resource Management (HRM) Practices on organizational performance not employees commitment. These gabs motivated the researcher on the need for yet another study on the effects of Human Resource Management (HRM) Practices on Employee commitment in a public sector organization to be able to bridge the gap.
1.3 Objective of the Study

The broad objective of this study is to examine the effects of HRM practices on the employee job commitment, using University of Education, Winneba-Kumasi campus as the study area. Other specific objectives are to:

1. To examine how employees perceive the influence of human resource practices on employees’ job commitment in the University.
2. Identify the Human Resource Practices in the University

1.4 Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

1. What is the perceived influence of Human Resource Practices on employees’ job commitment in the University?
2. What are the Human Resource Practices in the University in the University?
3. What are the challenges and shortfalls in the Human Resource Management practices in the University?

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study will be useful for other organizations to reduce employee turnover in their business entity. Results and suggestions from this endeavor which is carry out in Ghanaian context can be utilized by other organization to enhance corporate competitiveness and performance. On the other hand, these results will be shared with top management of UEW to identify the critical gap in the people management systems, re-strategize its retention policies and employee engagement activities in
line with aspiration of UEW Strategy to position it and to attain global competiveness in order not to be left out in the globalization battle. In summary, the present research intends to endow human resource practitioners with guidance and support to proficiently manage turnover in their organization. Results from this study will assist in development of an efficient HRM retention program for organizations and in particular for UEW as employee retention is a fundamental strategic tool for organizations to sustain in the market place.

1.6 Limitations of the Study
The study encountered a number of constraints and challenges. The unwillingness of some of the employees and administrators to respond to the questionnaire was a major challenge. They felt uneasy divulging information on their places of work. This the researcher solved by assuring them of the confidentiality of the information they provided. The study was not devoid of time constraints. A lot of time was spent in retrieving the questionnaire but upon persistent visits, 90.3% of the questionnaires sent were retrieved for analysis.

1.7 Delimitations of the Study
It would have been ideal for a study on examine the effects of HRM practices on employee’s job commitment to be undertaken in different industries in Ghana. Nevertheless, this study was carried out in the College of Technology Education, Kumasi of the University of Education, Winneba. The sample was restricted to those staff in the University. Also, although there are numerous HRM activities, this research could not cover the exhaustive list of HRM functions due to constraints such as time. Besides not all HRM functions can be initiated as practices (e.g. human resource planning). The research thus focused on recruitment and selection,
compensation, career management, work-life balance and employee’s commitment and development. The chosen HRM practices are a mix of both fundamental and contemporary HRM practices which are vital to today’s organization.

1.8 Organisation of the Study

This study will be divided into five chapters. Chapter one is the introduction part. It considers the background, statement of the problem, objectives and research questions. It also looks at the significance, scope, limitations and the organisation of the study. Chapter Two focuses on literature reviews based on the research questions for this study. In this chapter literature will be reviewed on contemporary issues in HRM, the concept of employee’s commitment, among others, this will further be categorize into theoretical and empirical study. Chapter Three looks at the methodology used for the study. It explains the research design, population and sample, instrument and procedure that were used in collecting data for the study. Chapter Four presents the Analysis and findings of the study according to the research questions. The final Chapter which is chapter Five presents the conclusion. This chapter contains discussions, conclusions and recommendations.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The purpose of the study is to assess the effect of HR practices on employees commitment to work. This chapter reviews previous works done by researchers in the field of HRM. What is known as literature review in research does not only provide knowledge on what has been done on an area of study but the strengths and weaknesses that could propel a meaningful and insightful study. This chapter casts more light on the concepts of HRM, various “Bundles” of Human Resources practices, contentions surrounding theories, models and previous findings, theories of employees commitment and the effects thereof. It ends with the HR practices that have been found to have greater effects on employee performance especially in education taking the case of the University of Education, Winneba.

2.1 Theoretical Perspective on HRM

Bratton (2012) posits that in the past two decades, HRM scholars have debated the meaning of the term „human resource management“ and attempted to define its fundamental traits by producing polar or multi-conceptual models. A number of polar models contrast the fundamental traits of HRM with those of traditional personnel management, while others provide statements on employer goals and HR outcomes. These models help to focus debate around such ques-tions as „What is the difference between HRM and personnel management?” and „What outcomes are employers seeking when they implement a HRM approach? Here, we iden-tify six major HRM models that seek to demonstrate in analytical terms the distinctiveness and goals of HRM (Beer et al., 1984; Fombrun et al., 1984; Guest, 1987; Guest, 2002;
Hendry and Petti-
grew, 1990; Storey, 1992). These models fulfil at least four important intellectual functions for those studying HRM (Bratton, 2012):

- They provide an analytical framework for studying HRM (for example, HR practices, situ-ational factors, stakeholders, strategic choice levels and HR and performance outcomes).
- They legitimize HRM. For those advocating „Invest in People“, the models help to demonstrate to sceptics the legitimacy and effectiveness of HRM. A key issue here is the distinctiveness of HRM practices: „it is not the presence of selection or training but a distinctive approach to selection or training that matters. It is the use of high performance or high commitment HRM practices” (Guest, 1997, emphasis added).
- They provide a characterization of HRM that establishes the variables and relationships to be researched.
- They serve as a heuristic device – something to help us discover and understand the world of work – for explaining the nature and significance of key HR practices and HR outcomes.

2.1.2 Theories of Human Resource Management (HRM)

Human Resource Management was first defined by Bakke (1966), who said that the general type of activity in any function of management is to use resources effectively for an organisational objective. The function which is related to the understanding, maintenance, development, effective employment and integration of the potential in the resource of “people” I shall call simply the human resources function (Karikar, 2017). However, HRM emerged fully fledged later when the Michigan “matching model” (Fombrun et al, 1984) and what (Boxall 1992) calls the Harvard framework developed by Beer et al (1984), made statements on the HRM
concept revealing the need to take HRM beyond just selection and compensation to broader issues that demand more comprehensive and more strategic perspective to an organisation’s human resources. The matching model of HRM held that HR systems and the organisation structure should be managed in a way that is congruent with organisational strategy and further explained that there is a human resource cycle that consists of four generic processes or functions that are performed in all organisations; selection, appraisal, rewards and development. The Harvard framework is based on their belief the problems of historical personnel can only be solved when general managers develop a viewpoint of how they wish to see employees involved in and developed by the enterprise and of what HRM policies and practices may achieve those goals. Without either a central philosophy or a strategic vision which can be provided only by general managers – HRM is likely to remain a set of independent activities, each guided by its own practice tradition. This called for the need to have a long-term perspective in managing people and consideration of people as potential assets rather than merely a variable cost. As Armstrong (1987) puts it, HRM is regarded by some personnel managers as just a set of initials or old wine in new bottles. It could indeed be no more and no less than another name for personnel management, but as usually perceived, at least it has the virtue of emphasizing the virtue of treating people as a key resource, the management of which is the direct concern of top management as part of the strategic planning processes of the enterprise. Although there is nothing new in the idea, insufficient attention has been paid to it in many organisations. Thus HRM consists of the management activities related to investing in human resources: acquiring employees, assessing their performance, providing training and development, and determining the appropriate level and type of compensation.
In many medium-sized and large organizations, a functional specialist or department handles many HRM responsibilities. But regardless of whether the organization has a human resource manager or department, each manager is responsible for assessing needs and for managing his or her own human resources—from interviewing and selecting job applicants to estimating future needs, appraising performance, identifying training needs, and keep employees who excel, because the organization’s competitive advantage is tied so closely to its human resources.

Human resource activities help organizations obtain and manage employees who have the ability and motivation for high performance. To ensure that the organization has employees with the needed abilities, HRM helps plan and implement strategies for acquiring and training human resources. To encourage employee motivation, HRM strategies assist in assessment of work, employee compensation, and labor relations. Combined, these practices can enable managers and their employers and their employees to develop into a powerful source of sustainable competitive advantage.

Adding to the array of concepts and theories is the term Human Capital which was originated by Schultz (1961). Karakari (2016) asserted that, human capital is the stock of competencies, knowledge, experience, social and personal attributes including creativity and innovation, embodied in the ability to perform work so as to produce economic value. Dess & Picken, (1999) assert human capital is generally understood to consists of the individual’s capabilities, knowledge, skills and experience of the company’s employees and managers, as they are relevant to the task at hand, as well as the capacity to add to this reservoir of knowledge, skills and experience through individual learning. This theory is concerned with how people contribute their
knowledge, skills and abilities to enhancing organisational capability and the significance of that contribution. This is rather broader in scope than human resources.

HRM practices refer to organisational activities directed at managing the pool of human resources and ensuring that the resources are employed towards the fulfilment of organisational goals (Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Schuler & MacMillan, 1984; Wright & Snell, 1991). It was observed that majority of studies define HRM in terms of human resource practices or systems or bundles of practices. Divergent views exist on the nature of HRM. Several studies define HRM in terms of individual practices (Batt, 2002) or systems or bundles of practices (Capelli and Neumark, 2001). There appears to be no one fixed list of generally applicable HR practices or systems of practices that define human resource management. The question of how HRM impacts on organisational performance has ignited three perspectives.

The universalistic perspective (Boxall & Purcell, 2008) projects a bundle of high performance “best practices” that should be adopted by organisations to yield organisational performance. This implies that business strategies and HRM policies are mutually independent in determining organisational performance (Katou & Budwar, 2007). The contingency perspective proposes that in order to be effective, an organisation’s HR policies must be consistent with other aspects of the organisation. Rather than adopting best practices, a fit must exist between HRM and business strategy (Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Dany et al, 2008). This is also described as “vertical fit” (Karikari, 2016).
Boxall and Purcell (2003) argue that both perspectives; best practice and best fit might be right in each in their own way. However, the actual design of HR practice depends to some extent on the unique organisational context. The third which takes the contingency perspective a step further is the configurational perspective, Ulrich & Brockbank, (2005). This has a holistic approach that emphasises the importance of the pattern of HR practices and is concerned with how this pattern of independent variables is related to the dependent variable of organisational performance. Configuration has been defined by Huczynski and Buchanan (2007) as “the structures, processes, relationships and boundaries through which an organisation operates”. All perspectives are relevant in exploring the linkage between HRM and performance. Delery and Doty (1996), examined the relationship between HR practices and profitability in a sample of banks in the US. They found that, in general, HR practices were positively related to profitability, in testing universalistic, contingency and configurational approaches to HRM.

Human resource management as a concept has frequently been described with two distinct forms; soft and hard (Karikari, 2016). The soft models while stressing the importance of integrating HR policies with business objectives; emphasises on treating employees as valued assets and a source of competitive advantage through their commitment, adaptability and high quality skill and performance. Employees are proactive than passive inputs into productive processes, capable of development, worthy of trust and collaboration which is achieved through participation (Legge, 1995). This model in contrast to the hard model places emphasis on “human” and is associated with the human relations school of Herberg and McGregor (Storey,
The hard HRM model focuses on the qualitative, calculative and business-strategic aspects of managing the “headcount” has been termed human asset accounting (Storey, 1987). The hard HRM approach has some affinity with scientific management as people are reduced to passive objects that are not cherished as a whole but assessed on whether they possess the skills or attributes the organisation requires (Legge, 1995; Vaughan, 1994; Storey, 1987; Drucker et al, 1996; & Keenoy, 1990).

2.2 Building Human Capital

Today, more than ever, strategic decisions are related to human resource considerations. For example, in an information and knowledge-based economy, success depends on an organization’s ability to manage human capital. Human capital refers to the economic value of the knowledge, experience, skill, and capabilities of employees.

To build human capital, HRM develops strategies for ensuring a workforce with superior knowledge and skills. This means recruiting to find the best talent, enhancing their skills and knowledge with training programs and opportunities for personal and professional development, and proving compensation and benefits that enhance the sharing of knowledge and appropriately reward people for their contributions to the organization. Human resource managers also help create an environment that gives highly talented people compelling reasons to stay with the company. Judy Lyles of DET Distributing Company in Nashville Tennessee sees the human resource department not just as the keeper of the rules, but as the “keeper of workers” hearts, the keeper of why they want to come to work every day” (Wah, 1998; Fey et al. 2000 as cited in Boateng, 2010).
2.3 Human Resource Management - A Distinct Source of Sustained Competitive Advantage

Recent theoretical work in business strategy has given a boost to the prominence of HRM in generating sustained competitive advantage. According to the resource based view of the firm (Barney, 1991) firms can develop a sustained competitive advantage only by creating value in a way that is rare and difficult for competitors to imitate. Although traditional sources of competitive advantage such as natural resources, technology, economies of scale, and so forth, create value, the resource based argument is that these sources are increasingly easy to imitate, especially in comparison to a complex social structure such as an employment system. If that is so, human resource strategies may be an especially important source of sustained competitive advantage (Lado & Wilson 1994; Pfeffer 1994; Wright & McMahan, 1992). The concept of the HRM system as a strategic asset has implications for both the characteristics and effects of such a system. Strategic assets are “the set of difficult to trade and imitate, source, appropriable, and specialized resources and capabilities that bestow the firm”s competitive advantage” (Amit & Shoemaker, 1993).

Unlike capital investments, economic scale, or patents, a properly developed HRM system is an “invisible asset”, Itami, (1987) that creates value when it is so embedded in the operational systems of an organization that it enhances the firm’s capabilities. This interpretation is also consistent with emphasis on “core competencies” developed by Prahalad and Hamel (1990), who argued that conventional measures of economic rents such as the difference between the market and book value of assets reflect “core competence people embodied skills” (Hamel & Prahalad, 1994).
Why might it be especially difficult to imitate human resource strategies that are deeply embedded in an organization? Two of the key factors are causal ambiguity and path dependency (Barney, 1991; Collins & Montgomery, 1995). First, it is difficult to grasp the precise mechanisms by which the interplay human resource practices and policies generate value. To imitate a complex system, it is necessary to understand how the elements interact. Are the effects additive or multiplicative, or do they involve complex nonlinearities? Without being able to understand how a HRM system works, it is even difficult for a competing firm to imitate a valuable HRM system by hiring away one or a few top executives because the understanding of the system is an organizational capability that is spread across many (not just a few) people in the firm. Second, these HRM systems are path dependent. They consist of policies that are developed over time and cannot be simply purchased in the market by competitors. A competitor can understand that a system is valuable but is precluded from immediate imitation by the time required to fully implement the strategy (assuming the system could be understood). Further, there may be limits on management’s ability to successfully replicate socially complex elements such as culture and interpersonal relationship.

2.4 Human Resource Management Practices

Many researchers over the period have identified different HRM practices by different names. Researchers variously refer to certain sets of HRM practices as “best practices” or high performance (Huselid, 1995) “sophisticated” (Golhar & Deshpande, 1997; Hornsby and Kuratko, 1990; Goss et al., 1994; Wagner, 1998) or as “professional” (Gnan & Songini, 2003; Matlay, 1999). Pfeffer (1998) argued the most appropriate term is “Best HRM practices”. However, according to Chandler and
McEvoy (2000), one of the lingering questions in HRM research is whether or not there exists a single set of policies or practices that represents a universally superior approach to managing people. Theories on best practices suggest that universally, certain HRM practices either separately or in combination yield improved organisational performance.

A number of lists of “best practices” have been produced and according to Guest (1999) these include: Selection and the careful use of selection tests to identify those with potential to make contribution; Training, and in particular a recognition that training is an ongoing activity; Job design to ensure flexibility, commitment and motivation, including steps to ensure that employees have the responsibility and autonomy fully to use their knowledge and skills; Communication to ensure that a two-way process keeps everyone fully informed; Employee share ownership programmes to increase employees’ awareness of the implications of their actions on the financial performance of the firm.

Redman and Mathews (1998) in a research also identified an HRM bundle of key practices that support services organisations. To them, these include;

1. Careful recruitment and selection, for example, “total quality recruitment”, “zero defects recruitment”, and “right first time recruitment”.
2. Training and learning
3. Extensive remuneration systems for example bonuses for staff willing to be multi-skilled
4. Team working and flexible job design
5. Employee involvement
6. Performance appraisal with links to contingent reward systems.
The 3cTER framework of HRM practices which was developed by Saxena and Tiwari (2009) through examining the HRM practices of leading IT companies like TATA, Infosys and Wipro in India identified culture building, career development, compensation and benefits, training and development, employer-employee relations and recognition through rewards as important HRM practices. Delery and Doty (1996) identified seven strategic HR practices that are related to overall organisational performance: The use of internal career ladders; Formal training systems; Results-oriented appraisal; Performance-based compensation; Employment security; Employee voice; Broadly defined jobs.

However, the best known which was produced by Peffé (1998), named the following practices. These are: Selective hiring; Employment security; Self-managed teams; High compensation contingent on performance; Extensive training; Reduction in status differences; Sharing information. In a notable research work carried out by Appelbaum et al, (2000) who investigated the links between high performance work systems and performance in a major study of 44 manufacturing sites in steel, apparel and medical equipment between 1995 and 1997; they identified three types of generic people management practices which they thought were critical to organisational performance. Placing more emphasis on recruitment, selection and learning, they opined that skill enhancing practices are important because changes in work organisation are only effective if employees have adequate skills to take up these opportunities. Motivation enhancing practices are critical because even if it is assumed that employees have the skill and opportunity, it is essential that they have the motivation in order to take up these opportunities. Finally, involvement enhancing practices are concerned with designing online work systems and offline
involvement activities so that employees have the chance to become involved and participate in decision making.

There is a strong indication that the key to activating what is called the “People-Performance link lies not only in well-crafted” bundles of HR practices, but in their conjunction with a powerful and cohering organisational vision and corporate leadership together with front-line leadership’s action and use of discretionary power. Previous studies have shown that implementing HRM practices is an important means through which favourable outcomes can be promoted; Guest (2002), as cited in Quansah (2013), argued that the effects of HRM practices on performance depends upon worker’s response to HRM practices, so the impact will move in direction of the perception of HRM practices by the employee.

It has been proven that the presence of strong recruitment and selection practices, promotional opportunities, grievance resolution mechanisms, flexible benefit plans, employee responsibility, autonomy and team work were found to relate positively to organizational commitment while compensation cuts were negatively associated with organisational commitment (Caldwell, Chatman & O’Reilly, 1990; Fiorito, Bozeman, Young & Meurs, 2007; Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005; Heshizer, 1994). Also promoting organisational commitment is satisfaction with and perceived adequacy of career development, training opportunities and performance appraisal (Kuvaas, 2008). Research into the relationship between HRM and work engagement though scanty shows that job characteristics such as autonomy, task identity, skill variety, task significance, the job and feedback; job resources (feedback, social
HRM practices are argued to initiate positive exchange relationships especially when managers are able to provide evidence of consideration and concern for needs of the individual worker (Gould-Williams, 2007). There seem to be no agreement on what constitutes HRM practices. Over the years, researchers have proposed various lists of practices; however, there is no agreement on what or which qualifies as an aspect of HRM. It is worthy to note there are some practices that form the core of the various proposed lists of practices. Nine of these practices are selected for this study based on their significance in the literature reviewed, their impact and measurability.

2.4.1 Recruitment and Selection

“Recruitment which is the process of generating a pool of capable people to apply for employment to an organisation and selection which is the process by which managers and others use specific instruments to choose from a pool of applicants a person or persons more likely to succeed in the job(s) given management goals and legal requirements” Bratton and Gold (2007). Recruitment and selection can play a pivotal role in shaping an organisation’s effectiveness and performance, if organisations are able to acquire workers who already possess relevant knowledge, skills and aptitudes and are also able to make an accurate prediction regarding their future abilities. Performance improvement is not only a result of well-functioning system but also depends on effective human resource strategies that
succeed in recruiting and maintaining a committed and motivated workforce (Al-Ahmadi, 2009).

Recruitment and selection has become ever more important as organisations increasingly regard their workforce as a source of competitive advantage. It is often claimed that selection of workers occurs not just to replace departing employees or add to the number but rather aims to put in place workers who can perform at a higher level and demonstrate commitment (Ballantyne, 2009). This function of HR is presented as a planned rational activity made up of certain sequentially-linked phases within a process of employee resourcing, which itself may be located within a wider HR management strategy. The process of recruiting and selecting may come in four stages: defining requirement, planning recruitment campaign, attracting candidates and selecting candidates (Armstrong, 2010).

2.4.2 Training and Development

A formal definition of training and development is any attempt to improve current or future employee by increasing an employee’s ability to perform through learning, usually by changing the employee’s attitude or increasing his or her skills and knowledge. While training is seen to be the process of imparting specific skills, development is said to be the learning opportunities designed to help employee’s grow (Karikari, 2012). According to Armstrong (2001) training is the formal and systematic modification of behaviour through learning which occurs as a result of education, instruction, development and planned experience. Training has the distinct role in the achievement of an organisational goal by incorporating the interests of organisation and the workforce (Stone R J. Human Resource Management, 2002). For
training to have a better effect on performance, its design and delivery should be well executed. Training remains a vital to enhancing employee performance. The organisational commitment or “the relative strength of an individual’s identification and involvement in a particular organisation” (Pool & Pool, 2007) depends on effective training and development programs.

According to these authors, organisations demonstrating keen insight make provisions for satisfying the training needs of their current workforce. Cheng and Ho (2001) indicate that adequate training produces marked improvements in employee communication and proficiency of performances as well as extending retention time. Moreover, when programs target communication skills with co-workers, there are significant increases in profit as well as a greater number of reported positive working relationships that are formed. Also, training and education have been shown to have a significant positive effect on job involvement, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment (Karia & Asaari, 2006). Moreover, poor performance reviews due to inadequate job training can produce employee dissatisfaction and conflict.

2.4.3 Compensation

Compensation processes are based on compensation philosophies and strategies contained in the form of policies, guiding principles, structures and procedures which are devised and managed to provide and maintain appropriate types and levels of pay, benefits and other forms of compensation. This constitutes measuring job values, designing and maintaining pay structure, paying for performance, competence and skill and providing employee benefit. However, compensation
management is not just about money, it is also concerned with that non-financial compensation which provides intrinsic or extrinsic motivation (Bob, 2011). Compensation has a motivational effect and therefore implies that having a compensation structure in which the employees who perform better are paid more than the average performing employees is vital to enhancing organisational performance (Hewitt, 2009). The growing recognition and consensus that compensation promotes productivity is consistent with the early work of Peter (1956), that states “happy workers are productive workers”.
2.4.4 Performance Appraisal Management

Performance appraisal of employees is the systematic evaluation of employees’ performance and potential for development during a certain period of time by supervisors or others who are familiar with their performance. It is one of the oldest and widely used management practices. Performance appraisal is an indispensable tool for an organisation because the information it provides is highly useful in decision making regarding issues such as promotion, merit increases transfer, discharge, training and development. Not only is performance appraisal useful for the above issues, it may also increase employee’s commitment and satisfaction Wiese and Buckley, (1998). However, there has been a great realisation that it is more important to focus on defining, planning and managing performance than merely appraising performance Pareek and Rao, (2006). The increased competitive nature of the economy and rapid changes in the external environment has forced many organisations to shift from reactive performance appraisals to proactive performance management to boost productivity and improve organisational performance (Nayab, 2011). Prasad (2005) defines performance management as the process of planning performance, appraising performance, giving its feedback, and counselling an employee or teams to improve performance. As Armstrong (2006) put it, performance management is a systematic process for improving organisational performance by developing the performance of individual and teams. Performance management is one of the most important developments in the field of HRM probably propelled into visibility in the early 1980’s as a result of the growing importance of total quality management.
2.4.5 Employment Security

Studies by Delery and Doty (1996); Bjookman and Fey (2000) have emphasised the significant correlation between employment security and organisational performance. According to Pfeffer (1998) benefits of employment security, aside workers” free contribution of knowledge and their efforts to enhance productivity, it also encourages people to take a longer-term perspective on their jobs and organisational performance. In a study of the financial performance of 192 banks, John Delery and Harold Doty observed significant relationship between employment security and the banks return on assets, an important measure of financial performance. Employment security maintained over time helps to build trust between people and their employer, which can lead to more cooperation, forbearance in pressing for wage increases and better spirit in the organisation. The idea of employment security does not mean that the organisation retains people who do not perform or work effectively with others; of course performance does matter. Employment security is fundamental to the implementation of most other high-performance management practices such as selective hiring, extensive training, information sharing and delegation. Companies are unlikely to invest the resources in the careful screening and training of new people if those people are not expected to be with the firm long enough for it to recoup these investments. Similarly, delegation of operating authority and the sharing of sensitive performance and strategic information requires trust and that trust is much more likely to emerge in a system of mutual, long-term commitments.

2.4.6 Employee Voice

The direct participation of staff to help an organisation fulfil its mission and meet its objectives by applying their own ideas, expertise and efforts towards solving problems and making decisions is termed as employee involvement. Research
has shown that organisations that tap the strength of their people will be stronger and more aggressive than those that cannot. Firms will never realise the full potential of employees if they regard people as automatons or mere cogs in a wheel. In the long run, such companies’ inefficiencies attract competition, and unless the management philosophy changes, they will disappear (Apostolou, 2000).

So many studies have shown how much of an impact employee participation can have on the performance and well-being of an employee, team or the entire organisation: improved organisational decision-making capability, and reduced costs through elimination of waste and reduced product cycle times (Apostolou, 2000); improved attitude regarding work (Leana, Ahlbrad, & Murrell, 1992); empowerment, job satisfaction, creativity, commitment and motivation as well as intent to stay (Apostolou, 2000; Light, 2004); increased employee productivity across industries (Jones, Kalmi, & Kauhanen, 2010)

2.4.7 Information Sharing and Knowledge Management

As Pfeffer (1998) asserts, information sharing is an essential component of high-performance work systems for two reasons; first, the sharing of information on things such as financial performance, strategy and operational measures conveys to the organisation’s people that they are trusted and the second is that even motivated and trained people cannot contribute to enhancing organisational performance if they do not have information on important dimensions of performance and in addition training on how to use and interpret that information. An enterprise that makes real a shared culture that is in actual fact unbreakable through information flow will be a competitive one. When the sharing of information is a vital component of the
entire enterprise’s culture, this can surely impact the effectiveness of the enterprise. When people work together, share ideas, and sometimes wrangle, they build on one another’s ideas for the benefit of the enterprise.

The lack of communication and information sharing disrupts works and brings about enterprise mediocrity. In a study by Brian Hackett (2000) titled, “Beyond Knowledge Management: New Ways to Work and Learn,” knowledge management is defined as, “An integrated, systematic approach to identifying, managing, and sharing all of an enterprise’s information assets, including databases, documents, policies, and procedures, as well as previously unarticulated expertise and experience held by individual workers.” In essence, it is gathering all the information and resources of a corporation and making them available to the individual employee. In turn, the employee uses these resources to create new innovative processes and thus, gives back to the firm.

2.4.8 Job Design

Job design refers to work arrangement or rearrangement aimed at reducing or overcoming job dissatisfaction and employee alienation arising from repetitive and mechanistic tasks. Through job design, organisations try to raise productivity levels by offering non-monetary rewards such as greater satisfaction from a sense of personal achievement in meeting the increases challenge and responsibility of one’s work. Job enlargement, job enrichment, job engineering, job rotation and job simplification are various techniques used in a job design exercise. Opatha (2002) “Job design is the functions of arranging task, duties and responsibilities in to an organisational unit of work”.

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The process of job design has been defined as, “specification of the contents, methods, and relationships of jobs in order to satisfy technological and organisational requirements as well as the social and personal requirements of the job holder.” (Buchanan, 1979) It can also be the process of putting together various elements to form a job, bearing in mind organisational and individual worker requirements, as well as considerations of health, safety, and ergonomics. In this rapidly changing business environment, it is has become even more critical for jobs design to meet the requirement of challenging work.

Changing technology, advanced communication, and changing organisational structures have all impacted job design. To be more responsive to the rapid pace of change, jobs must have some degree of built-in flexibility. This flexibility is achieved through careful attention to job design. Job simplification standardises work procedures and employs people in clearly defined and highly specialised tasks. Job rotation and job enlargement were designed to take advantage of specialization of labour from the job engineering approach (Luthans, 2005). Job rotation allows an employee to work in different departments or jobs in an organisation to gain better insight into operations. Job enlargement can be used to increase motivation by giving employees more and varied task. Job enrichment is the technique which entails the inclusion of greater variety of work content, requiring a higher level of knowledge and skill, giving workers, autonomy and responsibility in terms of planning, directing, and controlling their own performance, and providing the opportunity for personal growth and meaningful work experience (Garg & Rastogi, 2006). A wealth of studies show that there exists a correlation between job design and performance Al-Ahmadi (2009) indicated that the nature of job itself was
found positively correlated with performance, which indicates that satisfaction with amount of variety and challenge in one's job actually influence performance. Job design gives a clear direction to how tasks are performed and this leads a positive change in job performance and analysis as a result of which the organisational productivity is enhanced though efficient work performance.

2.4.9 Career Planning

Career planning is the deliberate process through which someone becomes aware of his or her personal skills, interests, knowledge, motivations, and other characteristics; acquires information about opportunities and choices; identifies career-related goals; and establishes action plans to attain specific goals (Dessler, 2008). According to Edgar Schein career planning (Manolescu, 2003) is a continuous process of discovery in which an individual slowly develops his own occupational concept as a result of skills or abilities, needs, motivations and aspirations of his own value system. In HRM, career planning seeks to identify to identify needs, aspirations and opportunities for individuals” career and the implementation of developing human resources programs to support that career. A well-planned career development system along with internal advancement opportunities based on merit, results in high motivation among employees, which has an impact on firm performance (Milkovich & Boudreau, 1998).

In a broader sense, career management which is defined by Mayo (1991) as the design and implementation of organisational processes that enable the careers to be planned and managed in a way that optimizes both the needs of the organisation and the preferences and capabilities of individuals has become one of the most important elements in HRM. Byars and Rue’s (2000) explanation of career management is that,
it is a joint-responsibility between individuals, organisation, and employees” immediate managers. Individuals” responsibility, which covers two main areas: preparing their own career plans and putting the plan into practice are termed as career planning and career strategies respectively. The organisation’s and the immediate managers” responsibilities, if combined together would generate another dimension which is best named as organisational career management.

2.5 Importance of Human Resource Management

When Cindy Koehler launched applied computer technology, a computer manufacturer based in fort Collins, Colorado, she staffed her business with three friends who had recently graduated from college. It seemed like a good idea because it was an easy way to get personnel and help out her friends at the same time. These employees fell short of Koehler’’s expectation, however, and the friendships soured, too.” We didn’t define expectations, “Koehler explained later. “We didn’t realize there was anything more to managing employees than paying them. She now advocates, managers be more dedicated to managing their human resource, planning what they need from employees, communicating expectation, and conducting formal performance reviews. Managers are increasingly realizing that the way organization manage their human resource directly affects their competitiveness.

Employees in today’s organizations are not interchangeable part that easily replaced if they don’t work as intended, but the source of the organization’s success or failure. HRM is therefore gaining status as a key ingredient in organizations” strategies. Companies that try to become more competitive by investing in technology and quality programs also invest in the latest staffing, training, and compensation practices (Boateng, 2010).
2.6 Challenges for Human Resource Management

An emerging knowledge economy creates major challenges for HRM in the organisations. The major challenges that confront the HRM function in organizations in meeting their objectives are the following.

**Aligning HRM to Strategic priorities:** If HRM practitioners want to make an impact and help to drive the success, then they need to focus more on strategy—perhaps avoid addiction to delivery of training programs. They should seek to understand the need of the organization more in order to deliver a learning agenda that enables achievement of goals (Charles, 2006). A Strategic HRM as that development arising from a clear vision about people's ability and potential to provide competitive advantage to an organization (Ozcelik & Ferman 2006). It is employee development that arises out of the need to actualize the often heard statement by organizations that people are our greatest assets. Strategic HRM is driven by the organization's goals and operates within these goals to develop human capital and is thus a purposeful way of matching people to the organization. The central focus should be to expand the learning capability that can help generate the knowledge base of the organization and enhance both competitive and collaborative capability (Harrisson & Kessels, 2004).

**Building knowledge-productive learning culture:** According to Harrison and Kessel (2004), the effectiveness of HRM Practices in contributing to culture change rests on its practitioners' alertness and responsiveness. To new needs in the workplace, on their ability to raise awareness of the importance of a culture of learning. That means, in practice for managers and other employees, and on their production of relevant interventions that can form part of culture's new
context. To do this, they require a deep knowledge of culture, of its historical roots, and of its typical impact on workplace behaviors and performance.

**Developing managerial and leadership capability**: This is another basic challenge that the organizations face in meeting their desired goals. In knowledge economy managers and team leaders increasingly have to master strategizing, organizing and HRM processes relevant to innovative organizational forms (Harrison & Kassel, 2004). Hence, HRM professionals should design and help to implement management development strategies to build interacting types of core competences like: strategic capability, flexibility and learning orientation.

Upholding Cultural Values and Norms: If a developing country is to succeed in developing skills of its HR, in a way that serves its real and correct development needs most effectively, its plan must respect the cultural values and norms which people are strongly attached to (Habib, 2012). This will secure a stronger commitment on the part of those targeted by the development efforts than it would be the case otherwise. It is therefore essential that government administrations be careful when reviewing its development options, not to ignore the fact that the attitude and reaction of people toward its HRM plan (Wachira et al., 2012).

**Understanding of different needs and interests**: According to (Wachira, 2012) the best national HRM plan is one that is designed to best serve the special needs and interests of the country and its sectors. Hence, national HRM planning should be objective, providing means to eventually set the stage for achievement of priorities, goals, and interests that truly make a difference as far as the fate of the country and the well-being of its people are concerned (Habib, 2012). Therefore, planning
is not a chance for planners only to show professional and skillful they are but also how ethical, realistic and precise their judgment and choices can be.

**Allocating sufficient financial resources and using it wisely:** Financial resources can only be available by a limited amount. But the amount must be adequate to achieve the goals of HRM. Also it is essential not to misuse the financial resources. In short, the failure to continue the HRM course of action after starting it must not be allowed. It is very important to be able to continue financing HRM at all times and regardless of volatile swings in financial budget levels (Habib, 2012).

**Developing comprehensive HR strategy:** As indicated by Wachira (2012), the best national HRM is one that is part of a comprehensive national HR strategy. Good national HR strategies begin with identifying national work needs and work requirements. Strategic planning is the best means through which selection can be made. Also effective HR strategy provides for HRM programs that invest in learning through training. According to Harrison and kessel (2004), the identification of training needs and policy; and the details relating to training content, scope, and overall thrust should be entirely in the hands of those who will supervise its beneficiaries. Moreover, career broadening should be a prime focus in HRM programs in order to secure flexibility to quickly adapt to changes in the work environment. Therefore, effective HR strategy provides for effective HRM through competition among workers for career progression, effective performance review process for knowledge transfer and effective leadership.
Utilizing HR assessment technology to plan HRM needs: HR assessment technologies have developed to a very advanced stage now days. It can be beneficial, therefore, to initiate a particular HRM program that serves the national HRM strategy through application of suitable HR assessment technology systems. Such systems are designed to assess the selection, appraisal and development and coaching of workers (Habib, 2012). These systems are best used in conjunction with a process whereby workers’ experience, education, qualifications, competence and trainability can be assessed.

**Promoting positive work force attitudes toward HRM:** An attitude is a psychological stand of a person in relation to an issue. National HRM programs need to be designed with recognition that members of work force attitudes toward HRM constitute an essential factor for HRM success. As Wachira (2012), positive attitudes among members of the work force constitute a condition for absorbing the programs requirements; and that is important for smooth program execution. It is central that work force members realize their personal needs for change and improvement, and be conceived of the direct and clear link between these needs and the designed HRM programs (Habib, 2012).

**Accepting modern technological changes and developments:** As Wachira et al. (2012), technological advances are changing the way people doing things. Current requirements are for more professional and technical tasks and fewer activities. Therefore, national HRM programs need to be built on realization that flexibility, skills, and professionalism are essential requirements to face up to modern work challenges. Since the nature of most aspects of nowadays work requires a high level
of skill and versatility HRM programs in developing countries should be committed to invest heavily in training and career development (Wachira, et al., 2012). To do this utilizing knowledge and experience accumulated locally, intensifying training of the workforce in up-to-date skills necessary for planned assignments, developing long-term career potential and creating a positive work environment which motivates and promotes productivity are crucial.

Creating positive working environment: According to Habib (2012) the creation of a positive work environment is an essential requirement in every organization to upgrade HRM. This ensures that workers have a strong sense of their value and contribution. It should encourage commitment on workers’ part, increase retention, and facilitate mobility and versatility. Government organizations should promote national HRM practices indicative of their emphasis on creating positive work environment. As Swartz (2010), a positive work environment encourages, with caution, risk taking; allows for flexible work schedules and offers different options to employees.

Sustaining the effort: Human resource development is not one going effort. It is an ongoing process. Government organizations concerned with HRM should on an ongoing basis, review, discuss, and monitor the identification of changes in workforce development and training needs (Habib, 2012).
2.7 Conceptual Framework of the Study

2.7.1 Employee’s Commitment

Commitment is complex and a multi-faceted construct, and can take different forms. Work commitment has been defined as the relative importance between work and one’s self (Loscoco, 1989). Work commitment is seen as a person's adherence to work ethic, commitment to a career/profession, job involvement, and organizational commitment (Morrow, 1993). Individuals can feel committed to an organization, top management, supervisors, or a particular work group. Commitment has been examined with regard to “career, union and profession” (Darolia, Darolia, & Kumari, 2010). Studies showing instances of high work commitment have also proven to highly relate to organizational performance. It is the second most commonly studied job attitude in I/O psychology for this reason (PSUWC, 2013). It affects all organizations at some level and enables companies to evaluate issues like turnover during times of varying economic stability. All of these attitudes interact to shape the conceptual framework of each individual's work commitment. The following information analyzes these attitudes as well as other organizational concepts, research, and real world applications.

Employee commitment is an individual’s psychological attachment to the organization. The individual feel a sense of belonging and identification with the organization. This adds to their desire to achieve the goals of the organization and their motivation to remain with the organization (Raju & Srivastava, 1994). Organizational commitment has also been defined as the belief of an employee in the goals and values of an organization and the aspiration to stay with that organization (Mowday et al., 1982). Robbins (2005) also had a similar definition of organizational
commitment, the condition where the employee identifies with the organization and its goals and desires to continue being a member of that organization.

In this research the following definition for organizational commitment will be applied: Griffith-Kranenburg, (2013) cited that “Organizational commitment is “a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values; a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization” (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979).

Initially organizational commitment was conceptualized as a one-dimensional construct but it is now known as multi-dimensional. Porter et al (1974) stated that organizational commitment contains 3 components which are:

- Value commitment: employees trust, accept and commit to the goals and values of the organization;
- Effort commitment: employees display a high degree of effort to an organization;
- Retention commitment: employees want to continue being a part of the organization.

According to Porter et al., (1974) and Mowday et al., (1982) the degree of organizational and managerial collaboration an employee feels, their participation in decision making, the leadership style and organizational culture influence whether an employee has high or low organizational commitment.
Organizational commitment is defined as the degree of an individual’s relations and experiences as a sense of loyalty toward one’s organization. In addition to loyalty, organizational commitment encompasses an individual’s willingness to extend effort in order to further an organization’s goals and the degree of alignment the organization has with the goals and values of the individual Mowday, et al., (1979). Organizational commitment refers to the extent to which an employee develops an attachment and feels a sense of allegiance to his or her employer (PSUWC, 2013). The emotional attachment that one may form with their company would help build a stronger commitment.

**Figure 2.1: Figurative Definition of Employee Work Commitment**

Source: Adopted from Alderton and Redmond (2017)

Lombard (2017) has it that “Individual commitment to a group effort -- that is what makes a team work, a company work, a society work, a civilization work.”
In 2013 a study called “Employee Job Satisfaction and Engagement” was conducted by SHRM, Society for Human Resource Management, revealing that 40% of employees were very satisfied, and 90% were somewhat satisfied (“SHRM,” 2014). This would mean that only 40% of those employees were likely to have a strong emotional commitment towards their company. Allen and Meyer (1996) have defined organizational commitment as a psychological link between an employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization. Organizational commitment is related to job satisfaction in that both deal with the nature of workers’ emotional reactions to work. However, commitment can be applied to the entire organization, whereas satisfaction is applied to the specific job. Organizational commitment is viewed as more stable than satisfaction. An individual also relates commitment to job involvement and the level of job involvement. Within this theory, the concepts applied to the commitment to an organization are the work ethics of individual and the intensity of participation by said individual. These concepts can determine the level of commitment to an organization. However, the application of these concepts can be directed by several variables such as age, culture, emotions, personality traits, desires, and individual differences among other factors and can be present to a certain degree in many situations. These theories are not strict categories of commitment. Often times there is overlap among them (Alderton & Redmond, 2016).
2.8 Categories of Organizational/Employee Commitment

Given that the nature of organizational commitment is layered in terms of one’s possible commitment level, three specific commitment types have been identified:

2.8.1 Affective Commitment

This refers to one’s feelings of loyalty to a company or organization because he or she believes in the organization.

Figure 2.2: Structure of Affective Commitment

Source: Adopted from Alderton and Redmond (2016)

This is the most common type studied and refers to "an employee's emotional attachment to and identification with the organization" (PSUWC, 2013). Because of this loyalty, one is fully willing to accept the company’s goals and values as his/her own. Affective commitment can enhance job satisfaction because employees agree with the organization’s objectives and principles, because employees feel they are treated fairly in terms of equity, and because employees receive organizational care, concern, and support (Hawkins, W.D. 1998). Affective commitment involves staying
with the organization because you want to (PSUWC, 2013). This type of commitment is typically the result of a supportive work environment in which individuals are treated fairly and the value of individual contributors is embraced.

2.8.2 Continuance Commitment

This has to do with an employee feeling that he/she has to stay with the company because the costs of leaving are too great. Figure 3 shows a diagrammatic presentation of continuance commitment.

Figure 3.3: Diagram showing Continuance Commitment

Source: Adopted from Alderton and Redmond (2016)

This is manifested by an individual who maintains commitment to the organization because he/she is unable to match salary and/or benefits with another employer. Continuance commitment involves staying with the organization because you have to (PSUWC, 2013). For example, an employee that has already vested many years in a company building up years of leave, employee benefits (such as pension) and salary. If the employee were to leave to the company, he/she may lose the time vested, as well as seniority and pension loss. It would not be beneficial for
this employee to leave, so he stays because he has to, not because he wants to stay loyal to the company. While employees may remain with an organization, they do not necessarily feel compelled to perform at a high level.

2.8.3 Normative Commitment

Normative is the least researched of all of them and refers to the employee that feels that he/she owes it to the employer to stay out of a perceived obligation. These feelings of obligation may come because the employer took a chance on the employee when nobody else would. In turn, the employee feels indebted to the employer. Therefore, by a show of loyalty and duty, it would be difficult to leave. Normative commitment involves staying with the organization because you ought to (PSUWC, 2013). For example, an employee may feel a sense of obligation to stay with their employer during its time of need even though it is no longer advantageous to do so. They may fear the potential disappointment in their employer or teammates.

2.9 Empirical Review on Work and Organizational Commitment

Work commitment is the second most commonly researched concept in I/O psychology, only second to job satisfaction. Work commitment has been linked to many different aspects of job attitudes through this research. Due to the vast plethora of research conducted on work and organizational commitment, only some of these aspects of job attitudes will be addressed here. In research conducted by Maurer and Lippstreu (2008) on individual commitment to organizations that provide employee development opportunities, the complexities of commitment are brought to light. In this study, one's orientation to learning was found to be a significant moderator to commitment. If an individual maintains a low learning orientation, the organization
who attempts to foster learning/development activities may negatively associate commitment to the individual.

While there are many possible explanations for this, one primary reason is that the individual “…is being expected to exert effort on learning/development beyond what he/she wants” (Maurer & Lippstreu, 2008). This effect is also seen among "performance oriented" employees, whereby an individual who perceives that learning will "stretch" them beyond their preferred performance level, may negatively influence their commitment to the organization (Maurer & Lippstreu, 2008, p. 339).

To mitigate the potential for adverse influence on commitment, Maurer and Lippstreu (2008) recommend hiring learning-oriented employees, and fostering learning in employees who are low-learning oriented or perhaps more practically, highlighting the "non-learning-oriented aspects of the organization" to foster commitment in employees with different orientations (p. 339). This requires organizations to assess and respond appropriately to individual differences in order to develop an environment of commitment.

Organizational commitment has been helpful in predicting turnover, absenteeism, and tardiness. Therefore, a lot of attention has been paid to this theory by both researchers and managers (Gattinger, 1992). Many studies have been done to compare organizational commitment across the globe. Most of this research has been conducted by investigating countries of vastly different cultures. Studies conducted to determine the difference in the levels of commitment between the United States and Japan found that there was very little difference between the two countries (Gattinger,
1992). It was determined that the small amount of difference found between the two countries was based in the social cultural differences.

Camp (1993) investigated job satisfaction and organizational commitment to determine which had a greater impact on turnover. The analysis confirmed that higher levels of organizational commitment were associated with lower levels of turnover. It was also determined that job satisfaction showed no significant relationship to levels of turnover (Camp, 1993).

Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran (2005) set out to determine inter-correlated aspects of work commitment and the impact of work commitment and sub dimensions of work commitment on outcome variables such as job satisfaction, job performance, turnover intentions, and turnover. Results indicated “there was a substantial overlap between affective and normative organizational commitments” (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005, p. 252). The results state; however, that the correlation is modest, “…which suggests that concept overlap neither is excessive nor results in redundancy (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005, p. 252).

Research from the University of Haifa showed that many employees with high levels of emotional intelligence were more dedicated and satisfied at their place of work and with their personal work. The study surveyed over eight-hundred employees and managers in two public sector organizations and also two private companies, examining the influence of emotional intelligence on factors such as organizational politics, work attitudes, formal and informal behavior, feelings of justice, and burnout. The study found that employees with high levels of emotional intelligence would rate
the level of justice within their organizations as higher than their peers. The employees also were more satisfied with their jobs and more committed to their specific organizations. Factors such as burnout, intention to leave, or negligent behavior were less prevalent. Employees with higher levels of emotional intelligence also perceived the impact of organizational politics as less severe and demonstrated better coping skills, using less aggressive forms of persuasion to influence supervisors. One of the researchers, Dr. Galit Meisler concluded “this study has shown that employees with a higher level of emotional intelligence are assets to their organization. I believe it will not be long before emotional intelligence is incorporated in employee screening and training processes and in employee assessment and promotion decisions” (Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction, 2010).

Another significant research study was performed in a university setting where quality of work life was evaluated in relation to organizational commitment. Because researchers had found that the higher the education level the lower the organizational commitment, they wanted to evaluate other factors that may raise employees attachments (Sayyadi & Sarvtamin, 2011). Sayyadi and Sarvtamin defined quality of work life with eight concepts: (1) adequate and fair compensation, (2) safe and healthy working conditions, (3) immediate opportunity to use and develop human capacities, (4) opportunity for continued growth and security, (5) social integration in the work organization, (6) constitutionalism in the work organization, (7) work and total life space and (8) social relevance of work life (Sayyadi & Sarvtamin, 2011). The researchers utilized a descriptive method where they analyzed the correlation between quality of work life and commitment. The researchers found that the organization commitment was high at the university and upon evaluating the survey
responses of their study also found that the quality of life constructs were high as well. Their conclusion attributed the high commitment towards the high quality of work life constructs (Sayyadi & Sarvtamin, 2011).

Many organizations and companies in the United States run the risk of losing their employees who feel under-valued and demotivated as the economy recovers. This is according to a web survey by Kelton Research for the "learning and talent management solutions provider" Cornerstone on Demand. This statement shows the increased pressure in workplaces resulting from things like budget and staff cuts. The study shows that loyalty and commitment cannot be bought. The survey shows solutions to improving commitment to be based on improved communication skills and empowering performance. The study surveyed nearly six hundred working Americans of whom 56% agreed that after compensation and benefits, the feeling that they were appreciated in their workplace would encourage them to stay in their current position. More women than men identified this as a significant factor (62% compared to 50%). This compares to 46% of the total who said opportunities for career advancement would motivate them to stay. Just over half (54%) felt that colleagues appreciated them more than supervisors or senior managers (Loyalty and Employee Retention, 2010).

Other significant findings include:

- 68% said they had received no useful feedback from supervisors in the last six months
- 82% have not agreed to career goals with their supervisors
- 53% lack a clear understanding of how their role contributes to company objectives.
25% have been given new duties or responsibilities that they feel are beyond their skill set.

2.9.1 Relationship between Human Resource Management Practices and Employee’s Job Commitment

Several researchers have examined relationships between human resource management practices and other organizational variables such as, whether there is a relationship between human resource management practices and organizational (unit level for example, manufacturing) performance, human resource management practices that enhance organizational performance, differences in human resource management practices depending on the sector and country, relationship of HR practices and organizational characteristics on organizational commitment.

The results obtained in context to these research works have been briefed below as follows: Some of these research work questions the presence of a correlation between human resources management practices and organizational commitments and HR practices which seem to have a greater correlation with organizational commitment has been tried to be identified:

- Delaney and Huselid (1996) found positive associations between human resource management (HRM) practices, such as training and staffing selectivity, and perceptual firm performance measures (using the sample of = 590 for-profit and nonprofit firms).

- Pfeffer (1998) has proposed seven HRM practices that are expected to enhance organizational performance: (1) employment security; (2) selective hiring of new personnel; self-managed teams and decentralization
of decision making as the basic principles of organizational design; (4) comparatively high compensation contingent on organizational performance; (5) extensive training; (6) reduced status distinctions and barriers, including dress, language, office arrangements, wage differences across levels; (7) extensive sharing of financial and performance information throughout the organization (Ahmad & Schroeder, 2003). Jayaram et al. (1999) examined relationships among dimensions of human resource management practices and manufacturing performance of first tier suppliers to the Big 3 in North America (Sendogdu et al., 2013). The study found support for the proposed framework, suggesting that human resource management practices can be grouped into five distinct factors, four of which are associated with specific manufacturing competitive dimensions (quality, flexibility, cost and time).

- Several human resource management practices have been reported as key factors affecting both manufacturing performance and competitive advantage. Jayaram et al., (1999) conducted a study on top management commitment, communication of goals, employee training, cross functional teams, cross training, employee autonomy, employee impact, broad jobs, open organizations, effective labor management relations.

- Cho et al. (2006) investigated the relationship between the use of 12 human resource management (HRM) practices and organizational performance measured by turnover rates for managerial and non-managerial employees, labor productivity, and return on assets. The results of regression analyses indicated that companies implementing HRM practices such as labor-management participation program, incentive plans, and pre-employment tests
are more likely to experience lower turnover rates for non-managerial employees (Sendogdu et al., 2013). Among the research work that indicates the HRM practices varies based on countries and type of industries, Ahmed and Schroder (2003) findings provide overall support for Pfeffer’s 7 HRM practices and empirically validate an ideal-type HRM system for manufacturing plants. Their study show that the differences in HRM practices exist in plants operating in different countries and industries (particularly, the extent to which some HRM practices are used in plants operating in the machinery industry consistently lagged behind that found in plants operating in the automobile industry).

On the other hand, there is research work in the literature that evaluates HRM practices as a result of organizational commitment and questions the relationship between the two. Such studies can be briefed as:

- Meyer & Smith (2000) reported that relationship between employee’s evaluation of HRM practices and their affective and normative commitment were largely mediated by perceptions of organizational support and procedural justice (Sendogdu et al., 2013).

- Conway (2003) study extends on the literature by examining whether stage of the career of an employee has a moderating influence on the HR-commitment relationship. The findings highlight the extent to which interaction effects are evident regarding attitudes towards HR practices and continuance and normative commitment, though not affective commitment (Sendogdu et al., 2013).
Paul and Anantharaman (2004) indicated that HRM practices such as employee-friendly work environment, career development, development oriented appraisal, and comprehensive training show a significant positive relationship with organizational commitment (Sendogdu et al., 2013).

Shahnawaz & Juyal (2006) explored and compared various HRM practices and commitment degrees can be attributed to HRM practices in two different organizations-consultancy/research based organization and fashion industry. HRM practices were found significantly different in two organizations and mean scores on various HRM practices were found more in the fashion organization. Regression result showed that various HRM practices were significantly predicting organizational commitment in two organizations and also when they were combined (Sendogdu et al., 2013).

Fiorito et al. (2007) developed and tested hypotheses concerning the influences of human resource (HR) practices and organizational characteristics on organizational commitment. Results showed that grievance resolution mechanisms and employee involvement indicators are positively related to organizational commitment, and compensation cuts are negatively related to organizational commitment (Sendogdu et al., 2013).

Qiao et al. (2008) investigated the effect of HRM practices on organizational commitment using the sample of 610 IT employees in total. The hypotheses that information sharing, training and development, recruitment and selection, and compensation management had positive effect on IT employees’ organizational commitment were partially supported by hierarchical regression analysis (Sendogdu et al., 2013).
Gellatly et al. (2009) examined how employee perceptions of development-oriented, stability-oriented, and reward-oriented human resource management (HRM) practices affected the likelihood of affective and continuance commitment profile membership. They showed ways that organizations can use HRM practices strategically to help shape the nature of overall employee commitment (Sendogdu et al., 2013).

Hashim (2010) examined the management of human resources from the Islamic perspective and its effects on organizational commitment among selected employees in Islamic organizations in Malaysia. The results of correlation and regression analysis showed that the Islamic approach in HRM was highly and significantly correlated to organizational commitment. About 45 per cent of the organizational commitment variance was explained by the Islamic approach in HRM. Gelade & Ivery (2003) examined relationships between human resource management (HRM), work climate, and organizational performance in the branch network of a retail bank. They found significant correlations between work climate, human resource practices, and business performance (Sendogdu et al., 2013).

Agarwala (2003) analyses showed that the perceived extent of introduction of innovative human resource practices by the organizations was the most significant predictor or organizational commitment (Sendogdu et al., 2013).
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The purpose of the study is to assess the effect of HR practices on employee’s commitment to work. Research methodology is a systematic way of solving a problem. It is essentially, the procedures followed by researchers for describing, explaining and predicting phenomena. It provides the work plan of a research. This chapter discusses the methods that were employed by the researcher in carrying out the study. Specifically, the research philosophy, research design, empirical model, target population and study area, sampling procedure, data collection, definition and measurement of variables, reliability and validity, ethical considerations, methods of data analysis and presentation are discussed.

3.1 Research Design

This study followed an explanatory cross-sectional design. Explanatory study establishes causal relationships between variables. Thus, it attempts to clarify how and why there is a relationship between two or more aspects of a situation or phenomenon. According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009), explanatory research is about studying a situation or a problem in order to explain the relationships between variables. Hence explanatory study design was used to determine and explain the relationship between the dependent variable - employee retention and independent variables - compensation, career management, and work-life balance and employee engagement. The research was cross-sectional or “snapshot” because the phenomenon, effect of HRM practices on retention was studied at one particular time and not over several years.
Quantitative techniques were also used for both data collection and analysis. Quantitative research is a study whose findings are mainly the product of statistical summary and analysis. A structured questionnaire was used to collect data from a large representative sample, so that the result can be applied to the entire population. Also, data was analysed using quantitative methods. This followed the hypothetico-deductive method where hypothesis was formulated based on a review of literature. Data was then collected from a sample of the population and analysed to confirm or disprove the hypotheses. The results were then used to draw inferences from the entire population.

3.2 Population of the Study

The target population is the group of individual that possess the information required by the researcher and bout which inference are to be made (Malhorta & Birks, 2007). The most important thing in defining the target population is the precise specification of who should and who should not be included in the sample (Churchill & locubucci, 2002; Malhorta & Birks, 2007). Based on the researchers” preliminary field work, a projected number of 140 employees in the university were targeted of which 75 were chosen for the study.

3.3 Sample and Sampling Techniques

A sample is a small subset of population said to be representative of a given population (Quinlan, 2011). Sampling can be a vital procedure when analyzing data as it is a valid way of collecting data without using the entire population, in particular when both time and budget constraints exist for the researcher. A sample is a selection of a group of people or events from a population to be able to find out true facts about the sample that will be true of the population. This becomes necessary as
the entire population cannot be studied due to the size, inaccessibility, time and financial constraints.

The simple random technique was chosen in sampling all the 5 Deans in the University and the stratified random technique was used so that any employee could participate as a respondent. In using this technique 75 employees were randomly selected for the study. This was done to ensure that all potential respondents had equal chances of being selected according to the initial groupings as defined by the researcher.

The study was undertaken in the College of Technology Education of UEW. In all the total sample of the target population were 75 employees. The table below shows the distribution of the non-managerial employees and associated employees which was made up of a sample of 75 which were chosen from different department using a stratified random sampling as indicated in table 3.1.

The population of the study was made up of non-managerial employees and associated employees.

**Table 3.1: The Projected Population and Sample Size of Non-Managerial and Associated Employees for the Study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Departments</th>
<th>Projected employees</th>
<th>Sample size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central Administration</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration Annex</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounting</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Technology</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>140</strong></td>
<td><strong>75</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Field Survey June, 2017*
The researcher decided to use all the Deans since they were only 5 that constituted the sample.

3.4 Data Collection Instrument

Data was collected mainly from primary source. Questionnaires were employed for the collection of primary data from the selected employees in the chosen banks. The questionnaire was composed of four (A-D) different sections. Sections B consisted of questions relating to the independent variables namely compensation, career management, work-life balance and employee engagement. Section C focused on questions relating to the moderating variable, job satisfaction. Section D concentrated on the dependent variable, employee performance while section, A, covered the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents. There were both close and some open ended questions however, most of the questions were stated in a five-point likert scale (strongly agree – strongly disagree)

3.4.1 Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity of the research instruments are of great importance in any research. Researchers are expected to properly consider them when designing and judging the quality of a study.

Reliability

Reliability refers to the degree to which measures are free from random error and therefore yield consistent results (Zikmund, 1997). According to Sekaran (2003) reliability of a measure is an indication of the stability and consistency with which the instrument measures the concept and helps to assess the goodness of the
measure. Thus the extent to which any measurement procedure produces consistent results over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability. The research used Cronbach’s Alpha as a measure of internal consistency. Cronbach’s Alpha is a reliability coefficient that indicates how well items in a set are positively correlated to one another (Sekaran, 2003).

Validity
Validity on the other hand, can be described as the extent to which the instrument measures what it purports to measure. According to Healy and Perry (2000), validity determines whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure. Thus validity measures how truthful the research results are or the extent to which scores truly reflect the underlying variable of interest. Faux (2010) asserts that an effective and practical approach to pre-testing questionnaire instruments is to ensure that the questionnaire is understood by participants. Also, the benefits of the approach are improved questionnaire reliability and planning which results in better response rates (Faux, 2010). After the design, the questionnaire was given to supervisors and experts for their comments and suggestions. This was done to ensure refinement and content validity.

Whilst testing validity with experienced researchers is crucial, it is also important to pre-test instruments on potential respondents. Hence a pre-test was carried out with two sub-metros (Subin and Swame Sub-metro) to firm up the data collection instruments before the main survey. The sub-metros in the pre-test were not included in the final sample. Feedback was used to improve the data collection instruments by
eliminating any ambiguities and inadequate terms. The pre-test was used to enable the researcher to check the validity of the instrument of data collection. It enabled the researcher to assess the clarity of the questionnaire so that items found to be superfluous and misunderstood were modified to improve the quality of the research instrument, thereby increasing its strength and validity.

**Ethical Considerations**

Ethics in research has to do with the responsibility of researchers to be honest and respectful to all individuals who are affected by the research studies or reports of the results of the studies (Gravetter & Forzano, 2006). Gaining the trust of respondents and their willingness to support the researcher’s role is a step in the right direction, but it is the recognition of the relevance of ethical principles that must guide any research (Orb, Eisenhauer & Wynaden, 2001). To ensure that ethical principles were upheld, the researcher obtained an introductory letter from the Department of Graduate Studies, University of Education, Winneba-Kumasi Campus. This letter was forwarded to the head offices of the office of the Mayor. This study upheld the highest ethical standards with regard to issues such as informed consent, confidentiality, privacy and anonymity. Participants were given the needed information and allowed to make an independent decision as to whether to partake or otherwise. Also information gathered was used solely for the intended purpose. Questionnaires were then self-administered by the sampled population.
3.5 Data Analysis

Both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were used to analyse the data. Descriptive statistics such as mean, percentages and standard deviation were employed to present the responses obtained from the respondents. Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS) (formerly known as Statistical Package for Social Sciences) version 20.0 was employed to further analyse the data. Also tables were used for data presentation. Arithmetic means was used to test the strength of the relationship between the variables.
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This section of the study gives a detailed analysis and discussion of data gathered from questionnaire administration. The data has been analysed in tables and charts to give a clear representation of respondents views on the issues discussed in the study and relates directly to the purpose of this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>46.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 – 30 years</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 – 40</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>56.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 – 50</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 -60</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Highest education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor (Degree)</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of years spent</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 – 5 years</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 – 10 years</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>41.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 – 15 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 – 20 years</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Division / Section</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Relation</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operations</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Technology</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Affair</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procurement</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2017
Table 4.1 gives a representation of respondents’ demographic data. These respondents provided information relevant on the objective areas of the study. The importance of this section was to give an overview of the types and categories of respondents in terms of gender, age, and years spent on their jobs and their section or units of work. From table 4.1, out of 75 respondents representing 100%, 40 respondents representing 53.3% were male with the remaining 40 respondents representing 46.7% being female. The results indicated that most of the respondents were male; and the researcher was not gender biased in the discussions of this study.

Age distribution of respondents was assessed as a socio-demographic characteristic of the respondents in the study. Age is a physiological characteristic that influences the behavior of people in a given situation. In view of the fact that age of people has the tendency of influencing the pattern of people’s views and opinions, it became necessary for it to be assessed. Again in table 4.1, 42 respondents representing 56% were between the ages of 31 and 40, 18 respondents representing 24% had their ages between the range of 18 and 30. 12 respondents representing 16% were between the ages of 41 and 50 with the remaining three respondents representing 4% being between the ages of 51 and 60. This gives a clear indication that most of the respondents were thirty years and above.

With regards to the number of years respondents have spent on their present jobs, 31 respondents representing 41.3% have spent 6-10 years, 27 respondents representing 36% have spent 1-5 years, 11 respondents representing 14.7% have spent 11-15 years whilst only six respondents representing 8% have spent 16-20 years. This clearly indicates that most of the respondents have spent over five years in their present jobs.
Finally, the results on the sections or units respondents who participated in the study work showed that 16 respondents representing 24.2% were from the Information Technology Department, 13 respondents each representing 19.7% were in the Finance and Operations unit, 10 respondents each representing 15.2% were from the Human Resource and Procurement units respectively with seven respondents each representing 10.6% coming from the Public Relation and Accounts section. It must be noted that every respondent irrespective of their units or sections provided the needed data for analysis of this study.

4.2 Relationship between Human Resource Management and Employee’s Job Commitment

Table 4.2: Relationship between HRM Practice(s) And Employees Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HRM Practice(s)</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proper recruitment and selection process has direct bearing on employee’s job commitment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.668**</td>
<td>.731**</td>
<td>-.152</td>
<td>-.734**</td>
<td>.597**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and Development has correlation with employee job commitment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.686**</td>
<td>.471**</td>
<td>.720**</td>
<td>-.500**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Compensation packages has direct impact on employees job commitment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.192</td>
<td>-.973**</td>
<td>.882**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appraisal/Performance Management helps employees to increase their level of commitment to your organization</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.213</td>
<td>-.115</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good career planning programme positively affects employee commitment and increase productivity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.749**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and Safety Programme impact positively employees commitment in your organization</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Source: Field Survey, 2017

Table 4.2 shows a correlation of respondents’ views on the relationship between Human Resource Management practices and Employee’s Job Commitment. A Spearman’s correlation was run to assess the relationship between HRM practices and Employee’s Job Commitment.
From the output of the correlation matrix generated, it was evident that there was a positive relationship between HRM practices and employee commitment. There was however a strong negative correlation between recruitment and selection and training and development (r=-0.686, P<0.01) and career planning programmes (r=-0.734, P<0.01). That notwithstanding there was a strong positive relationship between recruitment and selection and good compensation packages (r=0.731, P<0.01) and health and safety programmes (r=0.597, P<0.01).

Moreover, there was a positive correlation between training and development and appraisal and performance management (r=0.471, P<0.01) and career planning programmes (r=0.720, P<0.01). Recruitment and selection however had a strong negative relationship with health and safety programmes (r=-0.500, P<0.01). In addition, there existed a strong negative relationship between compensation packages and career planning programmes (r=-0.973, P<0.01).

Finally, there existed a strong positive relationship between training and development and compensation packages (r=0.882, P<0.01). Good career planning programmes had a strong negative relationship with health and safety programmes (r=-0.749, P<0.01).

It could be deduced from the analysis that even though individual practices do not relate correlatively with others, there is always bound to be a strong relationship between HRM practices and employee commitment as shown in table 4.2 with an absolute value of 1 within each HRM practice and employee commitment. These findings are consistent with the views of Delaney and Huselid (1996) who found
positive associations between human resource management (HRM) practices, such as training and staffing selectivity, and perceptual firm performance measures. Sendogdu et al., (2013) buttressed this view in his study stating that companies implementing HRM practices such as labor- management participation program, incentive plans, and pre-employment tests are more likely to experience lower turnover rates for non-managerial employees.

### Table 4.3: Relationship between HRM Practice(s) and Employees Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proper recruitment and selection process has direct bearing on employee’s job commitment</td>
<td>17(25.8) 49(74.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and Development has correlation with employee job commitment</td>
<td>30(45.5) 30(45.5) 6(9.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Compensation packages has direct impact on employees job commitment</td>
<td>26(39.4) 40(60.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appraisal/Performance Management helps employees to increase their level of commitment to your organization</td>
<td>30(45.5) 30(45.5) 1(1.5) 5(7.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good career planning programme positively affects employee commitment and increase productivity</td>
<td>40(60.6) 25(37.9) 1(1.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and Safety Programme impact positively employees commitment in your organization</td>
<td>25(37.9) 40(60.6) 1(1.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source: Field survey, 2017* 1= Strongly agree 2=agree 3=Neutral 4=Disagree 5=Strongly disagree**

The researcher sought from respondents the relationship proper recruitment and selection process has with employee job commitment. 17 respondents representing 25.8% strongly agreed that proper recruitment and selections processes related to employee job commitment whiles 49 respondents representing 74.2% agreed. On the effect of training and development on employee job commitment, 30 respondents each representing 45.5% strongly agreed or agreed that training and development...
correlates with employee job commitment with the remaining six respondents representing 9.1% disagreeing.

About 1/3rd of the respondents (40) representing 60.6% agreed that good compensation packages had direct impact on employees job commitment, 26 respondents representing 39.4% strongly agreed with. On the effect of appraisal/performance management on employee commitment, almost all respondents (60) representing 90.1% strongly agreed or agreed that appraisal/performance management had a bearing on employee commitment, one respondent representing 1.5% was neutral with the remaining five respondents representing 7.6% disagreeing. 40 respondents representing 60.6% strongly agreed that good career planning programmes positively affects employee commitment, 25 respondents representing 37.9% agreed whereas only one respondent representing 1.5% remained neutral.

Finally, 25 respondents representing 37.9% strongly agreed that health and safety programmes impact positively on employee job commitment, 40 respondents representing 60.6% agreed whereas only one respondent representing 1.5% remained neutral. According to Porter et al (1974) and Mowday et al (1982) the degree of organizational and managerial collaboration an employee feels, their participation in decision making, the leadership style and organizational culture influence whether an employee has high or low organizational commitment. In Ballantyne’s (2009) view the better the selection and recruitment process the higher the higher the levels of commitment shown by workers. In similar views, organisations that demonstrate keen insight make provisions for satisfying the training needs of their current workforce and this in the long run affect their commitment.

4.2 Human Resource Practices in the University

Respondents’ views were taken on the Human Resource Management Practices that existed in the University. The detailed representation of responses is shown in figure 4.1.

**Figure 4.1: Human Resource management practices**

From figure 4.1, it was revealed that the most predominant form of Human Resource Management practice was Training and Development programs (60%), followed by compensation (18%) and Recruitment and Selection (17%). However, appraisal practices were low with only 3% of respondents with career planning being the lowest.
form of HRM practice observed in the University with only 2% of respondents asserting that it was practiced in the University. Several authors (Guest, 1999; Redman and Mathews, 1998) posited that effective HRM practices which included recruitment and selection, job design, commitment and motivation, performance evaluation, remuneration, team work and involvement, and employee involvement among others. These make employees share ownership programmes to increase employees’ awareness of the implications of their actions on the financial performance of the firm. With respect to this study all HRM practices were implemented at the University but training and development was the most predominant.

<p>| Table 4.4 How Does the organization execute, plan and manage these practices |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment and Selection:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centralized</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>77.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decentralized</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and Development:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centralized</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>81.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decentralized</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centralized</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decentralized</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>93.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appraisal/Performance:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centralized</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decentralized</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Planning:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centralized</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>93.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decentralized</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and Safety Program:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centralized</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>94.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decentralized</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2017
Table 4.4 represents respondents' responses on how HRM practices are carried out in the University. 56 respondents representing 77.8% declared that recruitment and selection is centralized with 16 respondents representing 22.2% asserting that recruitment and selection is decentralized. On training and development, 61 respondents representing 81.3% said it is centralized whiles the remaining 14 respondents representing 18.7% believed it was decentralized. Almost all respondents (70) representing 93.3% said compensation is decentralized whiles five respondents representing 6.7% posited that it is centralized. All respondents (100%) declared that appraisal is centralized. In addition, 70 respondents representing 93.3% affirmed that career planning is centralized with the remaining five respondents representing 6.7% saying it is decentralized. Finally, 71 respondents representing 94.7% affirmed that health and safety program is centralized whereas the remaining four respondents representing 5.3% said it is decentralized.

With regards to respondents' satisfaction of HRM practices as shown in figure 4.2, 24 respondents each representing 32% said they were satisfied and barely satisfied, 15 respondents representing 20% said they were not satisfied, whiles 12 respondents representing 16% said they were very satisfied.
Figure 4.2: How HRM practices employees’ satisfaction

![Graph showing satisfaction levels]

Source: Field Survey, 2017

Table 4.5: What are your perception of HRM practices in your University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unattractive</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barely Attractive</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractive</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>37.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Attractive</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2017

Table 4.5 shows respondents' views on the attractiveness of HRM practices in the University. 25 respondents representing 37.9% said HRM practices in the University is attractive, 16 respondents representing 24.2% said it is very attractive, 13 respondents representing 19.7% said it is barely attractive with the remaining 12 respondents representing 18.2% saying it is unattractive.
Figure 4.3: Respondents view on which on prioritizing HRM practices.

From figure 4.3, even though respondents recognize the importance of each HRM practice, majority of the respondents emphasized that Management should prioritize on the Training and Development programs.

4.3 Challenges and shortfalls in the Human Resource Management practices in the University

Table 4.6: Human Resource Management Implementation Challenges

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workforce Demographics</td>
<td>5(6.7)</td>
<td>5(6.7)</td>
<td>5(6.7)</td>
<td>30(40.0)</td>
<td>30(40.0)</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action of Competitive firms</td>
<td>3(3.9)</td>
<td>7(9.2)</td>
<td>10(13.2)</td>
<td>35(46.1)</td>
<td>21(27.6)</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing managerial and leadership capability</td>
<td>10(13.3)</td>
<td>5(6.7)</td>
<td>5(6.7)</td>
<td>35(46.7)</td>
<td>20(26.7)</td>
<td>3.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aligning HRM to Strategic priorities</td>
<td>10(13.3)</td>
<td>10(13.3)</td>
<td>10(13.3)</td>
<td>30(40.0)</td>
<td>15(20.0)</td>
<td>3.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing comprehensive HR strategy</td>
<td>10(13.3)</td>
<td>30(40.0)</td>
<td>30(40.0)</td>
<td>5(6.7)</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building knowledge-productive learning culture</td>
<td>20(30.3)</td>
<td>15(22.7)</td>
<td>6(9.1)</td>
<td>20(30.3)</td>
<td>5(7.6)</td>
<td>2.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes in National Economy</td>
<td>20(26.7)</td>
<td>20(26.7)</td>
<td>20(26.7)</td>
<td>5(6.7)</td>
<td>10(13.3)</td>
<td>2.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Culture and Traditions</td>
<td>30(45.5)</td>
<td>30(45.5)</td>
<td>10(12.8)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5(6.4)</td>
<td>1.93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2017* 1= Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Neutral 4=Agree 5=Strongly agree
Table 4.6 shows respondents’ views on the challenges of HRM practices in the University. 30 respondents each representing 40% strongly agreed or agreed that workforce demographics was a shortfall in the HRM practices in the University, five respondents each representing 6.7% disagreed or strongly disagreed with five respondents representing 6.7% remaining neutral. The mean score was 4.00 indicating that respondents generally agreed that workforce demographics was a major challenge in the HRM practice of the University.

With respect to competition, 35 respondents representing 46.1% agreed that actions of competitive firms was a major challenge of the HRM practices in the University, 21 respondents representing 27.6% strongly agreed, 10 respondents representing 13.2% were neutral, seven respondents representing 9.2% disagreed with three respondents representing 3.9% strongly disagreeing. The mean score of the responses was 3.84 which shows that respondents agreed to the fact that actions of competitive firms was a major challenge to the implementation of HRM practices.

However, 35 respondents representing 46.7% agreed that developing managerial and leadership capability was a challenge of HRM practices, 20 respondents representing 26.7% strongly agreed, 10 respondents representing 13.3% strongly disagreed, five respondents representing 6.7% disagreed with five respondents representing 6.7% remaining neutral. The mean score was 3.67 indicating respondents agreed to this challenge.
With mean scores of 2.87, 2.62, 2.53 and 1.93, respondents disagreed that development of comprehensive HR strategy, building of knowledge-productive learning culture, changes in the national economy and national culture and traditions posed major challenges to HRM practices in the University. These findings are supported by Charles (2006) who posited that organisations should seek to understand their needs in order to set agenda that enables achievement of goals. This is buttressed by Ozcelik & Ferman (2006) who stated that a strategic HRM practice is that which arises from a clear vision about people’s ability and potential to provide competitive advantage to an organization. Harrison and Kassel (2004) outlined that the basic challenge organizations face in meeting their desired goals is related to HRM processes being relevant to innovative organizational forms. However, Wachira (2012 stated that the best HRM practice is designed to best serve the special needs and interests of the employees and development of comprehensive national HR strategy. Habib (2012) also stated the importance of financing to the implementation of HRM practices.

Table 4.7: Problems Departments face in relation to the challenges of the HRM Practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High employee turnover</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease employee commitment</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low employee satisfaction</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>1.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor employee performance</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>1.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low productivity</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>1.082</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2017
Table 4.7 gives a presentation of the problems departments face in the sight of the challenges HRM practices in the University encounter. With mean scores of 3.68 (SD=1.002 and 1.111), 3.6 (SD=1.009 and 1.027), 2.67 (SD=1.082), respondents asserted that the challenges posed by the challenges to the HRM practices included high employee turnover, decreased employee commitment, low employee satisfaction, poor employee performance and low productivity.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of HRM practices on the employee job commitment, using University of Education, Winneba-Kumasi campus as the study area. The final chapter gives a summary of the findings, implications of the findings and suggested relevant recommendations.

5.1 Summary of Findings

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of HRM practices on employee job commitment. The objectives of the study were to find out the relationship between Human Resource Management practices and Employee Job commitment in the University, identify the Human Resource Practices in the University and examine challenges and shortfalls in the Human Resource Management practices in the University.

The main findings of the study showed that even though individual practices do not relate correlativelly with others, there is always bound to be a strong relationship between HRM practices and employee commitment. Moreover, majority of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed that proper recruitment and selection process, training and development, good compensation packages, appraisal, career planning programmes, health and safety programs have direct bearing on employee commitment. 60% of respondents agreed that training and development programs were the most predominant form of HRM practice in the University.
Majority of the respondents agreed that recruitment, compensation, performance appraisal, career planning and health and safety programmes were centralized. Furthermore, 48% of respondents declared that they were satisfied with HRM practices in the University with 62.1% of respondents asserting that HRM practices were very attractive. That notwithstanding, almost all respondents believed authorities should prioritize on training and development as an HRM practice. However, majority of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed that workforce demographics, action of competitive firms, development of managerial and leadership capabilities, aligning HRM to strategic priorities, development of comprehensive HR strategies, building of knowledge-productive learning culture and changes in National economy were challenges to the implementation of HRM practices in the University.

5.2 Conclusion

Owing to the virtue of human capital as a main source for productivity and competitive advantage (Khan, 2015), organizations must consider the critical role of human resource practices and make every effort to develop and sustain this capital.

This research has provided an overview and a discussion of HRM practices and how it affects employee commitment at the University of Education Winneba. It chiefly focused on perception of employees on HRM practices, policies and programmes and the impact of such HR practices on commitment. The purpose was to critically examine the effects of HRM practices on employee job commitment. Seven HR practices, policies and programmes were laid bare before respondents for critical scrutiny. This process produced results that indicated that Universities need to pay much more attention to the training and development of their human resources in order to realise their full potential and create competitive advantage.
In a nutshell, this study was conducted at the University and concluded that the proper management of human resources has enormous impact on employee job commitment. Management of Institutions of this nature should start to incorporate HRM thinking into strategies and make the HR function strategically proactive. The effective management of the human resources of these institutions will create and sustain competitive advantage and improve institutional performance. It is imperative for Universities to ensure that investment in their human resources and HRM practices will attract and retain talented people.

5.3 Recommendations

It was found that the University had only unit which is the Human Resource unit to carry HR functions and activities. As such it is recommended for Universities dedicate a department to the proper management of their human resources and employ the services of an HR expert to plan, implement and manage these HR function.

5.3.1 Recruitment and Selection

Starting with recruitment and selection, it is recommended that people HR expertise with the help of line managers are made to carry out these activities so that people with the appropriate skills, attitudes and knowledge are hired. This will ensure professionalism and institutionalism in the activities of Universities.

5.3.2 Training and Development

It is recommended that there should be coherent and strategic training and development that is planned to match both individual and organisational interests. To ensure that training needs identified is realistic and useful, the needs should be
discussed with employees. „Wholesale” training programmes do not yield the desired results. Also, budgets for training and development should be solely dedicated to such purposes. To reap the full benefits of training and development programmes, adequate monitoring and management of performances of employees should be instituted by management.

5.3.3 Employee Participation and Employment Security
Additionally, employee involvement should be touted the more to get employees to participate more and better in decisions that affect their jobs. Such an environment will automatically create employment security and unveil innovativeness and potentials of employees. Furthermore, providing feedback and counselling and grievance handling avenues will reduce conflicts and tension.

5.3.4 Compensation and Rewards
It is recommended that school management should endeavour to link pay to performance. This type of compensation structure is known to ensure fairness, eliminate conflicts and tension and propel employees to higher performance.

5.3.5 Career Planning
Career planning is made the sole responsibility of employees. The researcher recommends that a career development plan that focuses on the employees’ needs for growth and development are instituted. Institutions can provide the assistance that will give the employee the opportunity to grow his or her career. Again, it is recommended that employees are made aware of potential positions for promotions. Management must also base promotions on performance.
5.3.6 Appraisal and Performance Management

Research has shown the positive effect of 360 degree form of appraising in directly improving performance. This form of appraisal help employees to build their own self-awareness of their strengths, weaknesses and development needs. It is therefore recommended that Universities adopt this form of appraising and encourage managers to give regular, constructive and descriptive feedback. Feedback should describe what employees are doing well, be clear about what they might improve or change and why.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Studies

This research is limited to only the University of Education, Winneba. Further research conducted into the HR practices of all tertiary institutions in Ghana can enable better generalisation of findings. Research can also be conducted into the effects of HR practices, policies and programmes on employee motivation, job satisfaction and labour productivity.
REFERENCES


Storey, J. (1987). 'Developments in the management of human resources: an interim report', Warwick Papers in Industrial Relations, 17, IRRU, School of Industrial and Business Studies, University of Warwick (November)


APPENDIX

COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION, KUMASI

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION WINNEBA

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT STUDIES

MBA (HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT) PROGRAMME


Questionnaire for Staff of University of Education Winneba, Kumasi Campus

This questionnaire is being used as a tool for collecting information on the effect of Human Resource Management Practices on Employee’s Job Commitment in the University of Education Winneba, Kumasi Campus. The information that would be obtained shall be used to assess whether certain human resource management practices affect employee job commitment. The research is purely academic and any information provided shall be treated as confidential.

Please tick (√) in the appropriate box.

Section A. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

1. Gender
   a. Male [ ]
   b. Female [ ]

2. Age Group
   a. 18 – 30 Years [ ]
   b. 31 – 40 Years [ ]
   c. 41-50 Years [ ]
   d. 51-60 Years [ ]

3. Marital Status
   a. Single [ ]
   b. Married [ ]

4. Educational Level
   a. JHS/JSS [ ]
   b. Secondary [ ]
   c. Diploma [ ]
   d. Degree [ ]
   e. Master’s Degree [ ]
   f. Others ..........................................................
5. Division/Section
   a. Human Resource [ ]
   b. Finance [ ]
   c. Public Relations [ ]
   d. Operations [ ]
   e. Information Technology [ ]
   g. Academic affairs [ ]
   h. Procurement [ ]

6. Number of years spent
   a. 1 – 5 years [ ]
   b. 6-10 years [ ]
   c. 11-15 years [ ]
   d. 16-20 years [ ]
   e. 21 and above [ ]

Section B: Human Resource Management Practices in the University

7. Does the organization have a department dedicated to Human Resource?
   a. Yes [ ]
   b. No [ ]

8. What are the Human Resource Management practices in the University? (Your answers may be multiple)
   a. Recruitment and Selection [ ]
   b. Training and Development [ ]
   c. Compensation [ ]
   e. Appraisal/Performance Management [ ]
   f. Career Planning [ ]
   g. Health and Safety Program [ ]

   If others, please specify………………………………………………

9. How does the organization execute, plan and manage the following HR practices?

   Centralized (C) OR Decentralised (D)
   a. Recruitment and Selection [C] [D]
   b. Training and Development [C] [D]
   c. Compensation [C] [D]
10. Are you satisfied with how the Human Resource Practices are being managed?

11. What are your perceptions of HRM practices in your University?
   a. Unattractive b. Barely Attractive
c. Attractive d. Very Attractive

12. Over the years, which HRM Practice(s) has contributed most to employees’ job
commitment and Organizational performance as a whole?
   a. Recruitment and selection [ ] b. Training and Development [ ]
c. Compensation [ ] d. Appraisal [ ] e. Career Planning [ ]
f. Health and Safety needs [ ]
   If other, please specify………………………………………………

13. In your opinion which HRM Practice(s) do you think Management should put more
emphasis on?
   a. Recruitment and selection [ ] b. Training and Development [ ]
c. Compensation [ ] d. Appraisal e. Career Planning [ ]
f. Health and Safety needs If other, Please specify…………………………

14. In Relation to question 15, do you think the HRM Practice(s) has been
administered effectively over the previous years? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]
15. To what extent do you agree or disagree that extensive remuneration system for example allowances/bonuses for staff that are willing to be multi-skilled
a. To a large extent   b. Large extent   c. Indifferent  b. must not be encouraged

16 Give reason for your answer in question 15
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................

Section C: Relationship Between HRM Practice(s) And Employees Commitment
While you fill up this part of the questionnaire, please ensure that you are consulting the under-mentioned point scale to respond to every question. It will help you to select the most realistic option. Strongly Disagree = SD;  Disagree = D; Neutral = N; Strongly Agree = SA ;  Agree = A

17

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>RELATIONSHIP</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Proper recruitment and selection process has direct bearing on employees job commitment.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Training and Development has correlation with employee job commitment</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Good Compensation packages has direct impact on employees job commitment</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Appraisal/Performance Management helps employees to increase their level of commitment to your organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Good career planning programme positively affects employee commitment and increase productivity</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Health and Safety Programme impact positively employees commitment in your organization</td>
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</table>
Section D: Human Resource Management Implementation Challenges

While you fill up this part of the questionnaire, please ensure that you consult the under-mentioned scales to respond to every question. It will help you to select the most realistic option. Strongly Disagree = SD; Disagree = D; Neutral = N; Strongly Agree = SA; Agree = A

18

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges hindering HRM practices in your Department</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workforce Demographics</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>National Culture and Traditions</td>
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<td>Action of Competitive firms</td>
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<td>Changes in National Economy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aligning HRM to Strategic priorities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Building knowledge-productive learning culture</td>
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<tr>
<td>Developing managerial and leadership capability</td>
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<tr>
<td>Developing comprehensive HR strategy</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

19. What do you think is the highest consequence your department faces in relation to the challenges of the HRM Practices?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effects of the challenges in Question 17 that your department faces</th>
<th>Tick (√)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High employee turnover</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Low productivity</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Poor employee performance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Low employee satisfaction</td>
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<tr>
<td>Decrease employee commitment</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

THANK YOU.