UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT IN MUNICIPAL/DISTRICT ASSEMBLIES IN THE UPPER EAST REGION

REGINA ANAFO

2024

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AT THE MUNICIPAL/DISTRICT ASSEMBLIES IN THE UPPER EAST REGION

BY

REGINA ANAFO

Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Human Resource, School of Business, College of Humanities and Legal Studies, University of Cape Coast in partial fulfilment of the Requirements for the Award of Master of Business Administration in Human Resource Management

NOVEMBER 2024

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: ……………………. Date: ………………

Name: Regina Anafo

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of the dissertation laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Signature: …………………… Date: ………………………

Name: Prof. Nana Yaw Oppong

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study is to examine how employees' organisational commitment is affected by HRM practises in District and Assemblies in the Upper East Region. The study specifically sought to assess the human resource practices in the Upper East region, indicators of employee commitment and the effect of compensation, performance appraisal, work-life balance and training and development on organisational commitment. A sample of 179 employees in the districts of Bongo, Kassena-Nankana Municipal, and Builsa South District completed a survey that provided the study's data from a population of 330. In order to investigate the effects of human resource management practices, the study used a quantitative research approach and an explanatory research design. The results showed that there was a favourable relationship between compensation, work-life balance, and performance reviews and the three aspects of organisational commitment. However, the study did not find any significant evidence of a meaningful relationship between training and development and organisational commitment. that of the four important HR practices—compensation, work-life balance, performance appraisal, and training and development—training and development had no appreciable impact on employee commitment. The study concluded that of the four important HR practices—compensation, work-life balance, performance appraisal, and training and development—training and development had no appreciable impact on employee commitment. In light of these findings, the research offers enlightening recommendations to public sector organizations on enhancing workforce organizational commitment.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would want to thank everyone who contributed to making this work possible. I am incredibly grateful to my supervisor, Professor Nana Yaw Oppong of the University of Cape Coast's Department of Human Resources, for all of his guidance and assistance, which have been crucial to the success of this study.

Secondly, I would like to express my gratitude to the District Assemblies' employees, particularly the people who took part in this research. I also value the prayers and support that my amazing spouse and family have given me.

DEDICATION

To my Mum (Anafo Azure), my amazing Husband (Fredrick Dapilah) and my adorable Son (Zainus Janwill Atigah)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Contents Page

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Organizations function as open systems with defined goals, structured activities, and intentional coordination to achieve specific outcomes. Organizational theory defines organizations as social entities with structured activities that interact with the external environment, shaping both internal practices and performance (Daft, 2020). Successful organizations often credit their achievements to strategic planning, policies, and—critically—their personnel resources, which are considered essential for driving organizational success.

In this regard, the Social Exchange Theory (SET) offers a valuable framework for understanding the dynamics of human resource practices and organizational commitment. SET posits that relationships within an organization are based on reciprocal exchanges, where both parties give and receive benefits that strengthen loyalty and commitment (Blau, 1964). By implementing HR practices that value, support, and reward employees, organizations establish a social contract that encourages employees to reciprocate with commitment and loyalty. In other words, organizations that invest in their employees through positive HR practices receive employee dedication and a willingness to go above and beyond.

Human resources represent a critical asset in any organization, and cultivating a skilled workforce is essential for success (Wright & Snell, 1998; Jimoh & Danlami, 2011). This holds especially true in the context of public institutions like Municipal and District Assemblies, which face distinct challenges, including limited budgets, bureaucratic constraints, and pressures to serve public interests. The calibre of personnel in these organizations often determines their capacity to deliver on mandates effectively. Thus, Human Resource Management (HRM) practices that recognize and develop employees are critical for maximizing their contributions and ensuring efficient service delivery.

SET further explains how the perceived fairness of HR practices—such as performance appraisal practices, work-life balance, compensation, and training and development—leads to greater organizational commitment. These practices create an atmosphere of trust, reciprocity, and mutual obligation, where employees feel valued and are more likely to align their personal goals with organizational objectives. In municipal and district settings, these positive social exchanges are crucial for creating a motivated workforce committed to the public good. When employees perceive that they are fairly treated and supported, they tend to reciprocate with loyalty, discretionary effort, and greater alignment with organizational goals.

In today's globalized and competitive environment, public organizations also face competition for talent, even though they are not profit-driven entities. SET underscores the value of positive HR practices that promote a culture of trust and mutual support, which can help retain skilled employees and attract new talent. Given that competitors can quickly replicate products and strategies, human resources remain a unique and inimitable asset for organizational success. Organizations that effectively implement SET-inspired HR practices—such as fair compensation, work-life balance, and professional development—are better positioned to cultivate a loyal and dedicated workforce.

Organizational commitment, as a goal of HR practices, reflects an emotional and psychological attachment between employees and the organization (Ahmad & Schroeder, 2003). Through the lens of Social Exchange Theory, this commitment arises as a result of a workplace culture that values and reciprocates employee contributions. Studies by Lew (2010) affirm that employees who experience fair treatment and performance-based compensation show higher levels of motivation, further strengthening the social bond between employer and employee.

In the public sector, these social exchanges may be particularly crucial, given the additional challenges employees often face, such as complex regulatory environments and resource constraints. Effective HR practices that acknowledge these challenges and actively support employee well-being and development are likely to see positive outcomes in organizational commitment and service quality.

SET also underscores the importance of employee retention as a byproduct of fair and positive organizational environments. Employees who feel their efforts are acknowledged and reciprocated are more likely to stay, which has tangible benefits, including greater institutional knowledge, continuity, and increased productivity. In the context of Municipal and District Assemblies, retaining experienced personnel is essential for effective governance, as these individuals are familiar with the community needs, regulatory frameworks, and institutional history that are essential for effective public service. This contributes to a motivated workforce that helps these assemblies better meet their objectives of public service delivery and community engagement.

The significance of organizational commitment has been explored through numerous studies, beginning with foundational research by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) and extended by scholars like Becker (1992) and Meyer and Herscovitch (2001). The relevance of SET in this body of work is apparent, as the theory provides insights into how positive HR practices that create a fair and supportive environment lead to committed employees.

Therefore, through HR practices grounded in Social Exchange Theory, organizations can foster high levels of employee commitment. This is particularly valuable in Municipal and District Assemblies in the Upper East Region, where effective HR practices not only improve employee morale and retention but also enhance service delivery and organizational stability. By focusing on HR practices that promote fairness, support, and professional development, these assemblies can cultivate a workforce that is deeply committed to organizational goals and community service. This study, therefore, explores how HR practices influence employee commitment in these public-sector organizations, examining how such practices can improve organizational outcomes and fulfil their essential public mandates.

Statement of the Problem

The scarcity of qualified workers has driven organizations to develop innovative strategies for retaining key employees. Traditionally, companies have relied on higher remuneration to retain talent, assuming that increased salaries would sustain employee loyalty. However, recent research indicates that while compensation is important, other factors such as job satisfaction, effective HR practices, and organizational commitment play a more comprehensive role in attracting and retaining skilled employees (Khera, 2010; Rahman et al., 2013). Employee engagement, which directly contributes to organizational performance, depends on the presence of human resources who are productive, committed, and aligned with organizational goals (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Gruman & Saks, 2011; Al Mehrzi & Singh, 2016; Chen & Fulmer, 2018). Therefore, understanding how HR practices shape organizational commitment is essential for building a motivated and high-performing workforce.

In public-sector organizations, similar to private businesses, the quality of human resources and effective workforce management are critical to achieving institutional effectiveness. Public institutions must recruit, train, and retain capable employees to ensure a skilled workforce committed to fulfilling their roles effectively (Lew, 2009). According to studies, well-implemented HR strategies generate high levels of employee engagement, which improves organisational outcomes such as productivity, efficiency, and retention (Shahzad et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2009). High organizational commitment is associated with employees' strong alignment with organizational goals, leading to notable results like improved performance, loyalty, and reduced turnover (Rogers, 2001).

Human resource management (HRM) practices such as performance appraisal, work-life balance, compensation, and training and development are widely acknowledged as tools for increasing productivity (Amin et al., 2014), fostering teamwork (Wall & Wood, 2005), and cultivating organisational commitment (Aladwan et al., 2015). These HR practices are also vital in fostering employee engagement, which is fundamental to achieving sustained organizational performance (Hughes & Rog, 2008; Aktar & Pangil, 2018). While such practices are valuable across all sectors, employee commitment is arguably more critical in public institutions, as it impacts service delivery and the institution's ability to fulfil its public mandate (Oshagbemi, 2000). Indeed, without a highly engaged and committed workforce, public institutions face significant challenges in maintaining service quality and operational efficiency (Nazir & Islam, 2017). Furthermore, public sector patrons frequently express concerns about service quality, underscoring the need for better HR practices to address these challenges.

Despite the importance of HR practices in fostering organizational commitment, there remains a research gap in understanding how these practices affect employee commitment specifically within public-sector organizations. While numerous studies have examined aspects of HRM in public institutions, the focus has largely been on employee turnover intentions (Johnsrud et al., 2000), job satisfaction (Smerek & Peterson, 2007), and motivation (Huxley & Hall, 1996; Rowley, 1996; Rosser, 2004; Chen et al., 2009; Lew, 2009; Malik et al., 2010). However, limited attention has been given to how HR practices directly influence employee commitment, particularly in public institutions within the Upper East Region (Wilkins et al., 2017).

This study aims to close this gap by investigating the impact of HRM practices—specifically, compensation, performance appraisal, work-life balance, and training and development—on employee commitment in selected District Assemblies in the Upper East region. Understanding how these HR policies affect employee engagement in this setting will give useful insights into how public institutions may boost organisational success through targeted HR tactics.

Purpose of the Study

The research project intends to analyse the influence of human resources management practices on the commitment of district and municipal assemblies workers in Ghana's Upper East region.

Research Objectives

The study sought to specifically:

1. Analyse the HRM practices of the District Assemblies,
2. Analyse the indicators of employee commitment in the District Assemblies,
3. Examine the effect of the four key HRM practices (performance appraisal practices, work-life balance, compensation, and training and development) on employee commitment.

Research Questions

The research was guided by the ensuing queries;

1. What are the human resource management practices of District Assemblies?
2. What are the indicators of employee commitment in the District Assemblies?

Research Hypothesis

H_0 = there is no significant effect of HRM practices (performance appraisal practices, work-life balance, compensation, and training and development) on employee commitment

Significance of the Study

The purpose of this study is to analyse the impact of human resource management methods on the commitment of district and municipal assembly employees in Ghana's Upper East Region. Because the study's findings will give a thorough grasp of HRM approaches that impact organisational commitment, public entities may find them useful. The study's contribution to the development of HR guidelines for government agencies will aid government in its endeavours to deliver efficient and successful public sector services.

The management and human resource managers of various public organizations will find great value in the insights and recommendations offered by the study's conclusions. This is because it is anticipated that it will provide some guidance on how to handle the important management issue of organisational commitment, as well as plausible explanations for why employees are devoted to their companies. Without a doubt, this will help the firm make wise decisions, adopt strategies that will boost commitment, output, and performance, and design suitable policies.

The study is expected to potentially close a knowledge gap on the impact of HRM practises on organisational commitment in Ghana. Future researchers may also use it as secondary data. Additionally, the study will attempt to provide new information about the best ways that HRM practises influence employee loyalty to public sector companies. In conclusion, it will add to the corpus of knowledge regarding the matter and function as a foundation for further investigation.

Limitations of the Study

The study used a quantitative methodology, which has certain drawbacks. Thus, the study would be able to obtain data from all respondents and this limits the responses to be collected. Also, data was collected through a close-ended questionnaire and this limited the respondents. However, this was mitigated by making sure the questionnaire covered all key aspects of the research.

Delimitations

The District Assemblies in the Upper East Region were the only public bodies included in this analysis; other public institutions, which typically have more advanced HR systems, were not. To improve the findings, a comparison study of the various industries might have been conducted. Additionally, the other areas are ignored in favour of the District Assemblies in the Upper East Region. If the information had been gathered from all public agencies, it might have offered more insightful information.

Organisation of the Study

Five chapters make up the dissertation's presentation. The main research themes are outlined in Chapter 1 to set the stage for the next sections of the study. In order to determine the feasibility of this study, this chapter gives an outline of the study, including its background, context, justification, gap, goals, and objectives. The existing research on study variables is reviewed in Chapter 2, which is a review of the literature. The theoretical frameworks that will be utilized as a lens to analyse the study's variables and suggested results are also reviewed in this chapter.

Chapter Three, Research Methods, provides a comprehensive overview of the empirical research process, including techniques for gathering and analyzing data. The research findings and discussion are covered in Chapter 4. The major survey's analysis and results are presented in this chapter. Summary, conclusion, and recommendations are found in Chapter 5. The quantitative analysis covered in Chapter 4's discussion of the important empirical findings is summarized in this chapter. Then come the contributions to the literature, suggestions for best practices, restrictions on the research, and directions for future study.

Chapter Summary

This chapter offered a description of the study's background as well as the specific issue that prompted it. Along with the basis for the study, there were also research objectives and questions to guide the process. The chapter gave information about the study's scope and limitations. Finally, it provided the research work's organisation.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

A review of very pertinent literature on this topic is included in this chapter. The chapter further examines and clarifies the theoretical underpinnings and empirical problems supporting the phenomena under study. It is specifically divided into four primary subtopics: conceptual framework, empirical review, theoretical review, and conceptual review.

Theoretical Review

The Social Exchange Theory offers the theoretical framework for the inquiry. SET, as proposed by Blau (1964) and supported by Eisenberger et al. (2002), posits that economic, social and human activities are motivated by continuous processes of exchange. Maximizing gains while reducing costs is the main objective of these trading systems (Agarwala, 2003). In order to predict how parties will communicate and exchange resources to establish lasting connections, SET is typically employed (Homans, 1961). As Homans (1961) stated, “The exchange can be understood in terms of material and non-material goods, such as symbols of approval or prestige.”

In existing literature, the Social Exchange Theory (SET) perspective is widely utilized when studying the dynamics between different parties, including employers and employees (Snape & Redman, 2010). This is mainly because, according to Shaw et al. (2009), SET takes into account a number of outcomes that result from these encounters, including trust and satisfaction. Consequently, in order for an organization to progress, it is essential for all parties involved to assume responsibility and establish mutual reliance.

SET is a well-known social theory that has gained popularity, especially in the field of sociopsychology. It suggests that rewards exchanged between parties have an impact on human behavior (Homans, 1961). According to this idea, people view social contacts as having hazards in addition to potential rewards. Blau (1964) goes on to say that, seen from a wider angle, the exchange connection between two parties includes social as well as economic exchanges (Snape & Redman, 2010). Thus, a number of research in this field claim that the interaction between employers and workers requires socio-emotional resources like respect, acknowledgement, and organizational support in addition to impersonal resources like financial incentives.

The present study states that the Social Exchange Theory (SET) attempts to clarify social interactions and the possible advantages shared by people in these exchanges. The theory is based on the assumption that people are largely driven by their own interests or the benefits they anticipate (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Importantly, there are similarities between social and commercial relationships regarding the expectation of rewards. Economic exchanges are commonly perceived as short-term transactions where the benefits are typically provided either prior to or shortly after the completion of the transaction.

In contrast, social interactions operate on the understanding that other participants in the conversation may engage in a similar manner. Unlike business transactions, social exchanges are often considered long-term commitments due to the uncertainty of reciprocity, it may happen at any time in the future. Prior studies suggest that social exchange ties are important in contemporary companies because workers who build these relationships with their employers typically exhibit greater levels of dedication. Conversely, negotiated exchanges—also referred to as economic exchanges—are less hazardous and are mostly connected to wage and benefit agreements (Allen et al., 2003; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). When expectations are not satisfied by the donor, the relationship's quality is negatively impacted (Gouldner, 1960; Blau, 1964). This can happen when reciprocation is not possible in either direction.

HRM practices are seen as an essential component of social and economic interaction processes, according to pertinent literature (Snape & Redman, 2010). According to a number of academics, HRM procedures have a significant impact on how employees behave, think, and feel (Buck & Watson, 2002; Collins & Clark, 2003; Haines et al., 2010). Employers who implement practices aimed at enhancing skills and motivation demonstrate to their workforce that they value their growth and well-being, and they are willing to invest in their development (Shaw et al., 2009; Kwon, 2009). Employees may tell whether they are valued by their employer by looking at HRM practices including pay-for-performance schemes, performance reviews, programmes for employee growth and development as well as involvement in decision-making.

Offering alluring HRM practices is one way for a company to communicate to its staff that it want to engage in social interactions with them (Snape & Redman, 2010). The reciprocity norm states that people will react favorably by exhibiting characteristics like increased organizational commitment and a stronger propensity to stick around, which will eventually be advantageous to the organization as a whole (Allen et al., 2003). This study suggests that, by using the Social Exchange Theory as a lens, HRM methods can affect employee commitment (SET).

Conceptual Review

Human resource management practices

HRM is a broad category of choices that impact the dynamics of work interactions with the goal of assisting staff members in reaching their maximum potential while being in line with the goals of the company and the individual. HRM is described by Flippo (1984) as the process of planning, controlling, directing, and organizing various aspects related to human resources, including recruitment, training, compensation, integration, retention, and separation, with the ultimate aim of achieving individual, organizational, and societal goals. HRM, as stated by Bratton and Gold (2015), is a deliberate approach to managing employment relationships. It emphasizes how important it is to play to people's strengths in order to obtain a competitive edge, and it does this by using a unique set of integrated employment policies, programmes, and practises. Therefore, the goal of HRM is to implement programmes, duties, and activities that are intended to optimise employee well-being and organisational goals.

A system of choices and administrative activities pertaining to workers within an organisation is known as HRM practises (Dung et al., 2017). HRM procedures will assist a company in attracting and retaining highly skilled, hardworking, and psychologically driven personnel. As supported by current literature (Armstrong, 2008; Matthis & Jackson, 2004; Milkovich & Newman, 2005), job analysis, human resource planning, career management, training and development, employee relations, pay and benefits, recruiting and selection, performance review, and employee welfare are all crucial HRM procedures.

Every organisation has unique traits, tactics, and objectives. Various features have been offered by both domestic and foreign studies, contingent upon the research goals of providing consistent items. However, a lot of the focus on "good" employment practises has been directed toward methods for retaining employees and fostering their dedication and satisfaction (Hutchings, De Cieri & Shea, 2011). These studies have placed a strong emphasis on job circumstances, social and community practises, telecommuting, flexible work schedules, communication, and family-friendly work regulations (Zatzick & Iverson, 2006; Beauregard & Henry, 2009). The goal of all of these initiatives is to improve workplace relations, HRM practises, and organisational performance by influencing the attitudes and behaviours of employees (Whitener, 2001).

Depending on the goals of the research, both foreign and domestic studies have been presented in various ways to provide consistent results. Furthermore, a comprehensive evaluation of the HRM practises is conducted, encompassing all of its component parts (Son, 2017). As a result, HRM techniques in the public sector are diverse, and how these approaches are combined relies on the goals and methods of the various organisations. The study will concentrate on four practises: performance appraisal, work-life balance, remuneration, and training and development. The next sections go over these in more depth.

Training and development

Investing in training is regarded as a type of human capital, regardless of whether the company or the individual makes the investment (Goldstein, 1991; Wetland, 2003). Following hiring, training programmes help workers become more skilled at their jobs. It is required of employees to learn new things, use them at work, and impart them to other staff members (Noe, 1999). While development strives to provide workers the qualities the organisation will need in the future, training gives workers specialist skills or helps them make up for performance defects (Wilk & Cappelli, 2003). Enhancing one's proficiency in technology, interpersonal communication, basic literacy, or problem-solving techniques are examples of skill development.

Good training opportunities are what employees want in order to improve their marketability. It used to be common knowledge that if a corporation makes its people marketable, they will quit as soon as possible. However, employers are discovering that workers are more likely to be devoted the more training they receive. In fact, turnover often initiates immediately after the completion of training programs (Wien-Tuers & Hill, 2002). Companies are placing growing emphasis on nurturing their employees' human capital, motivated by the anticipation of obtaining a favourable return on their investment. This emphasis is reflected in various practices such as talent development, thorough assessment of competencies, providing feedback on individual interests, conducting multi-source evaluations to identify skill gaps and developmental needs, and creating action plans. This trend is supported by studies conducted by Clarke (2001) and Messmer (2000).

According to Storey and Sisson (1993), providing training to employees is indicative of a strong commitment from employers towards their workforce. This dedication not only demonstrates the company's faith in its workers but also reflects a strategic approach that prioritizes value creation rather than solely focusing on cost reduction. Prominent corporations have recognised that offering a wide array of career and skill-development prospects to staff members is essential for drawing in and keeping the adaptable, tech-savvy labour force that businesses require to thrive in the digital age (Bassi & Van Buren, 1999; Accenture, 2001). Programmes for employee training and development are increasingly seen as essential elements of human resource management (Oakland & Oakland, 2001).

Compensation

Compensation management is a fundamental approach within human resource management and a prominent subject within the broader field of management. It is unsurprising, given that the majority, if not all, employees are primarily motivated to take on jobs due to the monetary aspect of the compensation package. In addition to monetary benefits, compensation also includes a variety of material services and advantages that employees receive as a condition of their job. It consists of a broad range of benefits, both non-financial and financial, given to staff members in appreciation for their services to the company.

Wages, salaries, and employee benefits like paid time off, paid maternity leave, insurance, retirement benefits, free travel, etc. are used to pay for this. The word "wage" refers to compensation for labourers performing strenuous or manual labour. Therefore, wages are given to unskilled workers as payment for the services they have supplied to the company. Payment for work can be structured on an hourly, daily, weekly, or monthly basis. DeNisi and Griffin (2001) explain that compensation constitutes a system of rewards offered by a company to its employees as a reciprocal arrangement for their willingness to perform various responsibilities and roles within the organization.

As labour must devote time and ideas for the organization's improvement in order to accomplish its goals, compensation, according to Sastrohadiwiryo (2005), is a charge or reward given by the organisation to employees. In the meanwhile, Hariandja (2002) claims that compensation is "the overall remuneration received by an employee as a result of the implementation of the work in the organization in the form of money or any other form of salaries, wages, bonuses, incentives, and other benefits such as health benefits, holiday allowance, money for food, leave and others". These opinions make it abundantly evident that remuneration is a benefit that workers should receive for their efforts, whether in the form of money or other items, or simply a sense of being valued for their health and ability to function at their best.

Work-Life Balance

There has been much discussion over what work-life balance actually is. Greenhaus, Collins, and Shaw (2003) highlight a lack of comprehensive inclusion or specific definition of work-life balance in many significant evaluations of related research (Greenhaus et al., 2003; Potgieter & Barnard, 2010). Kalliath and Brough (2008), after conducting a literature review, identified six commonly used definitions of work-life balance. It is commonly perceived as a duplication of a person's strategy for juggling several responsibilities in life. To what degree an individual is active in and equally satisfied with their duties as a worker and a family; achieving meaningful experiences in all spheres of life; and to this end, allocating one's own resources—like time, energy, and dedication—equitably throughout each domain. The degree of a person's efficacy in maintaining boundaries at work and home, which can have an adverse effect on both; The connection between facilitation and conflict as well as the perception of control across various roles.

According to Md-Sidin, Sambasivan, and Ismail (2008), married people had higher levels of work-life conflict than single people. The degree of balance that people experience continues to be significantly influenced by whether or not their family has children (Tausig & Fenwick, 2011). Parents' increasing emphasis on the role of the family is determined by their parental status (Blau, Ferber & Winkler, 2008). Work-life stress has been linked to a number of family-related variables, including the amount of time spent on domestic duties, the size of family responsibilities, household income, spousal support, and life stage (Jennings & McDougald, 2012). When compared to single people without children, parents—married or single—tend to report lower levels of perceived balance; conversely, dual-earner couples without children tend to report higher levels of work-life balance (Tausig & Fenwick, 2011). These categories were used in the Greenhaus et al. (2003) study to assess an individual's degree of engagement and happiness with their job and family duties, which helped to identify the elements of work-life balance.

Performance appraisal

An objective assessment of a member of an organization's performance level is called a performance appraisal. Performance evaluation, as stated by Muo (2007), is a structured, systematic, and regulated process that involves assessing the strengths and weaknesses of each employee's job performance to provide feedback on areas that require improvement. This concept has gained widespread usage and refers to various practices employed by businesses to evaluate employees, enhance their competencies, improve performance, and recognize achievements. It has become an integral component of a strategic approach to aligning HR operations with organizational policies (Fletcher, 2001). Consequently, there has been a shift in focus from solely psychometric and evaluation aspects to developmental performance appraisal in both practice and research (Waal, 2003; Levy & Williams, 2004). Any program designed to improve the attitudes, experiences, and abilities that increase workers' effectiveness is referred to as developmental performance appraisal (Boswell & Boudreau, 2002).

Performance appraisals are defined by DeNisi and Pritchard (2006) as particular, official activities that are approved by the organization, usually occurring once or twice a year, and when the assessment criteria and performance aspects are made explicit. Performance appraisals, according to Jackson and Schuler (2002), are a methodical way to keep an eye on how well employees are performing. They usually include evaluations and comments from peers, managers, supervisors, subordinates, and occasionally even self-evaluations. According to De Waal (2003), performance appraisals are concerned with assuring that compensation structures take performance into account, helping individuals grow individually, and clarifying job expectations for the benefit of the overall workforce. It also guarantees that, following an evaluation of their work, employees are aware of how their performances are expected to be applied to the organization's goals.

Manoharan, Muralidharan, and Deshmukh (2009) emphasize the significance of performance appraisals as a vital management tool for evaluating employee productivity in the workplace. These appraisals are commonly described as formal and structured interactions between supervisors and subordinates, conducted periodically, typically semi-annually or annually, to assess employee performance. According to Grubb (2007), the goal of performance assessments is to constantly improve the overall fulfillment of the organization's mission by coordinating, aligning, and engaging both individual and collective efforts. The outcomes of appraisals may be used in some organisations to evaluate who within the company is deserving of merit-based raises, bonuses, or promotions. Analogously, evaluation outcomes might be employed to pinpoint underachievers who might need counselling, a promotion, termination, or a pay cut. It's interesting to note that performance reviews are a highly contentious administrative topic. Therefore, Jackson and Schuler's definition of performance appraisal is used for the study's purposes (2002). They defined it as an official procedure of employee monitoring that typically included assessing performance using the assessments and supervisors, opinions of peers, managers, and even workers themselves.

Employee commitment

Organizational commitment has several different meanings; these definitions define approaches from many angles and offer a variety of metrics.

Employee commitment is, in general, defined as the worker's psychological bond or allegiance to the company. According to Robbins and Coulter (2013), employee commitment is the extent to which a person identifies with a specific organisation, its aims, and their desire to remain involved with it. Commitment represents the bond that an employee forms with their company. Those who are committed to their profession usually have a feeling of community, a sense of understanding the business's objectives, and a connection with their organisation. These workers typically exhibit higher levels of productivity, labour with greater tenacity, and offer assistance more proactively.

Organizational commitment, according to Onoh (2009), is the act of identifying with one's employer. According to Monday, Porter, and Steers (1982), Employee commitment is defined as having a strong desire to remain a valued member of a particular organisation, being prepared to work very hard to support the organization's goals, and unconditionally accepting the organization's values and objectives. The consistency of the earlier research indicates that employee commitment is a factor of attitude.

Employee commitment is now generally acknowledged to have multiple dimensions rather than being a binary idea with a low to high range (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Jaros, 1997). Allen and Meyer’s three-component model of organizational commitment (1990, 1991, 1997) presents a holistic view of what binds employees to their organizations. This framework suggests that commitment arises from three distinct yet interrelated dimensions: affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

Together, they capture the emotional, rational, and moral foundations of an employee’s bond with their workplace.

- Affective commitment reflects the emotional connection and genuine desire an employee feels toward their organization. It is the “want to stay” component, driven by identification with the company's goals and values.
- Continuance commitment focuses on the perceived cost of leaving the organization. Here, employees stay not because they want to but because they feel they “need to,” recognizing the potential losses (e.g., financial, professional) of walking away.
- Normative commitment embodies a sense of obligation or duty. Employees remain because they believe they “ought to,” often influenced by personal or cultural values and the organization's investment in them.

The interplay of these three dimensions provides a nuanced understanding of why employees choose to remain in their roles. Each component offers unique insights into the complexities of workplace loyalty, which will be explored further in the subsequent sections.

Affective commitment

Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) delve into the emotional essence of organizational commitment by focusing on its affective component, which they describe as an employee's profound connection with and active involvement in their organization. This emotional bond is marked by three distinct behaviours: the willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization, a deliberate intention to remain a member over the long term, and a strong alignment with the organization's goals and values.

The study emphasizes that this type of commitment does not arise instantaneously or as a response to isolated workplace events. Instead, it is a gradual process, deepening over time as employees experience alignment between their personal values and the organization's mission. The more employees feel that their contributions are meaningful and that their values resonate with those of the organization, the stronger their emotional attachment becomes.

This perspective suggests that fostering affective commitment requires a strategic focus on creating a positive organizational culture, emphasizing shared values, and building trust. By prioritizing these elements, organizations can cultivate loyalty that is grounded in emotional investment rather than mere transactional relationships.

The affective aspect of employee commitment concerns the employees' propensity to stick with the company, which is based on their emotional connection, participation, and sense of belonging in the company. When this commitment factor was first introduced, it was discovered to be connected to employee turnover and conduct at work. To put it simply, a worker who has a high affective attachment to the company decides to stay on because they sincerely want to (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Continuance commitment

Based on Becker's (1960) idea of side bets, which emphasizes the awareness of costs involved with quitting the business, the continuity factor relates to the employees' perspective. The author posits that when employees estimate their earnings from side bets to be greater than any prospective losses, they are more inclined to stay affiliated with the firm. Kanter (1968) recognised the Becker (1960) idea of continuous commitment and extended the theory to encompass cohesive and control commitment. Members are bound to a social group by the cohesive element, which is social. The authoritative control element suggests that workers will respect group norms and follow instructions.

Empirical research was used by Meyer and Allen (1991) to conceptualise this aspect of workers' loyalty to the company. In essence, the continuity component is the understanding of why an employee may behave consistently by Becker (1960) and Kanter (1968). In short, a worker who has a deep commitment to the organization's continuing works there because they have to (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Normative commitment

Wiener's (1982) concept of employees' loyalty to the company aligns closely with the normative component of commitment. The author highlights the elements of employees' dedication and motivation as factors that yield outcomes. It is said that the commitment section addresses the internalized normative factors that force individuals to act in a way that furthers the goals and interests of the organization. Workers behave in this manner because they sincerely think it is the morally correct course of action.

The normative component was developed using Wiener's theoretical work as a foundation (1982). This element speaks to the workers' sense of duty to remain with the company. Activities taken either before or during the work period may result in this duty. Socialization techniques and rewards have the power to influence how normatively committed workers are to the organization. In essence, an employee who strongly believes that they ought to stay with the company does so because they possess a robust normative commitment to it (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Empirical Review

In this section, the relevant previous research pertaining to the study objectives is presented.

Human resource management practices

HRM procedures will assist a company in attracting and retaining highly skilled, hardworking, and psychologically driven personnel. Human resource management (HRM) techniques include hiring, screening, developing, and training employees. They align with the requirements of the company (Armstrong, 2011). HRM procedures that encompass all aspects of HRM are enhanced and implemented to each firm in a flexible manner. Every organisation has unique traits, tactics, and objectives. As a result, various strategies for HRM practises are required for every firm. Morrison (1996) illustrates that various components of HRM processes include the organization's HR philosophy, selection procedures, socialization practices, training initiatives, performance assessment and reward systems, as well as job description guidelines.

Pfeffer (1998) outlines a range of HRM practices, which encompass activities such as recruiting and onboarding new employees, creating self-governing teams and delegating decision-making authority, providing competitive compensation linked to performance, enhancing training opportunities, addressing pay disparities and other job-related obstacles, promoting internal information sharing, and striving to achieve favorable financial outcomes. According to Dung (2005), there are nine components to HRM practises: identifying the duties and activities, recruiting and selection, training, performance evaluation, pay and benefits administration, labour relations development, personnel statistics, legal compliance, and change advocacy.

In particular, four practices will be looked at in this study: performance appraisal and development, training and development, , pay, and work-life balance. Just a portion of the many HRM functions that can be used are represented by these practices. The three primary theories or views of HRM practices— Adam's equity theory, Maslow hierarchy of needs theory, and the Herzberg's two-factor theory —intersect with the common behaviors that underpin these activities. These procedures are thought to have the capacity to inspire workers and provide them a feeling of security, independence, acknowledgment, and enhanced self-worth, which will ultimately result in affective commitment (Döckel, Basson, & Coetzee, 2006).

Furthermore, a comprehensive evaluation of the HRM practises is conducted, encompassing all of its component parts (Son, 2017). As a result, HRM techniques in the public sector offer diverse ways to use various HRM components to meet organisational goals, with decisions based on the specific organisational characteristics. Additionally, they can be viewed as various initiatives aimed at persuading civil servants employed by public entities to support the organization's overarching objectives.

Indicators of employee commitment

Two significant instruments have been pivotal in empirical studies of organizational commitment (OC), particularly for measuring and understanding this construct. One of these is the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday, Steers, and Porter in 1979. This tool remains widely recognized for its ability to assess the affective dimension of commitment, focusing on how employees identify with and are emotionally attached to their organization.

In their foundational study, Mowday et al. collected data from a diverse sample of 2,563 employees across nine different types of workplaces. This extensive dataset allowed them to refine the OCQ and validate its effectiveness in measuring commitment across various organizational contexts. The questionnaire captures aspects such as employees' willingness to exert effort, their intention to remain part of the organization, and their alignment with organizational goals and values.

The development and application of the OCQ have been instrumental in advancing the study of OC by providing a standardized means to evaluate and compare levels of commitment across industries and organizational settings. Its focus on the emotional and value-based connections employees have with their workplaces has made it a cornerstone in organizational behaviour research. The participants in the study encompassed a wide range of employment categories, such as public servants, staff members of classified universities, hospital workers, employees of banks and engineers, scientists, telephone companies, managers of auto companies, psychiatric technicians, and trainees in retail management. They determined that their 15-item OCQ was valid and reliable for measuring OC after testing it for predictive, convergent, and discriminant validity using a variety of tests.

Building on Mowday et al.'s (1979) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), Cook and Wall (1980) developed a condensed, nine-item version tailored specifically for working-class employees. Recognizing the need for a simpler and more accessible tool, they designed this version to maintain the OCQ's focus on measuring affective commitment while adapting it to the practical contexts of blue-collar environments.

The Cook and Wall adaptation ensures inclusivity by considering the linguistic and cultural nuances of working-class respondents. It simplifies the assessment process without compromising the validity of its measurements, making it an effective instrument for exploring organizational commitment in diverse employment sectors. This innovation further underscores the flexibility of the OCQ framework in capturing key aspects of employee commitment across varied demographic and occupational groups. A strong yearning to stay an employee of the company (loyalty) and a sense of connection with and acceptance of its principles were the three interconnected qualities that were intended to be captured. The first was active involvement and a readiness to exert effort for the organization. In two distinct research, Cook and Wall conducted interviews with 650 blue-collar workers in the United Kingdom. Male employees in industrial industries who worked full-time and were classified as skilled, semi-skilled, or unskilled made up the samples. Their measure received psychometric support from their findings.

The theoretically developed dimensions of organizational commitment, such as affective, continuance, and normative commitment, have faced challenges in empirical validation as distinct components. Mowday et al.'s (1979) factor analysis of their 15-item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) revealed a unidimensional structure, suggesting that the items primarily reflected a single overarching commitment dimension, rather than multiple independent factors.

Similarly, Cook and Wall's (1980) nine-item scale, although intended to simplify and adapt the OCQ for working-class populations, also failed to demonstrate clear distinctions between the proposed dimensions of commitment. Curry, Wakefield, Price, and Mueller (1986) further critiqued this scale, finding no empirical evidence to support its ability to differentiate between varying levels or types of commitment.

These findings highlight the complexity of operationalizing organizational commitment as a multidimensional construct. While the theoretical framework suggests distinct components, measurement tools like the OCQ and its adaptations often reveal overlapping or interconnected aspects, challenging researchers to refine these instruments for clearer dimensional validation. For instance, Morrow (1983) demonstrated that job participation measures are included in the Mowday–Cook–Wall scales' identification component. An inconsistency in Mowday et al. differentiations between commitment and satisfaction was also observed by Curry et al. (1986).

Allen and Meyer's (1990) Three-Dimensional Organizational Commitment Model (TCM) introduced a comprehensive approach to understanding employee commitment by identifying three key dimensions: affective commitment (AC), normative commitment (NC), and continuance commitment (CC). Each dimension is assessed through an eight-item scale: the Emotional Commitment Scale (ECS) for AC, the Normative Commitment Scale (NCS) for NC, and the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS) for CC. These scales have undergone regular updates and refinements, supported by researchers like Magazine, Williams & Williams (1996), Meyer & Allen (1997), Culpepper (2000), and others.

Despite some criticism from scholars like Bergman (2006) and Solinger, van Olffen, & Roe (2008), the TCM remains one of the most influential frameworks in organizational behaviour. Its robust foundation has inspired a substantial body of research, including meta-analyses by Meyer et al. (2002) and Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran (2005), as well as qualitative evaluations like those by Meyer (2016). These studies consistently demonstrate the relevance of the TCM in linking the three commitment dimensions to various job outcomes, including employee performance, retention, and organizational citizenship behaviours.

The model's practical value lies in its ability to differentiate between the emotional attachment employees feel toward their organization (AC), their sense of moral obligation to stay (NC), and their perception of the costs of leaving (CC). This multidimensional approach provides a nuanced understanding of commitment, making it a vital tool for both academic research and managerial applications.. The OC measurement method created by Alan and Meyer is currently the most widely used one (1990). For this reason, the TCM scale created by Meyer and Allen (1997) will be applied in this investigation.

Human resource management practices and employee commitment

HRM procedures have an impact on employee behaviour, and one important component of corporate success is organisational commitment (Boxall & Purcell, 2011). According to Kinicki et al. (1992), the degree of employee engagement with a company influences the HRM methods that the organisation uses. After reading the literature, it is clear that organizational commitment and HR have a significant relationship (Luna-Arocas & Champs, 2007; Gellatly et al., 2009). Since it influences workers' attitudes and behaviours, Chew and Chan (2008) argued that the HR function in a firm is responsible for retaining committed personnel. When there are no sentiments of engagement or attachment, employees frequently quit the company. Stated differently, workers exhibit a lack of dedication towards the company they are employed for (Luna-Arocas & Camps, 2007).

As highlighted by Fong et al. (2011), Alkalha et al. (2012), and Vratskikh et al. (2016), an organization’s human resource management (HRM) practices significantly influence employees' loyalty and their levels of organizational commitment. This section examines the relationship between the three dimensions of organizational commitment—affective, normative, and continuance—and various HRM practices such as work-life balance, remuneration, training and development, and performance assessment.

Training and development and employee commitment

In their comprehensive study on Perceived Organizational Support (POS), Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) reviewed over 70 publications to analyse how employees perceive their employers’ appreciation of their contributions and concern for their well-being. Their meta-analysis revealed a strong relationship between POS and employees' favourable perceptions of being treated fairly within their organizations. In turn, this perceived assistance was linked to favourable employee outcomes like commitment. They maintained that giving employees opportunities for training and development communicates to them that their employers appreciate their advancement and are concerned about their personal development.

Qiao et al. (2008) explored the impact of human resource management (HRM) practices on organizational commitment through a study involving 610 IT workers. By employing hierarchical regression analysis, they examined how various HRM behaviours influenced levels of commitment. Their findings highlighted a strong and significant relationship between organizational commitment and HRM practices, particularly those related to training and development. In a similar spirit, Gellatly et al. (2009) investigated 317 responders from various Canadian firms. Through the use of multinomial logit analysis, they were able to ascertain a connection between employee views of HR policies that are growth-focused, including training and development, and positive emotional and ongoing commitment to the organisation. Their study concentrated on the connection between organizational commitment profiles and HRM practices.

Paşaoğlu's (2015) study on the impact of HRM practices on organizational commitment, conducted with 304 employees in the Eskişehir banking sector, yielded results that align with findings from other studies in the field. Using multiple regression and correlation analysis, Paşaoğlu demonstrated a strong positive relationship between organizational commitment and training and development practices. The study highlighted that employees who perceive their organization as investing in their growth through training and development opportunities are more likely to feel a sense of commitment and loyalty to the organization. The aforementioned research demonstrates empirically that training and development initiatives not only help workers grow and improve their skills and talents, but also increase their commitment to their employers and job happiness (McElroy, 2001; Paul & Anantharaman, 2004).

Compensation and employee commitment

According to Paşaoğlu (2015), employees frequently feel that their employers value their work and are thus prepared to give them with suitable compensation plans that can be tailored to each employee's specific needs when they work for companies that offer attractive compensation packages. Meyer and Allen's (1997) book, "Commitment in the Workplace: Theory, Research, and Application," highlighted a robust association between compensation and continuance commitment. In a similar vein, 250 medical technologists (MTs) took part in a study conducted by Blau et al. (2001) to look at the factors and outcomes related to basic versus career enrichment benefit satisfaction over the course of four years. The researchers found a strong correlation between organisational commitment and pay using hierarchical regression analysis.

Compensation reductions are negatively correlated with organisational commitment, according to research by Fiorito, Bozeman, Young, and Meurs (2007) on organisational commitment, human resource practises, and organisational characteristics. The research used data from the National Organizations Survey (NOS), a nationally representative sample of employers and employees. Furthermore, Gellatly, Hunter, Currie, and Irving's 2009 study looked at the connection between organizational commitment profiles and HRM practices. Their results showed a strong relationship between an employer's pay packages and the affective and continuous dedication that staff members showed to the company. A multinomial logit was employed in the study to analyse the data, and a sample of 317 respondents from different Canadian-based organizations was included.

Paşaoğlu's (2015) study on the Turkish banking industry also found a significant positive correlation between performance-based remuneration and organizational commitment. Using multiple regression analysis on a sample of 304 participants, the study revealed that employees who perceive their remuneration as tied to their performance tend to exhibit greater loyalty and commitment to their organization. This supports the broader view that performance-based incentives can reinforce employee engagement and foster long-term dedication to the organization.

This finding is consistent with other studies in the field, such as those by Meyer et al. (2002) and Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), which link various HRM practices—including fair compensation and rewards systems—to organizational commitment. Performance-based remuneration, when aligned with clear goals and fair evaluation criteria, not only motivates employees but also strengthens their attachment to the organization, making them more likely to remain in the firm over the long term.

Organizations that offer competitive and performance-linked pay structures are therefore likely to attract and retain committed employees who see value in staying with the company as a result of the tangible rewards for their contributions. This underscores the importance of linking compensation strategies to organizational performance to maintain a dedicated and motivated workforce.

Work-life balance and employee commitment

A review of the literature exploring the relationship between work-life balance (WLB) and employee commitment presents mixed findings, reflecting the complexity of this relationship across different organizational contexts. Chang (2009) conducted a study in which he analysed 658 valid questionnaires from employees in both nonprofit and for-profit Taiwanese organizations. His mediation analysis revealed no significant relationship between employee commitment and the use of work-life balance initiatives. Specifically, Chang found that neither ongoing commitment nor normative commitment showed a connection with work-life balance in the study sample. These results challenge the assumption that work-life balance programs universally enhance employee commitment.

In contrast, Norton (2009) found a strong positive correlation between affective commitment and work-life balance. Norton's study utilized Meyer and Allen's (1997) three-component model of organizational commitment, and his findings suggest that employees who perceive a good work-life balance are more likely to experience emotional attachment to their organization.

Further studies support this view. For example, Kaiser et al. (2010) explored the impact of corporate work-life balance initiatives on emotional commitment among employees in the consulting sector. Their study, which surveyed 275 specialists, found a significant positive link between emotional commitment and work-life balance, using partial-least-squares structural equation modelling. Similarly, Sakthivel and Jayakrishnan (2012) conducted research on nurses and also found a strong positive correlation between organizational commitment and work-life balance.

These studies illustrate that while some research shows a weak or no relationship, others demonstrate a robust connection, particularly between affective commitment and work-life balance. The differences in findings may reflect variations in industry, cultural contexts, and the specific nature of work-life balance initiatives implemented by organizations.

A study of Oregon agriculture teachers' professional dedication, job happiness, and perceptions of their capacity to manage work and personal obligations was conducted by Sorensen and Mckim (2014). All Oregon school-based agricultural teachers made up the study's population, and 80 complete and valid responses were obtained. Correlations, ANOVA, and SPSS were used by the researchers for data processing and analysis. The impact of work-life balance on the organisational commitment and job satisfaction of University of Gujarat teaching personnel was investigated by Arif and Farooqi (2014). Using a stratified random sampling approach, data from a sample of 171 employees was gathered for the analysis. After data collection via a questionnaire, correlation analysis was performed on the collected information. The study's conclusions showed that among Pakistani university teachers, work-life balance and professional devotion were strongly positively correlated.

Chinomona and Dhurup (2014) investigated the impact of work-life quality on employee job satisfaction, job commitment, and tenure intention within Zimbabwe's SME sector. By analysing data from a sample of 282 individuals using structural equation modelling, they found that work-life quality positively and significantly influenced both employee commitment and job satisfaction.

The study suggests that in small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), improving the quality of the work environment can enhance employees' emotional attachment to the organization (job commitment) and their overall job satisfaction. This aligns with other studies that have emphasized the role of work-life balance and quality of work-life in improving employee outcomes, including those by Kaiser et al. (2010) and Sakthivel and Jayakrishnan (2012). These findings reinforce the notion that organizations, particularly in the SME context, can benefit from creating a supportive and enriching work environment that fosters employee well-being and satisfaction, which in turn can boost commitment and reduce turnover intentions.

Afsar (2014) conducted a study that specifically targeted academics working in Turkish State and Foundation Universities to explore the association between work-life quality and organizational commitment. A total of 570 questionnaires were gathered for the study; 228 came from foundation institutions and 342 from state universities. To examine the collected data, Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis was utilized. The study's conclusions showed that while work-life quality positively affects affective and normative commitment, it negatively affects continuing commitment among academics employed at foundational and public universities.

Given the diverse range of economic sectors and international contexts in which these studies were conducted, This study set out to determine how work-life balance affected workers' commitment.

Performance appraisal and employee commitment

DeCenzo and Robbins (2013) state that performance appraisals serve three primary functions: they give employees and the organization feedback on how they performed; they help employees close skill gaps and improve; and they act as a point of reference for future decisions. Additionally, some companies utilize performance reviews as a reference for making decisions related to promotions and compensation packages.

Giauque et al. (2010) conducted a study in Swiss SMEs to explore the impact of various HRM techniques on employee engagement. Their research examined how practices such as work-life balance initiatives, rewards, and performance evaluations influence the level of engagement among employees. They found that HRM practices promoting employee well-being and development, coupled with effective leadership and work conditions, positively influenced employee engagement and satisfaction.

Similarly, Paul and Anantharaman (2004) investigated the effect of HRM practices on organizational commitment using a sample of 370 software engineers from 34 IT companies. They found a strong correlation between performance appraisal processes and organizational commitment, indicating that how employees are evaluated can significantly affect their attachment to the organization. Further, the study also highlighted the importance of procedural justice in performance evaluations. In a related study, 198 knowledge workers responded to roughly 500 questionnaires, and the analysis demonstrated that employees' levels of commitment were influenced by the fairness of performance rating procedures. Employees who perceived the evaluation process as transparent, equitable, and just were more likely to exhibit higher commitment to the organization.

Together, these studies emphasize that HRM practices such as performance appraisals, fairness, and work-life balance initiatives play a pivotal role in shaping employee engagement and organizational commitment, particularly within technical fields and small to medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). These findings are consistent with broader literature on the importance of HRM practices in fostering organizational loyalty and productivity (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Qiao et al., 2008).

Paşaoğlu (2015) examined the relationship between HRM practices and organizational commitment in the banking sector of Eskişehir, analysing data from 304 participants. Using multiple regression analysis and correlation techniques, the study found a strong positive correlation between organizational commitment and performance reviews. This indicates that how employees are assessed through performance appraisals plays a significant role in shaping their commitment to the organization.

The findings align with research from other studies, such as Paul and Anantharaman (2004), who similarly found that performance appraisals were closely linked to organizational commitment in the IT sector. Kaiser et al. (2010) also demonstrated that fairness and transparency in performance evaluation systems can positively influence emotional commitment. Moreover, these results reflect broader trends in HRM research, suggesting that fair and transparent performance reviews can enhance employee loyalty and satisfaction, ultimately benefiting the organization by fostering a committed workforce. However, it is crucial to keep in mind that much earlier study has focused on Western societies. Because public sector organisations in Ghana have different cultures than those in Western organisations, this study, which is being undertaken there, offers a unique viewpoint on the topic.

Conceptual Framework

HRM Practices

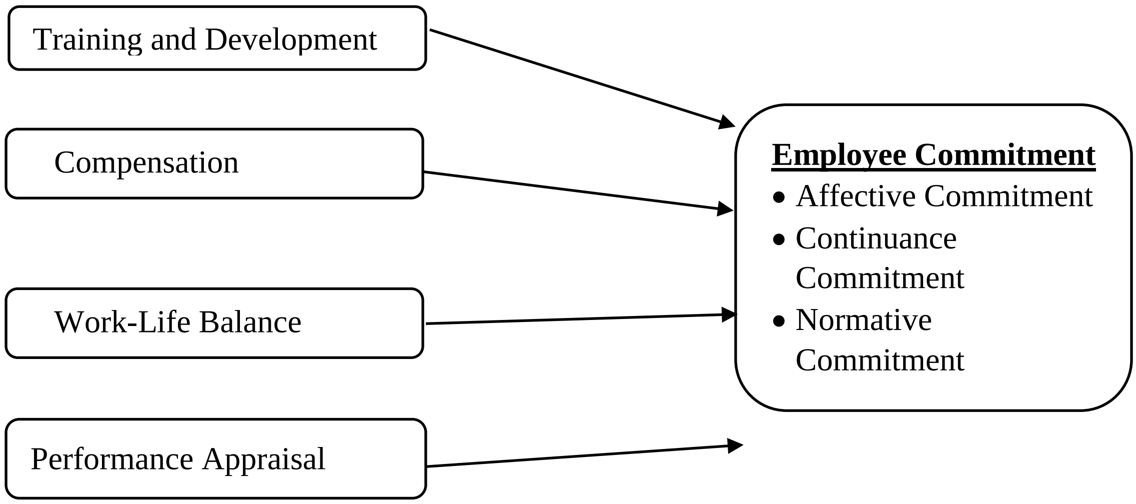

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Source: Author's Construct (2023)

The study by Meyer and Allen (1997) provides an in-depth analysis of HRM practices and their impact on organizational commitment. According to their research, HRM practices related to compensation, performance appraisal, work-life balance, and training and development significantly contribute to strengthening employees' commitment to the organization. This aligns with findings from Meyer & Smith (2000), who argue that such practices foster a sense of loyalty and attachment among employees.

Similarly, Paul and Anantharaman (2004) demonstrated a positive association between organizational commitment and HR practices, particularly in the IT sector, where performance appraisals and work-life balance were found to be crucial. This relationship is further supported by performance appraisals, which consistently show a positive correlation between HRM systems and organizational commitment.

The social exchange theory further reinforces this connection, positing that when organizations invest in HRM practices that promote fairness, support, and employee development, employees reciprocate with higher levels of commitment. This theory, rooted in social exchange theory, suggests that when employees perceive that the organization values and supports them, they are more likely to feel obligated to stay and contribute to the organization in return.

Overall, the accumulated research supports the idea that effective HRM practices create a reciprocal relationship between the employer and employees, enhancing affective, normative, and continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

This idea holds that there is a social exchange relationship between firms and their workforce, meaning that when an employee is given opportunities by the latter, they feel obligated to reciprocate the favour. The aforementioned research' conclusions recommend numerous crucial factors, such as performance evaluation, work-life balance, training, and pay (Pare & Tremblay, 2007), which together constitute the finest HRM practises.

As a result, the Upper East Region's District Assemblies were chosen for this study, which evaluated the impact of HR procedures on employee commitment. Three goals were set forth in the study: Employee commitment was the dependent variable, and HR practises were the independent variable. The three-commitment model—affective, continuation, and normative commitments—was used to gauge employee commitment. The four essential HR practises for public organisations were used to gauge HR practises.

Chapter Summary

The literature on the goals of the study was reviewed in this part. The study was supported by the SET theory. There is a social interaction between employers and employees, according to the hypothesis. Hence, the deeds of one affect the other. Literature was reviewed on the research objectives. The study conceptualised four HR practices and the first objective and concluded to make use of the Mayer and Allen (1990) commitment scale. The third objective found both negative and positive relationships between HR practices and employee commitment. These objectives were finally presented in a graphical method to aid easy comprehension.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction

The primary objective of this study is to assess the influence of HR practices on employee commitment, with a particular focus on key HR processes such as training and development, compensation, work-life balance, and performance appraisal. To achieve this, the study provides a comprehensive outline of the research methodology, including details about the study region, population, and sampling strategy. It further elaborates on the research design adopted, along with the specific instruments employed for data collection, processing, analysis, and interpretation. This framework will help in understanding how various HR practices impact employees' commitment to their organization.

Research Approach

The term "research approach" refers to a systematic plan that guides the overall research process, encompassing steps like formulating broad hypotheses, choosing specific methods for data collection, and conducting thorough analysis and interpretation (Boohen, Sheridan & Kotey, 2008; Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Clark, 2017). Research approaches are generally categorized into three major types: mixed methods, quantitative, and qualitative.

Qualitative research, in particular, aims to explore and understand the meanings that individuals or groups assign to social or human contexts. It involves formulating emerging questions, gathering data within the participants' natural settings, and conducting inductive analysis to identify patterns or overarching themes (Creswell, 2014). The researcher plays an active role in interpreting the data's meaning, and the final report is often tailored to the specific needs or requirements of the research (Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2013).

This approach is favoured by those who value inductive inquiry, prioritize personal meaning, and aim to capture the complexity of real-world situations. It is particularly useful in research that seeks to understand contextual nuances, personal experiences, and the interconnections between various social phenomena.

Quantitative research is the process of evaluating objective theories by examining the correlations between variables. This approach typically involves using instruments or tools to measure the factors under investigation, generating numerical data that can be analysed statistically (Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2013). A typical quantitative study report follows a structured format, which often includes the following sections: introduction, methods, findings, literature reviews, and discussion. In conducting quantitative research, the researcher makes assumptions about how to test hypotheses deductively, manages bias through controls, and determines the replicability and generalizability of the results (Creswell, 2014).

On the other hand, mixed methods research combines both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques, aiming to offer a more comprehensive understanding of a research topic than either approach alone. This methodology often employs unique designs and incorporates theoretical frameworks and philosophical assumptions. The underlying assumption is that integrating both approaches provides a richer and more nuanced insight into the study subject (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Clark, 2011).

In light of the aforementioned, a quantitative research methodology was used to evaluate and characterise a possible cause and effect relationship between employee commitment and HR procedures. The quantitative approach is a way of measuring that needs information in the form of means, standard deviations, and frequencies for descriptive investigations (Bougie & Sekaran, 2019). This method facilitates comparisons and statistical analysis of the data and allows an examination of the attitudes, responses, and perceptions of a large sample through the use of a series of questions. As such, it is a suitable technique for gauging attitudes (Creswell, 2002).

Quantitative analysis is integral to ensuring validity and reliability in research, as it helps enhance the objectivity of data interpretation and enables the handling of large datasets that are easier to present and analyse (Creswell, 2014; Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2013). By focusing on numerical data, quantitative research allows for clear, replicable, and generalizable results that can be effectively communicated to others.

In this study, a quantitative approach was chosen due to resource constraints, including time and budget limitations. The use of quantitative methods ensured that the data collected were valid, reliable, and free from bias, while also making it easier to manage large volumes of data (Creswell, 2014). Additionally, the study was cross-sectional, meaning it was conducted at a single point in time rather than over an extended period, as would be the case in longitudinal research (Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2013). This approach is ideal for understanding relationships between variables at a given moment, providing valuable insights for decision-making in organizations.

Research Design

Zikmund, Babin, Carr, and Griffin (2013) define research design as a comprehensive, detailed plan that outlines the techniques and steps involved in collecting and analysing data or other necessary information. This plan serves as the foundation for the entire research process, ensuring that the study's objectives are met efficiently and that the findings are valid and reliable.. This study aims to validate theoretical notions and respond to a variety of questions. Consequently, this study used an explanatory research approach. By establishing a causal relationship between variables, explanatory inquiry aims to provide an explanation for a condition or issue. Additionally, it makes it possible to do statistical tests like regression and correlation (Saunder, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Blumberg, Cooper, and Schindler (2014) assert that correlational research, another name for explanatory research, is a type of study that goes beyond descriptive research.

In addition to describing the phenomenon (situation), it also makes an effort to explain why it occurred and how theories or hypotheses are utilised to understand what might have caused the phenomenon. Consequently, the link between the dependent variable—employee commitment—and the independent variables of HR practices—performance assessment, work-life balance, remuneration, and training and development—was clarified using the explanatory design. With the help of this study methodology, data from a sizable population can be gathered affordably (Saunder et al., 2007; Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003).

Study Units

Located in the northern part of Ghana, the Upper East Region is the country's third smallest administrative region among the total of 16 regions. With this administrative framework, the region is divided into 15 MMDAs – 4 Municipalities and 11 Ordinary Assemblies, with no Metropolitan Assemblies. Two District Assemblies (Builsa South District Assembly and Bongo District Assembly) and one Municipal Assembly (Kasena Nankana Municipal Assembly were selected for the study.

The Builsa South District is one of the fifteen districts in the Upper East Region of Ghana. It was carved out from the original Builsa District on June 28, 2012, with the southern portion of the district being separated to form this new entity. The district capital is Fumbisi, located in the western part of the Upper East Region. The Builsa South District shares a border with Bongo District to the south and is situated about nine kilometres from Bolgatanga, the regional capital.

Additionally, the Kassena-Nankana Municipal District, also located in the Upper East Region, is bordered by seven districts and one neighbouring country, Burkina Faso. To the north, it borders Kassena Nankana West District, and to the south, it is bordered by West Mamprusi Municipality. It is surrounded by Talensi District, Bolgatanga Municipality, Bongo District, and Builsa South and North Districts to the east.

These geographical details reflect the interconnectedness of the districts within the Upper East Region and their significance to the regional governance and administration.

Population

The population, as defined by Blumberg, Cooper, and Schindler (2014), is the entire set of items for which we plan to draw conclusions. All personnel working in the District Assemblies made up the study's population of interest. The population of the employees was estimated that each District Assembly had 110 employees each, thus the fifteen Assemblies with a total projected workforce of 1,650 employees were considered in the study (from HR Manager in the three Assemblies). Therefore, the population for the study is 1,650 employees from the District and Municipal Assemblies. However, the accessible population were three selected District and Municipal Assemblies: Builsa South, Bongo District, and Kassena-Nankana Municipal. Thus, the accessible population was 330 employees.

A study on these three Assemblies would help achieve their mission of proper utilisation of resources to help improve standard of living. Human capital is one of the valuable resources for any organisation or society to have, thus, a study on how to manage human capital so as to increase their productivity and commitment to their organisations, which in turn increase the contribution of the organisations to the Assemblies. This in the long run improves the living standards of people in the Assemblies.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

In this study, the sample was drawn from the workforce of three selected District and Municipal Assemblies in the Upper East Region. The entire population of employees at these assemblies at the time of the survey formed the sample frame, which consisted of 330 employees. Using Krejcie and Morgan’s (1970) sample size determination table, the study selected a minimum sample size of 175 employees, representing 53.03% of the total workforce. This exceeds the recommended sample size percentage range of 10% to 30% outlined by Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), as well as the 5% to 20% range suggested by Creswell (2003) and Sekaran (2013), supporting the idea that the sample size was sufficient for generalizing the study's results.

The sample was selected using simple random sampling, which ensured that every employee had an equal chance of being included in the study. This method is particularly useful when researchers wish to generalize the findings to the entire population. As noted by Saunders et al. (2009), simple random sampling is commonly applied in research when conclusions need to be drawn from a representative sample. This technique is also cost-effective, saves time, and increases the accuracy of results compared to studying the entire population, as it is more manageable (Blumberg et al., 2014). Additionally, Henry (1990) emphasized that sampling provides greater data accuracy, as focusing on a smaller, more manageable group allows for thorough data collection, piloting, and analysis.

This approach is ideal for ensuring the reliability of the study's findings while being mindful of practical constraints such as budget and time limitations.

Data Collection Instruments

A certain data gathering technique is required by a specific research strategy. The primary instrument for gathering data was the questionnaire. The use of questionnaires was justified by the research's goal to ascertain how HR procedures affect employee commitment, and questionnaires are the most effective tool for gathering this kind of data (Creswell, 2002). The study likewise used an explanatory and quantitative research design, and Saunders et al. (2009) mentioned that the deductive technique is typically supported by the survey strategy (questionnaire). Again, the population is highly literate and was able to understand and respond positively to the questionnaires. The study adapted a 54-item questionnaire which was structured in three parts, Sections A - C; Section A, socio-demographics of respondents; Section B, shows the HR practices; Section C, employee commitment.

Reliability and Validity

The degree of internal consistency maintained by the measuring device over time is known as reliability. Hence, when the same respondents are assessed again using the same instrument, even if conducted by different researchers, the reliability of the instrument is determined by its ability to consistently yield the same results. Reliability, according to Saunders et al. (2009), is the extent to which the method or instrument used to gather data produces consistent outcomes. The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient will be used in this study to evaluate the research tool's dependability. But according to Amin (2005) and Saunders et al. (2009), validity is the tool's capacity to yield exact findings and measure the intended constructs while also giving results that are compatible with theoretical or conceptual values. To ensure the questionnaire's quality, it was reviewed by the supervisor and other knowledgeable individuals to ensure consistency and alignment with the study's objectives.

Data Collection Procedure

Following the creation of the questionnaire and its eventual supervisory approval, questionnaires were self-administered. It took a month and half for them to respond. The researcher is the HR manager in one of the District Assemblies, liaised with the HR managers in the three District Assemblies to help administer the questionnaires to the respondents. Sufficient time was allocated to all three Assemblies for data collection. The core data from the respondents was gathered using a structured questionnaire that included a variety of closed-ended questions. Each respondent was given the same questionnaire. The procedures for drop-off and pick-up were used to administer the questionnaire. In other words, the respondents were given the surveys to complete and were asked to pick them up later. Staff members who were reachable and willing to participate in the study were given the questionnaires. They were provided with a month and a half to respond to the questions, and a mutually agreed-upon date was set for collecting the completed questionnaires. Data was collected within a month and half.

The wide geographical spread of the three selected District Assemblies—Builsa South, Bongo District, and Kassena-Nankana Municipal—presented significant challenges for the researcher, both in terms of time and financial constraints. The distance between these districts required the researcher to incur additional travel expenses, which put considerable pressure on the study’s budget. Furthermore, some respondents exhibited a lack of enthusiasm or apathy toward the study, which contributed to delays in collecting completed questionnaires. To address this, the researcher had to make an average of two visits to each assembly to retrieve the surveys, which extended the timeline of the research and increased logistical costs. 179 of the 200 questionnaires that were delivered were considered comprehensive enough to be subjected to additional study. As a result, an 89% return rate was achieved.

Data Processing and Analysis

The data for the study was processed and analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques. The Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS) software, version 26.0, was employed to facilitate this process. The raw data collected was first coded and organized, allowing for a structured approach to analysis. Descriptive statistics, including graphs and tables, were used to present the findings in a clear and comprehensible manner.

This approach is consistent with standard practices in research for summarizing data and providing insights into trends or patterns (Saunders et al., 2009; Blumberg et al., 2014). These descriptive statistics were used because they are relatively simple to understand, interpret and easily communicate information to people (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). SPSS gives a more informative data view, which displays the data according to the value assigned to it (shows code data in words) even though in reality numbers (code data). Additionally, SPSS ensures more precise information by appropriately handling missing data and assigning coded reasons for the absence of data.

Multiple regression analysis (MRA) was utilized in this study to explore the relationships between the dependent variable and multiple independent variables. MRA is a statistical technique that allows researchers to examine how several independent variables interact with and influence a dependent variable (Hair et al., 2006). It is a commonly used method for investigating complex dependencies and causal relationships, which is particularly helpful when trying to understand how multiple factors contribute to an outcome.

Unlike correlation analysis, which only examines the strength and direction of relationships between two variables, regression analysis goes a step further by assuming a causal or dependency relationship between the independent and dependent variables. This makes MRA a more suitable tool for determining the magnitude and nature of these interactions and allows for a more in-depth understanding of how various factors collectively influence the outcome of interest (Hair et al., 2006; Field, 2013). The application of MRA in this study enabled the researcher to determine which HRM practices most significantly influence organizational commitment and how these variables interact to impact employee outcomes.

Regression analysis has uses beyond only determining how variables relate to one another. It makes it possible to model the relationship between variables, which in turn makes it possible to forecast which variable will perform given the values of other variables. Multiple regression analysis enables the utilization of multiple predictors, whereas simple linear regression only permits the prediction of a variable's value based on a single predictor variable.

Ethical Consideration

Ethics are the moral principles and behaviours that guide a researcher's actions when conducting study (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The researcher made sure that research was conducted to meet high ethical standards. The guidelines put in place for research to be conducted responsibly were observed in this research. Ethical issues mostly cropped up during the planning of the research, seeking access to the assembly and staff responded to the questionnaire. This means that the researcher has ensured that the research is well-designed and ethically justifiable for all concerned by research methods. The researcher sought the staff's consent and voluntary involvement. The information they provided was secured confidentially. The researcher took responsibility for the confidentiality and anonymity of the information provided and anonymity of the staff who provided the information.

Chapter Summary

The study's methodology was discussed and explained in this chapter. Due to the quantitative character of the investigation, an explanatory research design was adopted. The population under scrutiny comprised every employee in every District Assembly in the Upper East Region. In this study, the workforce of fifteen Assemblies, comprising a total of 1,650 employees, was considered for sampling. Using the sample size determination table by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), 175 respondents were randomly selected to participate in the study. A questionnaire was used as the primary data collection tool. Descriptive and inferential statistical techniques, including regression analysis, frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations, were employed to analyze the data. The data processing and analysis were conducted using SPSS v.26 software, allowing for an in-depth examination of the relationships between HRM practices and employee commitment.

This approach is consistent with established research methodologies that use random sampling and statistical analysis to generalize findings across a larger population, ensuring reliability and validity (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970; Field, 2013).

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This study explores a variety of topics, including the sociodemographic characteristics of the respondents, employee commitment, and the relationship between Human Resource Management (HRM) practices and employee commitment. The HRM practices under investigation include work-life balance, performance evaluations, training and development, and compensation. The chapter presents a detailed analysis of the relationship between these HR practices and employee commitment, with a particular focus on the regression model applied to address the study's research questions.

Regression analysis is commonly used in such studies to assess the strength and nature of relationships between variables (Hair et al., 2006). In this case, it helps determine how HR practices influence various dimensions of employee commitment, offering a clear understanding of which practices have the greatest impact. Additionally, descriptive statistics, such as frequencies and percentages, provide foundational insights into the sociodemographic profile of the sample, which is crucial for contextualizing the results (Field, 2013).

This approach allows the study to answer critical questions regarding the specific HRM practices that are most closely associated with employee commitment, ultimately offering valuable insights for organizations aiming to enhance their HR strategies and workforce retention.

Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Table 1 displays descriptive statistics about the respondents' sociodemographic attributes, including frequencies and percentages. The gender distribution of the responders was 52.5 percent female and 47.5 percent male, which is quite surprising because according to Ghana Statistical Service, more males are in the Public sector than females. The majority of employees (45.8%) and (37.4%) were in the economically active age group of (41 – 50 years and 31 – 40 years respectively) with 14.5% and 2.2% being 25 – 30 years and 51 years or more respectively.

Because most of the respondents were officers, middle and senior management staff, and such positions often demand a first degree, the majority of respondents (60.3%) had bachelor's degrees. This was followed by those who had HND/Diploma Certificate (34.6%) and those with a postgraduate degree (5.0%). Also, the respondents were asked what department they worked at. Those who responded to this open-ended question were required to identify the department they were employed with. After data analysis, it was discovered that there are seven departments at the selected District Assemblies. There were; the Community Development and Social Welfare Department, Department of Agriculture, Works Department, Environmental Health and Sanitation Department, Physical Planning Department, Human Resource Department, and Central Administration.

Thirty-seven percent (37.3%) of the participants stated that they had worked for their firms for a period of six to ten years. Those who had worked for 3 – 5 years were 32.4%, whilst 25.7% had worked for over 10 years at the Assembly. Only 4.5% had been working for less than 3 years.

Table 1: Socio-Demographics of Respondents

Demographics	Frequency	Percentage
Sex		
Male	85	47.5
Female	94	52.5
Total	179	100.0
Age		
25 - 30 years	26	14.5
31 - 40 years	67	37.4
41 - 50 years	82	45.8
Over 50 years	4	2.2
Total	179	100.0
Educational Level		
HND/Diploma	62	34.6
Degree	108	60.3
Postgraduate	9	5.0
Total	179	100.0
Department		
Agriculture	11	6.1
Works	23	12.8
Community Development and Social Welfare	37	20.7
Environmental Health and Sanitation	33	18.4
Physical Planning	33	18.4
Human Resource	27	15.1
Central Administration	15	8.4
Total	179	100.0
Number of years worked		
Less than 3 years	8	4.5
3 - 5 years	58	32.4
6 - 10 years	67	37.4
Over 10 years	46	25.7
Total	179	100.0

Source: Field Data (2023).

Reliability Analysis

The initial stage in the analytic procedure was to test the questionnaire's construct validity and reliability. The updated results of each scale's internal consistency as determined by Cronbach alpha coefficients are shown in Table 2. All of the measurement scales' composite reliability coefficients met Nunnally's (1978) requirements.

Table 2: Reliability Test

S/N	Variable	Cronbach Alpha
1	Training and Development	.824
2	Compensation	.906
3	Work-Life Balance	.772
4	Performance Appraisal	.732
5	Affective Commitment	.914
6	Continuance Commitment	.884
7	Normative Commitment	.920

Source: Field Data (2023)

HRM Practices of the Selected District Assemblies in the Upper East Region

The study's first objective is to give employee perceptions on HRM methods in four key areas: work-life balance, training and development, performance reviews, and remuneration. The HR practices put in place by the three Assemblies are listed in this section. The respondents were asked to use a Likert scale ranging from 0 (strong disagreement) to 5 (no agreement) to indicate how much they agreed with statements on the HRM techniques employed by their different businesses.

Training and development

According to Huselid (1995), HRM procedures including training employees are crucial factors in determining their commitment. evaluating low and high levels of agreement using a 6-point Likert scale, with the middle of 2.5 serving as the evaluation point. The average response ratings indicate that most respondents agreed highly with the training and development indicators in Table 3. This implies that District Assemblies provide training and development opportunities to their staff and also, give them the platform to apply the training they receive.

Also, the District Assemblies have a comprehensive policy on training and development and intermittently do a training needs assessment to assess the training needs of the staff. Additionally, the overall mean (2.87) indicates a high level of agreement with the practice of training and development in the three District Assemblies. This confirms previous studies (Armstrong, 2008) which stated that training and development a key aspects of HRM practices employed in the public sector.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics on Training and Development

Indicator	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
Employees can apply the training they receive from the organisation	3.00	1.006
Provides enough development opportunities	2.96	.911
Employees are involved in activities that promote their professional development	2.91	1.077
Provides employees with job-specific training	2.88	1.233
Training needs assessment is carried out in the organisation	2.77	.947
Have a comprehensive policy on training and development	2.68	1.130
Overall Mean	**2.87**	**.770**

Source: Field Data (2023).

Compensation

Pay and benefits, or intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, were used to gauge compensation. It might be in non-cash form as well as monetary form. Numerous studies have demonstrated the critical role that pay satisfaction plays in employee commitment (Khan, 2010; Hong, Hao, Kumar, Ramendran & Kadiresan, 2012). While most people would agree that pay levels do not by themselves ensure employee commitment, they are a necessary first step in most employee attraction and retention tactics (Chew, 2004).

Table 4 indicates that, with the exception of one indication with a mean score of 2.45, respondents generally agreed with the statements made about their organisations' compensation. It appears that compensation in the District Assemblies is not reflective of individuals' skills and efforts. However, compensation given by the organisation was competitive and revised regularly to cater for market changes. Also, the overall mean indicates the practice of compensation in the District Assemblies. This was supported by Son (2017) and Dung (2005) who purported that compensation was one of the aspects of HRM practices that promotes employee commitment.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics on Compensation

Indicator	Mean	Std. Deviation
Regularly revised to accommodate individual, organisation or market changes	2.79	1.328
Management recognises performances or input of individuals or work teams	2.73	1.453
Competitiveness of employees' total salary package	2.69	1.426
Includes allowances for extra duties and responsibilities	2.59	1.235
Reflective of individual skills and effort	2.45	1.303
Overall Mean	**2.65**	**1.153**

Source: Field Data (2023)

Work-life balance

Work-life balance initiatives acknowledge that workers have significant responsibilities to their families and other commitments outside of the workplace, and that they require some degree of schedule flexibility to meet these needs. Work-life balance can also increase an organization's appeal and retention rate, especially for workers with strong family ties who will seek out companies that support their lives outside of the office (Honeycutt & Rosen, 1997).

The majority of respondents highly agreed with the statements made on the work-life balance in their businesses, as shown in Table 5. Thus, employees in the District Assemblies had flexible working hours, could work from home, enjoyed family leaves and the volume of work assigned to them did not stress them. This was further confirmed by the overall mean (2.75) and previous studies (Greenhaus, Collins & Shaw, 2013; Tausig & Fenwick, 2011) which indicated that work-life balance is an aspect of HRM practices used by the public sector.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics on Work-life Balance

Indicator	Mean	Std. Deviation
Nursing mothers enjoy flexible working arrangements	3.21	1.101
Once I notify my supervisor, I am sometimes allowed to work from home	3.12	1.026
Family leaves are given to enjoy family matters	3.08	1.014
Allows working for longer days per week to get a day free/off	2.83	1.212
The volume of work that I have been assigned does not give me stress	2.81	1.173
Flexibility of when to start and end the day's work	2.75	1.377
Overall	**2.97**	**.790**

Source: Field Data (2023)

Performance appraisal

Giauque et al. (2010) evaluated the effects on employees' commitment of the different HRM approaches that Swiss SME enterprises employed. Their study's findings demonstrated how the respondents' degrees of commitment were impacted by the procedural justice of the employers' performance rating procedures. Thus, this objective assesses if performance appraisal is an HRM practice used in the District Assemblies.

The findings of objective one are presented in Table 6. The results indicate that respondents exhibited a high level of agreement with all the performance appraisal indicators. This suggests that a well-defined performance appraisal criterion is established, taking into account administrative and technical levels, job descriptions, and employees are informed about these criteria. Moreover, the evaluation process is conducted by experienced individuals familiar with assessing public servants across various sectors, and employees are provided with feedback on their appraisal reports. The overall mean score of 3.11 signifies a strong consensus regarding the practice of performance appraisal in the District Assemblies. These findings align with studies such as Grubb (2007) and Manoharan, Muralidharan, and Deshmukh (2009), which emphasize the growing strategic importance of performance evaluation in integrating HR operations with corporate strategy.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics on Performance Appraisal

Indicator	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
Those who carry out the evaluation process have sufficient experience in the evaluation process	3.47	.938
Employees know the criteria that are used to appraise their performance	3.20	1.081
Administrative and technical levels are taken into consideration when setting appraisal criteria	3.18	1.001
Performance appraisal criteria are established according to the job analysis and job description	3.04	.988
The employee will be informed of the result of his evaluation	2.90	1.214
Employees know how to increase their performance levels	2.88	.985
Overall Mean	**3.11**	**.679**

Source: Field Data (2023)

Employee Commitment in the Selected District Assemblies in the Upper East Region

Objective two assessed the indicators of employee commitment in the selected District Assemblies. Twelve indicators suggested by Alan and Meyer (1990) were used for this purpose. A preliminary descriptive statistic was done. A 6-point Likert scale was used, thus for the interpretation, the midpoint of 2.5 was used. Means below the midpoint were seen as low agreement and means greater than 2.5 were high levels of agreement. From Table 7, it can be seen that respondents had high agreement with the various constructs of employee commitment with the overall mean (2.860) showing the presence of employee commitment in the selected District Assemblies.

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics on Employee Commitment

	Mean	**Std. Deviation**
Affective Commitment	2.8305	1.01540
Continuance Commitment	2.9628	.92062
Normative Commitment	2.7858	1.06047
Overall Mean	2.8597	.87577

Source: Field Data (2023)

An exploratory factor analysis was performed to further examine these indicators and see if they fall into the three categories of employee commitment. The analysis's findings are shown in the tables below. A simplified representation of the R-matrix in SPSS Output 1 is given in Table 8. The Pearson correlation coefficient between each pair of questions is shown in the table. This correlation matrix is used to analyse the connection pattern. The correlation table helps assess if there are issues of multicollinearity. It assesses if any of the relationships is above 0.9; however, Table 8 shows that all relationships are well below 0.9 with a determinant of 0.000. In summary, there is no need to consider deleting any questions at this time because all of the items in Table 8 correlate quite well and none of the correlation coefficients are exceptionally large.

Table 8: Correlation Matrix

		AC1	AC2	AC3	AC4	AC5	AC6	CC1	CC2	CC3	CC4	CC5	CC6	NC1	NC2	NC3	NC4	NC5	NC6
Correlation	AC1	1.000	0.657	0.708	0.536	0.587	0.512	0.442	0.340	0.557	0.352	0.380	0.344	0.424	0.328	0.373	0.319	0.625	0.519
	AC2	0.657	1.000	0.685	0.659	0.658	0.630	0.479	0.404	0.480	0.369	0.408	0.355	0.490	0.428	0.437	0.415	0.526	0.470
	AC3	0.708	0.685	1.000	0.659	0.736	0.606	0.383	0.409	0.429	0.386	0.396	0.378	0.403	0.297	0.398	0.292	0.481	0.388
	AC4	0.536	0.659	0.659	1.000	0.710	0.630	0.383	0.407	0.453	0.419	0.395	0.429	0.465	0.432	0.475	0.349	0.470	0.479
	AC5	0.587	0.658	0.736	0.710	1.000	0.702	0.517	0.434	0.574	0.443	0.507	0.347	0.556	0.470	0.484	0.462	0.491	0.437
	AC6	0.512	0.630	0.606	0.630	0.702	1.000	0.381	0.356	0.494	0.472	0.410	0.360	0.427	0.423	0.475	0.401	0.455	0.469
	CC1	0.442	0.479	0.383	0.383	0.517	0.381	1.000	0.538	0.634	0.515	0.500	0.397	0.599	0.389	0.388	0.297	0.539	0.519
	CC2	0.340	0.404	0.409	0.407	0.434	0.356	0.538	1.000	0.521	0.526	0.517	0.616	0.426	0.435	0.425	0.301	0.281	0.392
	CC3	0.557	0.480	0.429	0.453	0.574	0.494	0.634	0.521	1.000	0.648	0.646	0.459	0.555	0.485	0.496	0.436	0.632	0.643
	CC4	0.352	0.369	0.386	0.419	0.443	0.472	0.515	0.526	0.648	1.000	0.716	0.592	0.476	0.479	0.564	0.479	0.490	0.461
	CC5	0.380	0.408	0.396	0.395	0.507	0.410	0.500	0.517	0.646	0.716	1.000	0.596	0.568	0.464	0.560	0.515	0.506	0.500
	CC6	0.344	0.355	0.378	0.429	0.347	0.360	0.397	0.616	0.459	0.592	0.596	1.000	0.471	0.569	0.422	0.464	0.479	0.562
	NC1	0.424	0.490	0.403	0.465	0.556	0.427	0.599	0.426	0.555	0.476	0.568	0.471	1.000	0.784	0.750	0.688	0.678	0.641
	NC2	0.328	0.428	0.297	0.432	0.470	0.423	0.389	0.435	0.485	0.479	0.464	0.569	0.784	1.000	0.774	0.796	0.572	0.583
	NC3	0.373	0.437	0.398	0.475	0.484	0.475	0.388	0.425	0.496	0.564	0.560	0.422	0.750	0.774	1.000	0.789	0.548	0.486
	NC4	0.319	0.415	0.292	0.349	0.462	0.401	0.297	0.301	0.436	0.479	0.515	0.464	0.688	0.796	0.789	1.000	0.535	0.492
	NC5	0.625	0.526	0.481	0.470	0.491	0.455	0.539	0.281	0.632	0.490	0.506	0.479	0.678	0.572	0.548	0.535	1.000	0.820
	NC6	0.519	0.470	0.388	0.479	0.437	0.469	0.519	0.392	0.643	0.461	0.500	0.562	0.641	0.583	0.486	0.492	0.820	1.000

a. Determinant = 1.699E-7

Source: Field Data (2023)

The findings of two crucial analytical tests are shown in Table 9: the sample adequacy measure (KMO) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity. The KMO statistic has a value between 0 and 1. Because there are many more partial correlations than there are total correlations, a correlation pattern value of 0 denotes significant diffusion and may rule out component analysis. Conversely, a score near 1 denotes a distinct and trustworthy factor structure, suggesting that the correlation patterns are fairly compact and supportive of a significant component analysis.

According to Kaiser (1974), results above 0.5 are regarded as acceptable, however values below this cutoff can indicate that more data need to be collected or that the variables that were included need to be reevaluated. These values can also be classified as excellent, exceptional, decent, or ordinary. According to Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999), scores between 0.5 and 0.7 are regarded as good, and values between 0.8 and 0.9 as great. In the present analysis, the value obtained for the data is 0.890, falling within the fantastic range. Hence, it is safe to conclude that factor analysis is appropriate for these data.

Bartlet's measure is used to evaluate the viability of the assumption that the original correlation matrix is an identity matrix. Relationships between the variables are necessary for effective component analysis; otherwise, all correlation coefficients would be 0 if the R-matrix were an identity matrix. Because of this, we believe that this test will provide significant findings at a significance level of less than 0.05. There may be correlations between the variables included in the study, according to significant test findings showing the R-matrix is not an identity matrix. This significant result ($p < 0.000$) from

Bartlet's test confirms the applicability of factor analysis for these data. Table 9 provides a visual representation of this finding.

Table 9: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.890
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2652.584
	df	153
	Sig.	.000

Source: Field Data (2023)

The communalities both before and after extraction are shown in Table 10. When using principal component analysis, communalities of 1 are used at first since it is thought that all variance is common. Following extraction, the common variance in the data structure is shown in the "Communalities" column. For instance, it may be deduced that shared or common variation accounts for 66.5% of the variance linked to issue 1. Determining the proportion of variation attributable to the underlying causes offers an additional perspective on these communalities. Certain elements are removed after extraction, which results in the loss of particular information. The communalities that emerge from the extraction process show how much of the variance in each variable can be explained by the components that were kept.

Table 10: Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
"I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation"	1.000	.665
"I feel as if this organisation's problems are my own"	1.000	.728
"I do feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation"	1.000	.778
"I do feel emotionally attached to this organisation"	1.000	.671
"I do feel like part of the family at my organisation"	1.000	.751
"The organisation has a great deal of personal meaning to me"	1.000	.631
"Staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity"	1.000	.577
"It would be hard for me to leave my organisation"	1.000	.636
"Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organisation"	1.000	.685
"I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation"	1.000	.689
"If I had not put too much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere"	1.000	.686
"Scarcity of available alternatives"	1.000	.612
"I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer"	1.000	.783
"I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now"	1.000	.844
"I feel guilty if I left my organisation now"	1.000	.786
"The organisation deserves my loyalty"	1.000	.826
"I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it"	1.000	.630
"I owe a great deal to my organisation"	1.000	.593

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Source: Field Data (2023)

The eigenvalues for each linear component (factor) before, during, and after rotation are shown in Table 11. Before extracting the data, SPSS found 18 linear components in the dataset. The eigenvalue of each factor reveals the extent to which that specific linear component accounts for the variation; moreover, SPSS presents the eigenvalue as a percentage of the overall variance explained (factor 1 explains 52.779 percent of the variance, for example). It is notable that while later components only account for a partial amount of variance, the initial few factors, particularly factor 1, explain significantly larger proportions of the total variance. Three factors are left after eliminating all components with eigenvalues larger than 1 (as shown by the scree plot in Figure 2). The columns titled "Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings" exhibit the eigenvalues linked to these components, along by an explanation of the relevant variance expressed in percentage terms.

There is a blank space in the table after the third factor because the values in this part are the same as the values before extraction, with the exception of the values pertaining to the rejected components, which are eliminated. The eigenvalues of the components following rotation are finally displayed in the table under the name “Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings.” The factor structure is optimised by rotation, and for this data, this means that the three components' relative importance is balanced. Factor 1 explained significantly more variance than the other two before rotation (52.779 percent versus 10.113 percent and 6.945 percent), however after extraction, it only explains 25.516 percent of the variance (compared to 22.224 percent, and 22.097 percent respectively).

Table 11: Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.500	52.779	52.779	9.500	52.779	52.779	4.593	25.516	25.516
2	1.820	10.113	62.892	1.820	10.113	62.892	4.000	22.224	47.739
3	1.250	6.945	69.837	1.250	6.945	69.837	3.978	22.097	69.837
4	.996	5.534	75.370						
5	.702	3.900	79.270						
6	.653	3.629	82.899						
7	.513	2.850	85.749						
8	.395	2.194	87.943						
9	.355	1.970	89.913						
10	.334	1.855	91.769						
11	.317	1.762	93.531						
12	.273	1.516	95.047						
13	.214	1.190	96.237						
14	.189	1.049	97.286						
15	.157	.871	98.157						
16	.129	.719	98.875						
17	.113	.629	99.504						
18	.089	.496	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: Field Data (2023)

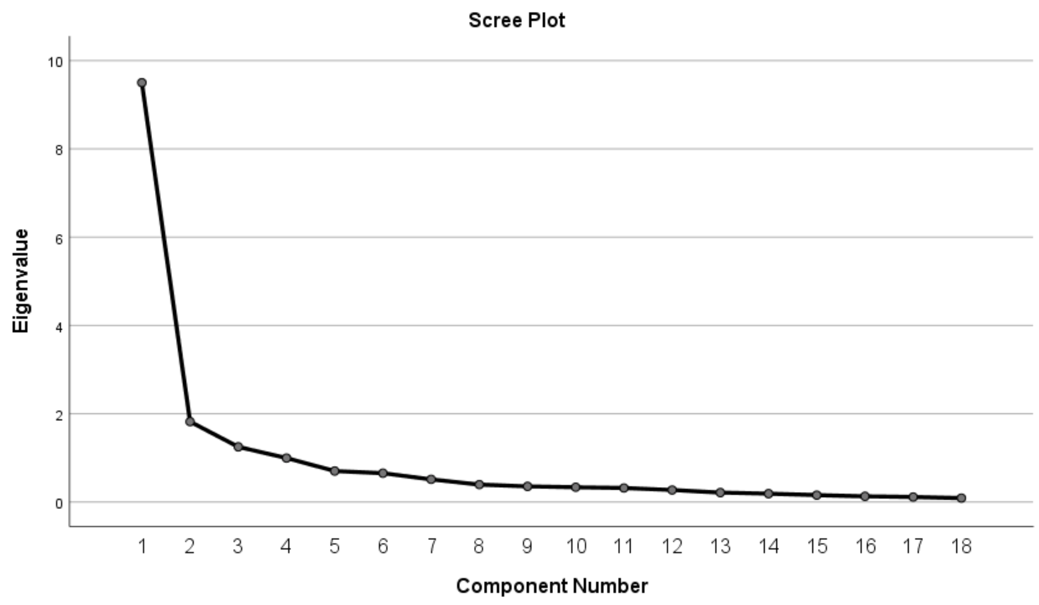

Figure 2: Scree Plot

Source: Field Data (2023)

Before rotation, Table 12 displays the component matrix, which shows the loadings of every variable onto every factor. SPSS shows all loadings by default; however, in this report, loadings less than 0.3 were suppressed, leaving numerous loadings with blank spaces. Three factors have been retrieved by SPSS thus far. Factor analysis helps researchers make a variety of judgments because it is an exploratory tool. Selecting the amount of elements to extract is one important choice. Kaiser's criteria states that four parts need to be taken out. This condition is met, nevertheless, if there are more than 250 samples and an average communality of larger than 0.6, or if there are fewer than 30 variables and communalities after extraction of greater than 0.7. The communalities are shown in Table 10, which shows that even with a sample size smaller than 250, the average communality is more than 0.6. Therefore, three factors will be extracted. The scree plot is utilized when the Kaiser's criterion is not met.

Table 12 illustrates the existence of cross-loading, wherein a single factor assesses many components. Table 12 has a very high cross-loading, with multiple indicators loading well on two or all of the components. Therefore, it is necessary to remove these cross-loadings in order to obtain more appropriate outcomes. The solution to this is to rotate the factor loading in order to redistribute it, and then analyse the rotated component matrix to identify the individual components.

Table 12: Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
"I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation"	.688	.435	
"I feel as if this organisation's problems are my own"	.730	.419	
"I do feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation"	.688	.550	
"I do feel emotionally attached to this organisation"	.714	.385	
"I do feel like part of the family at my organisation"	.775	.376	
"The organisation has a great deal of personal meaning to me"	.704	.347	
"Staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity"	.680		.339
"It would be hard for me to leave my organisation"	.629		.485
"Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organisation"	.779		
"I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation"	.717		.361
"If I had not put too much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere"	.734		.315
"Scarcity of available alternatives"	.672		.314
"I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer"	.802		
"I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now"	.747	-.427	-.320
"I feel guilty if I left my organisation now"	.758	-.338	-.313
"The organisation deserves my loyalty"	.696	-.423	-.404
"I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it"	.781		
"I owe a great deal to my organisation"	.759		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a. 3 components extracted.
Source: Field Data (2023)

SPSS Output 6 (Table 13) displays the rotated component matrix, often known as the rotated factor matrix in factor analysis. This matrix is produced after rotation and contains the factor loadings for each variable onto each factor. With the exception of being formed after rotation, this matrix contains the same data as the component matrix seen in Table 12. There are various aspects of this matrix's format to take into account. First, because the loadings for these factors were suppressed, factor loadings less than 0.3 have not been shown. Furthermore, due to the sorting request made by the software for the output, The variables are grouped according to the magnitudes of their factor loadings.

When this matrix was compared to the unrotated solution, it was found that most variables heavily loaded onto the first factor, with the other factors receiving little attention. But things have become much clearer after the factor structure rotated: there are three factors and variables that heavily load onto just one component (except one question). Interpretation is also made much simpler by suppressing loadings smaller than 0.3 and sorting variables according to loading size (you don't have to search the matrix to find meaningful loadings).

The three components that these loadings organised themselves into correspond to the three aspects of employee commitment. The notions of employee commitment that were employed in this investigation were put out by Alan and Meyer (1990). The three dimensions of employee commitment that they proposed—affective, continuance, and normative—offer organisations a framework for evaluating the levels of commitment demonstrated by their personnel.

According to Meyer and Allen (1997), an employee's emotional connection, sense of identity, and active involvement in the organisation are characteristics of affective commitment. It encompasses the sense of belonging and emotional bonds that capture an individual's affective reservoir, as well as the integration into a group through self-involvement (Kanter, 1968). It is a perspective on a company that connects or associates the employee's identity with the company (Sheldon, 1971).

Looking at the factors in Table 13, indicators under factor or component one fit under the affective commitment. The aforementioned indicators contribute to this sentiment, which can be expressed through the following statements: I have a desire to continue working for my organization until retirement; I have a strong feeling that I belong in this organisation; I perceive myself as an integral part of the organizational family; the organisation holds significant personal meaning for me; and the indicators all indicate that employees feel emotionally attached to their employer. According to studies (Hadi & Tentema, 2020), workers that have strong emotional commitment typically perform well, have great work attitudes, and want to stick with the company.

Continuity commitment is the second aspect of employee commitment. It is said that a commitment becomes ongoing when a person weighs the perceived cost of the time, money, and effort they put into the organisation before departing. According to Becker's (1960) theory, the employee will keep moving in the direction of gains rather than exceeding losses on side bets placed by and for the individual.

Based on the information presented in Table 13, it is apparent that the indicators associated with component three align with the characteristics of continuance commitment. In such cases, employees may experience challenges in leaving their organization even if they desire to do so. They might feel a sense of unfinished commitment towards the company and perceive limited alternative options for employment. When employees believe that leaving the organization would disrupt a significant portion of their lives and staying with the company becomes a necessity, their commitment to the organization becomes a continuous commitment. Thus, weighing the cost option of leaving an organisation by employees is a form of commitment to the organisation.

Normative commitment, or the feeling that an employee has to stay with an organisation, is the third degree of commitment. Employees' existence in the company as a result of social conventions or expected behaviour standards, which limit their job to compliance and formality, illustrates this element. Employee retention is thus higher if they feel that continuing to be a part of the firm is both morally and legally proper (Beck & Wilson, 2000).

Table 13 demonstrates how normative commitment to the District Assemblies by employees is influenced by the following indicators: I feel that I owe a lot to the people at my present workplace, that I don't feel obligated to stay, that the organization merits my loyalty, that I would feel horrible leaving the organization right now, and that I don't feel like I have to stay with my current employer. Thus, due to the sense of obligation, they feel and what society demands of them, they are committed to the District Assemblies.

Table 13: Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
"I do feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation"	.849		
"I feel as if this organisation's problems are my own"	.792		
"I do feel like part of the family at my organisation"	.777		
"I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation"	.760		
"I do feel emotionally attached to this organisation"	.750		
"The organisation has a great deal of personal meaning to me"	.717		
"The organisation deserves my loyalty"		.873	
"I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now"		.855	
"I feel guilty if I left my organisation now"		.804	
"I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer"	.302	.753	.352
"I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it"	.449	.546	.362
"I owe a great deal to my organisation"	.362	.503	.458
"It would be hard for me to leave my organisation"			.756
"I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation"		.309	.744
"If I had not put too much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere"		.350	.720
"Scarcity of available alternatives"		.333	.692
"Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organisation"	.390		.672
"Staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity"	.349		.652

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.
Source: Field Data (2023)

HRM Practices (Work-Life Balance, Compensation, Training and Development and Performance Appraisal Practices) on Employee Commitment

Objective three assessed the effect of the four key HR practices (work-life balance, compensation, performance appraisal and training and development) on employee commitment, this was done using a multiple regression. the variables were measured on a continuous scale. Before the test was run, the assumptions for running multiple regression were tested and the results were presented in the following tables.

Test of assumptions

One of the collinearity statistics displayed in Table 14 is the Durbin-Watson statistic. This test ascertains whether the output of a regression model exhibits autocorrelation. When the number is near 2, there is no autocorrelation; when it is near 0, there is positive autocorrelation; and when it is near 4, there is negative autocorrelation. The Durbin-Watson statistic has a range of 0 to 4. In this instance, Table 14's Durbin-Watson value is 2.229, which is rather near to 2. Therefore, it is inferred that the data does not exhibit significant autocorrelation.

The following hypothesis investigated whether the dependent variable and (a) each independent variable separately and (b) the set of independent variables collectively had a linear relationship. To assess this, a scatterplot (Figure 3) was utilized, depicting the residual values and standardized residuals. The dependent and independent variables appeared to have a reasonably linear relationship, according to the figure.

To evaluate multicollinearity, the tolerance and VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) scores in Table 14 were examined. Multicollinearity arises when there is a strong correlation among predictor variables. According to studies, Tolerance values of 0.01 or above are appreciated and VIF values below 10 are acceptable, however, VIF values below 5 for the best case when running a multiple regression. From Table 14, it can be seen that values for both tolerance and VIF were within the acceptable value and hence multicollinearity does not exist in this dataset, thus, the assumption of multicollinearity was met.

Lastly, the assumption of normality was analysed using the normal P-P plot and the histogram. Looking at Figures 4 and 5, the histogram has a normal bell-shaped sign which shows normality as well as in the normal P-P plot, all observations were clustered around the line. This shows that normality was ensured.

Table 14: Collinearity and Durbin-Waston Values

Model		Collinearity Statistics		Durbin-Watson
		Tolerance	VIF	
1	(Constant)			2.229
	TaD	.806	1.241	
	Comp	.620	1.614	
	WLB	.571	1.751	
	PA	.598	1.673	

Source: Field Data (2023)

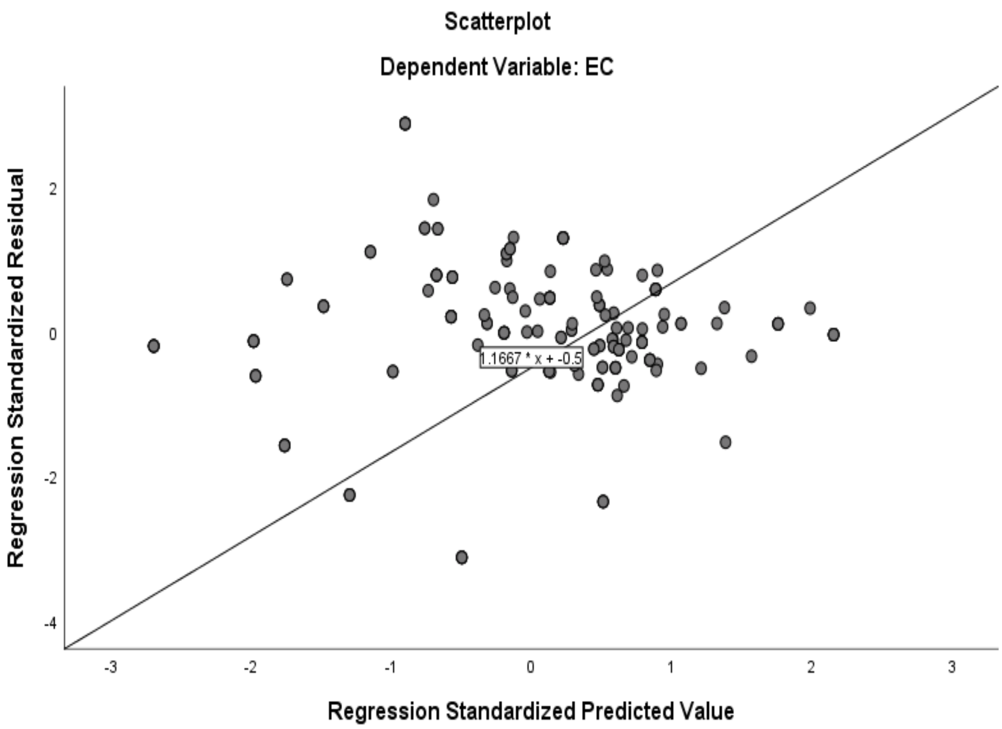

Figure 3: Scatterplot

Source: Field Data (2023)

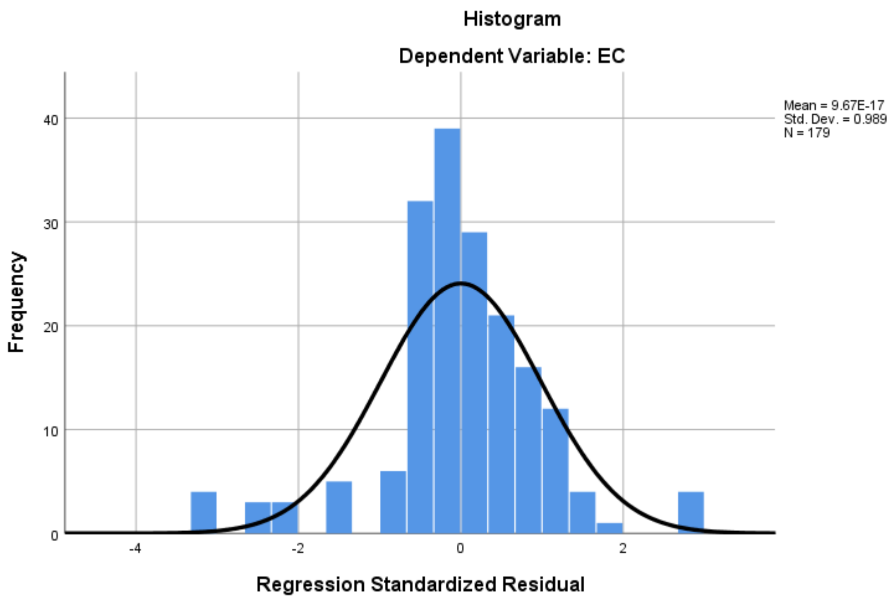

Figure 4: Histogram

Source: Field Data (2023)

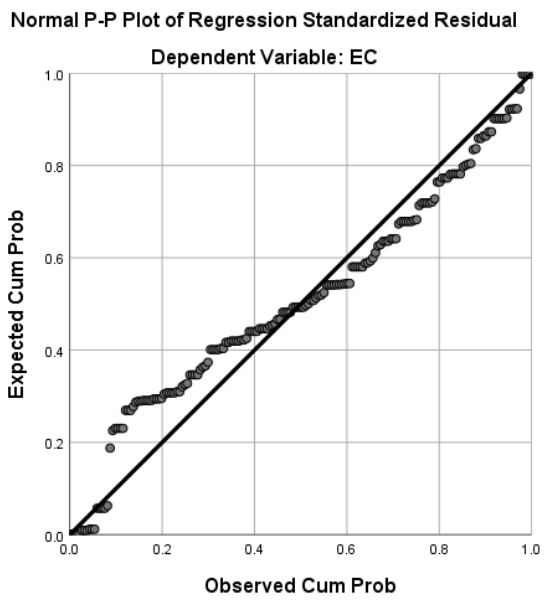

Figure 5: Normal P-P Plot
Source: Field Data (2023)

Regression results

The Model Summary table (Table 15) is the first notable table. Metrics like R, R^2, adjusted R^2, and the standard error of the estimate are used in this table to measure how well the regression model fits the data. The multiple correlation coefficient, or "R" column, shows how well the dependent variable—in this example, employee commitment—can be predicted. A prediction score of 0.736 indicates a comparatively decent level of accuracy. The columns titled "adjusted R^2" and "R Square" display the coefficient of determination, also known as R^2. This number represents the percentage of the variation of the dependent variable that can be explained by the independent variables. The independent factors listed in Table 15 account for 54.2 percent of the variability in employee commitment, according to the score of 0.542.

Table 15: Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.736[a]	.542	.531	.59947

a. Predictors: (Constant), PA, TaD, Comp, WLB
b. Dependent Variable: EC
Source: Field Data (2023)

The ANOVA table (Table 16) for the F-ratio to determines if the overall regression model makes sense given the data. The dependent variable's significant prediction by the independent variables is shown in the table with $F(4, 174) = 51.475$, $p < .000$. Stated differently, the idea behind the regression model is that it provides a good fit to the data.

Table 16: ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	73.992	4	18.498	51.475	.000[b]
	Residual	62.529	174	.359		
	Total	136.520	178			

a. Dependent Variable: EC
b. Predictors: (Constant), PA, TaD, Comp, WLB
Source: Field Data (2023)

The following table (Table 17) shows the regression coefficients, intercepts, and significance of each coefficient and intercept in the model. It is evident that the multiple regression analysis estimates the linear regression function to be:

$$EC = 0.374 - 0.100TaD + 0.280Comp + 0.319WLB + 0.348PA$$

This suggests that there is a 10% drop in employee commitment for every unit increase in training and development. However, a one-unit increase in compensation, work-life balance, and performance appraisal corresponds to a 28%, 31.9%, and 34.8% increase in employee commitment, respectively. These coefficients are unstandardized, and their significance in the model has yet to be assessed. The t-statistic and sig-value are used to determine a predictor's significant impact on the dependent variable, as shown in Table 16. For training and development, the sig-value is more than 0.05 ($p = 0.127$), suggesting that employee commitment in the chosen district assemblies is not significantly impacted by it. The other three HR practices, on the other hand, all have sig-values less than 0.05, meaning that, in the chosen district assemblies, employee engagement is significantly positively impacted by pay, work-life balance, and performance reviews.

These results align with previous research conducted by Boxall and Purcell (2011), Alkal et al. (2012), and Vratskikh, Al-Lozi, and Maqableh (2016), which imply that HRM procedures influence employee behaviour and commitment over the long term. Nevertheless, the findings of this study contradict the argument made by Paşaoğlu (2015), who highlighted the beneficial correlation between commitment, development, and training. This disparity may be attributed to variations in the sector examined and the specific working environment experienced by the respondents involved in the respective studies.

Table 17: Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Decision
1	(Constant)	.374	.252		1.487	.139	
	TaD	-.100	.065	-.088	-1.534	.127	Rejected
	Comp	.280	.050	.369	5.656	.000	Accepted
	WLB	.319	.075	.288	4.240	.000	Accepted
	PA	.348	.086	.270	4.062	.000	Accepted

a. Dependent Variable: EC

Source: Field Data (2023)

Chapter Summary

These results support previous research by Boxall and Purcell (2011), Alkal et al. (2012), and Vratskikh, Al-Lozi, and Maqableh (2016), suggesting that HRM practices have a long-term impact on employee behaviour and commitment. Nevertheless, the findings of this study contradict the argument made by Paşaoğlu (2015), who highlighted the beneficial correlation between commitment, development, and training. This disparity may be attributed to variations in the sector examined and the specific working environment experienced by the respondents involved in the respective studies.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

A summary of the research is provided in the last chapter. It also goes over the key discoveries and makes the required deductions. The implications of the results, the knowledge gained, the suggestions, and the potential paths for more research are presented.

Summary of the Study

This study's primary goal was to conduct an empirical investigation into how HRM policies affect employee commitment in a few Upper East Region districts. In order to do this, three particular objectives were established:

1. Assess the human resource management practices of District Assemblies
2. Analyse the indicators of employee commitment in District Assemblies
3. Examine the effect of the four key HRM practices (performance appraisal practices, work-life balance, compensation, and training and development) on employee commitment

An explanatory cross-sectional design was used for the study. The study's data was gathered via closed-ended questionnaires. The study's target audience is made up of several employee categories that are employed by the chosen District Assemblies in Ghana. Middle-level and upper-level employees made up the target respondents. A total of 15 District Assemblies were included in the study, and three of them were chosen for participation. The study involved sampling employees from these selected District Assemblies, with a total population of 330 employees. For the analysis, a simple random sample of 179 respondents was targeted and utilized for the survey.

Version 20.0 of SPSS, or statistical product and service solution, was used to analyse the data. The data were analysed using statistical methods that were both descriptive and inferential. In order to display the respondents' answers, standard deviation, mean, percentages, and frequencies were used. Finally, the final target was tested using multiple regression analysis.

Summary of Key Findings

The initial objective of the study focused on evaluating the HR practices implemented by the District Assemblies. The aim was to identify the predominant HRM practices employed for managing employees. The findings revealed that the selected District Assemblies utilize four primary HRM practices, namely training and development, compensation, work-life balance, and performance appraisal. However, performance appraisal was the most used HR practice by the Assemblies, followed by work life balance and compensation was the least HR practice adopted by the Assemblies. Thus, though compensation is practiced, there is more room for improvement.

The employees' degree of commitment in each of the three assemblies was assessed for the second aim. This was evaluated using three constructs: normative commitment, continuation commitment, and affirmative commitment. Through factor analysis, the study validated the employee commitment metrics utilized in the investigation. Therefore, among the staff members in the assemblies, there was affirmative commitment, continuous commitment, and normative commitment.

The final goal examined how employee commitment was impacted by the four HR strategies that the assemblies had embraced. The results of the study showed that employee commitment was not significantly impacted by training and development. Employee commitment, however, was found to be significantly and favorably impacted by pay, work-life balance, and performance reviews.

Conclusion

To identify the HRM strategies that have a notable influence on employee commitment, the study examined the effects of these practices within a sample of District Assemblies. The study's conclusions emphasize the importance of HRM practices in District Assemblies, specifically highlighting the significance of remuneration, work-life balance, training and development, and performance appraisal. Additionally, the study's second objective, which determined employee commitment metrics in other nations and regions and applied them to the respondents in the District Assemblies under investigation, came to an end.

The previous goal came to the conclusion that employee commitment in the District Assemblies is significantly impacted by remuneration. However, the highly qualified, driven, and experienced staff will not be committed based solely on pay. Although work-life balance and performance evaluation are relatively new concepts in HRM research, it is clear that they both strongly impacted employee commitment. Since it seems that employees are interested in these kinds of practises, HRM managers ought to make an effort to seek out more recent and creative approaches to employee commitment.

It was unexpected that employee commitment was not greatly impacted by training and development. It would seem sense that providing employees with the training and development they need will improve their morale and encourage them to become more committed to their company. Nevertheless, this claim is not supported by the data from this investigation. However, the adverse impact does not imply that training and development are no longer beneficial.

Thus, the study's goal of evaluating how HR procedures affected the level of employee commitment in a subset of District Assemblies was achieved. This is due to the study's conclusion that of the four important HR practices—compensation, work-life balance, performance appraisal, and training and development—training and development had no appreciable impact on employee commitment.

Recommendations

This study made a few crucial recommendations. Even though the District Assemblies were found to be using HRM practises, it is currently insufficient for organisations to rely just on these established methods. It is imperative that the District Assemblies investigate alternative modern practises, such as work-life balance, which can also have a noteworthy effect on the dedication of skilled workers. It is clear from the study that the District Assemblies are funding their staff members' training. They have trained workers, but they are not bound to them and they are free to quit the company at any time. It appears to be a widespread issue throughout the public sector, in fact. It is advised that the public sector create suitable regulations or policies to help stop similar incidents in order to address this issue.

This is due to the fact that HRM still relies heavily on training and development, and it is indisputable that having well qualified and informed personnel is essential. It is true that training and development are crucial to any organisation and that they form the foundation for implementing strategies. It is also essential for developing and enhancing employee competencies. In the current technology environment, it is also advisable for companies to determine the specific training requirements of their workforce rather than offering standardised, repeated training that might not be helpful to certain employees.

Additionally, even while pay has a big impact on an employee's life, employers should not view pay as the sole factor determining an employee's loyalty because, among other factors, workers need to be deserving of the remuneration they receive. Their production, experience, and qualifications must undoubtedly match the salary they are paid. Furthermore, it appears that District Assemblies demonstrate a degree of flexibility, leading employees to perceive work-life balance as a significant factor. Consequently, the District Assemblies have the opportunity to maintain and expand this flexibility, potentially incorporating practices such as job sharing, implementing longer work hours to accommodate a day off, or allowing occasional remote work. It would be beneficial to conduct a small-scale trial with a group of employees who do not necessarily need to be physically present to assist clients, in order to assess the effectiveness and relevance of these practices.

Finally, constant assessment of employees' performance is a key to their commitment as this keeps them abreast of their training needs and helps assess their compensation levels. Thus, it was recommended that more fun ways of appraising employees should be employed by the District Assemblies. Also, the criteria for assessment should be made known to all employees and the results of the appraisal made known to them as well.

Suggestions for Future Research

Additional investigation into this study may yield a more profound understanding of the significant topics of employee commitment and HRM procedures. It is critical to recognize the study's limitations. First off, the results cannot be utilised to establish causal relationships because the study is based on cross-sectional data. To overcome this constraint, future study in this area should try to gather data using longitudinal research approaches. Second, the data utilised in this study do not contain organizational-level metrics like financial performance. To overcome this limitation, future studies should consider gathering data at the individual, organisational, and national levels. By taking a more comprehensive approach, the limitations of the current study could be addressed.

REFERENCES

Accenture (2001). Study on e-government.

Afsar, S. T. (2014). Impact of the quality of work-life on organizational commitment: A comparative study on academicians working for state and foundation universities in Turkey. *International Journal of Social Sciences, 3*(4), 124-152.

Agarwala, T. (2003). Innovative human resource practices and organizational commitment: An empirical investigation. *International journal of human resource management*, *14*(2), 175-197.

Ahmad, S., & Schroeder, R. G. (2003). The impact of human resource management practices on operational performance: recognizing country and industry differences. *Journal of Operations Management*, *21*(1), 19-43.

Aktar, A., & Pangil, F. (2018). Mediating role of organizational commitment in the relationship between human resource management practices and employee engagement: does black box stage exist? *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, *38*(7-8), 606-636.

Al Mehrzi, N., & Singh, S. K. (2016). Competing through employee engagement: a proposed framework. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, *65*(6), 831-843.

Aladwan, K., Bhanugopan, R., & D'Netto, B. (2015). The effects of human resource management practices on employees' organisational commitment. *International journal of organizational Analysis*, *23*(3), 472-492.

Alkalha, Z., Al-Zu'bi, Z., Al-Dmour, H., Alshurideh, M., & Masa'deh, R. (2012). Investigating the effects of human resource policies on organizational performance: An empirical study on commercial banks operating in Jordan. *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences*, *51*(1), 44-64.

Allen, D. G., Shore, L. M., & Griffeth, R. W. (2003). The role of perceived organizational support and supportive human resource practices in the turnover process. *Journal of Management*, *29*(1), 99-118.

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, *63*(1), 1-18.

Amin, M., Khairuzzaman Wan Ismail, W., Zaleha Abdul Rasid, S., & Daverson Andrew Selemani, R. (2014). The impact of human resource management practices on performance: Evidence from a Public University. *The TQM Journal*, *26*(2), 125-142.

Amin, M.E. (2005). *Social Science Research: Conception Methodology and Analysis*. Makerere University Printeryafd, Kampala.

Arif, B., & Farooqi, Y. A. (2014). Impact of work-life balance on job satisfaction and organizational commitment among university teachers: A case study of University of Gujrat, Pakistan. *International journal of multidisciplinary sciences and engineering*, *5*(9), 24-29.

Armstrong, M. (2011). *Armstrong's handbook of strategic human resource management*. Kogan Page Publishers.

Armstrong-Stassen, M. (2008). Organisational practices and the post-retirement employment experience of older workers. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *18*(1), 36-53.

Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2008). Positive organizational behaviour: Engaged employees in flourishing organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, *29*(2), 147-154.

Barney, J. (1991). Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage. *Journal of Management*, *17*(1), 99-120.

Bassi, L. J., & Van Buren, M. E. (1999). Sharpening the leading edge. *Training & Development*, *53*(1), 23-32.

Beauregard, T. A., & Henry, L. C. (2009). Making the link between work-life balance practices and organizational performance. *Human resource management review*, *19*(1), 9-22.

Beck, K., & Wilson, C. (2000). Development of affective organizational commitment: A cross-sequential examination of change with tenure. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *56*(1), 114-136.

Becker, H. S. (1960). Notes on the concept of commitment. *American Journal of Sociology*, *66*(1), 32-40.

Becker, T. E. (1992). Foci and bases of commitment: Are they distinctions worth making? *Academy of Management Journal*, *35*(1), 232-244.

Bell, E., & Bryman, A. (2007). The ethics of management research: an exploratory content analysis. *British journal of management*, *18*(1), 63-77.

Bergman, M. E. (2006). The relationship between affective and normative commitment: review and research agenda. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, *27*(5), 645-663.

Blau, F. D., Ferber, M. A., & Winkler, A. E. (2010). *The Economics of Women, Men, and Work.* Sixth edition. Boston: Prentice Hall.

Blau, G., Merriman, K., Tatum, D. S., & Rudmann, S. V. (2001). Antecedents and consequences of basic versus career enrichment benefit satisfaction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, *22*(6), 669-688.

Blau, P. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. Routledge.

Blumberg, B., Cooper, D., & Schindler, P. (2014). *EBOOK: Business research methods*. McGraw Hill.

Boohene, R., Sheridan, A., & Kotey, B. (2008). Gender, personal values, strategies and small business performance: A Ghanaian case study. *Equal Opportunities International*, *27*(3), 237-257.

Boswell, W. R., & Boudreau, J. W. (2002). Separating the developmental and evaluative performance appraisal uses. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *16*, 391-412.

Bougie, R., & Sekaran, U. (2019). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. John Wiley & Sons.

Boxall P, Purcell J (2011) *Strategy and Human Resource Management*. New York and Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Bratton, J., & Gold, J. (2015). Towards critical human resource management education (CHRME): a sociological imagination approach. *Work, employment and society*, *29*(3), 496-507.

Buck, J. M., & Watson, J. L. (2002). Retaining staff employees: The relationship between human resources management strategies and organizational commitment. *Innovative higher education*, *26*, 175-193.

Chang, R. Y. J. (2009). The relationship between work and non-work support and work-life balance in Taiwan. *Thesis, Master of Social Sciences (MSocSc).* The University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand.

Chen, S. H., Wang, H. H., & Yang, K. J. (2009). Establishment and application of performance measure indicators for universities. *The TQM Journal*, *21*(3), 220-235.

Chen, Y., & Fulmer, I. S. (2018). Fine-tuning what we know about employees' experience with flexible work arrangements and their job attitudes. *Human Resource Management*, *57*(1), 381-395.

Chew, J. C. L. (2004). *The influence of human resource management practices on the retention of core employees of Australian organisations: An empirical study*. Perth: Murdoch University.

Chew, J., & Chan, C. C. (2008). Human resource practices, organizational commitment and intention to stay. *International journal of manpower*, *29*(6), 503-522.

Chinomona, R., & Dhurup, M. (2014). The influence of the quality of working life on employee job satisfaction, job commitment and tenure intention in the SME sector in Zimbabwe. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, *17*(4), 363-378.

Clarke, K. F. (2001). What businesses are doing to attract and retain employees--becoming an employer of choice. *Employee Benefits Journal*, *26*(1), 21-23.

Collins, C. J., & Clark, K. D. (2003). Strategic human resource practices, top management team social networks, and firm performance: The role of human resource practices in creating organizational competitive advantage. *Academy of Management Journal*, *46*(6), 740-751.

Cook, J., & Wall, T. (1980). New work attitude measures of trust, organizational commitment and personal need non-fulfilment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, *53*(1), 39-52.

Cooper-Hakim, A., & Viswesvaran, C. (2005). The construct of work commitment: Testing an integrative framework. *Psychological bulletin*, *131*(2), 241.

Creswell, J. (2002). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *A concise introduction to mixed methods research*. SAGE publications.

Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2017). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. New York, NY: SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. P. (2011). *Mixed methods research*. SAGE Publications.

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, *31*(6), 874-900.

Culpepper, R. A. (2000). A test of revised scales for the Meyer and Allen (1991) three-component commitment construct. *Educational and psychological measurement*, *60*(4), 604-616.

Curry, J. P., Wakefield, D. S., Price, J. L., & Mueller, C. W. (1986). On the causal ordering of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. *Academy of Management Journal*, *29*(4), 847-858.

Daft, R. L. (2020). *Organization theory & design*. Cengage learning.

De Waal, A. A. (2003). Behavioural factors important for the successful implementation and use of performance management systems. *Management Decision*, *41*(8), 688-697.

DeCenzo D. A., & Robbins S. P. (2013). *Human Resource Management* (11th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Denisi, A. S., & Griffin, R. W. (2001). *Human Resource Management*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

DeNisi, A. S., & Pritchard, R. D. (2006). Performance appraisal, performance management and improving individual performance: A motivational framework. *Management and organization review*, *2*(2), 253-277.

Dockel, A., Basson, J. S., & Coetzee, M. (2006). The effect of retention factors on organisational commitment: An investigation of high technology employees. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *4*(2), 20-28.

Dung, N. V., Thang, N. N., Janssen, F., & Hine, D. (2017). EMPLOYMENT CONTRACT AND SMES' INNOVATION IN DEVELOPING AND TRANSITION ECONOMIES: THE CASE OF VIETNAM. *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, *22*(04), 1750027.

Dung, T.K. (2005). *Human resource management*. Ho Chi Minh City: Statistical Publisher.

Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I. L., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(3), 565.

Farrell, D., & Rusbult, C. E. (1981). Exchange variables as predictors of job satisfaction, job commitment, and turnover: The impact of rewards, costs, alternatives, and investments. *Organizational behavior and human performance*, *28*(1), 78-95.

Feldman, D. C., & Ng, T. W. (2007). Careers: Mobility, embeddedness, and success. *Journal of Management*, *33*(3), 350-377.

Fetters, M. D., Curry, L. A., & Creswell, J. W. (2013). Achieving integration in mixed methods designs—principles and practices. *Health services research*, *48*(6pt2), 2134-2156.

Fiorito, J., Bozeman, D. P., Young, A., & Meurs, J. A. (2007). Organizational commitment, human resource practices, and organizational characteristics. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 186-207.

Fischer, R., & Mansell, A. (2009). Commitment across cultures: A meta-analytical approach. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *40*, 1339-1358.

Fletcher, C. (2001). Performance appraisal and management: The developing research agenda. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *74*(4), 473-487.

Flippo, E. B. (1984). *Principles of personnel management*. McGraw-Hill Book Co.

Fong, C. Y., Ooi, K. B., Tan, B. I., Lee, V. H., & Yee-Loong Chong, A. (2011). HRM practices and knowledge sharing: an empirical study. *international Journal of Manpower*, *32*(5/6), 704-723.

Gellatly, I. R., Hunter, K. H., Currie, L. G., & Irving, P. G. (2009). HRM practices and organizational commitment profiles. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *20*(4), 869-884.

Giauque, D., Resenterra, F., & Siggen, M. (2010). The relationship between HRM practices and organizational commitment of knowledge workers. Facts obtained from Swiss SMEs. *Human Resource Development International*, *13*(2), 185-205.

Goldstein, I. L. (1991). Training in work organizations. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 507–619). Consulting Psychologists Press.

Gómez-Mejía, L., Balkin, D., & Cardy, R. (1995). *Managing Human Resources*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Gouldner, H. P. (1960). Dimensions of organizational commitment. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 468-490.

Greenhaus, J. H., Collins, K. M., & Shaw, J. D. (2003). The relation between work–family balance and quality of life. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *63*(3), 510-531.

Grubb, T. (2007). Performance appraisal reappraised: It's not all positive. *Journal of Human Resources Education*, *1*(1).

Gruman, J. A., & Saks, A. M. (2011). Performance management and employee engagement. *Human resource management review*, *21*(2), 123-136.

Guest, D. E. (1999). Human resource management--the workers' verdict. *Human resource management journal*, *9*(3), 5.

Haines III, V. Y., Jalette, P., & Larose, K. (2010). The influence of human resource management practices on employee voluntary turnover rates in the Canadian non-governmental sector. *ILR Review*, *63*(2), 228-246.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hariandja, M. T. E. (2002). *Human Resource Management*. Jakarta: Grasindo

Henry, G. T. (1990). *Practical sampling* (Vol. 21). Sage.

Homans, G. C. (1961). The humanities and the social sciences. *American Behavioral Scientist*, *4*(8), 3-6.

Honeycutt, T. L., & Rosen, B. (1997). Family friendly human resource policies, salary levels, and salient identity as predictors of organizational attraction. *Journal of vocational behavior*, *50*(2), 271-290.

Hong, E. N. C., Hao, L. Z., Kumar, R., Ramendran, C., & Kadiresan, V. (2012). An effectiveness of human resource management practices on employee retention in institute of higher learning: A regression analysis. *International journal of business research and management*, *3*(2), 60-79.

Hughes, J. C., & Rog, E. (2008). Talent management: A strategy for improving employee recruitment, retention and engagement within hospitality organizations. *International journal of contemporary hospitality management*, *20*(7), 743-757.

Huselid, M. A. (1995). The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity, and corporate financial performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *38*(3), 635-672.

Hutcheson, G. D., & Sofroniou, N. (1999). The multivariate social scientist: Introductory statistics using generalized linear models.

Hutchings, K., De Cieri, H., & Shea, T. (2011). Employee attraction and retention in the Australian resources sector. *Journal of Industrial Relations*, *53*(1), 83-101.

Huxley, L., & Hall, V. (1996). Human resource management in higher education: Idiom and incidence. *Research in Post-Compulsory Education*, *1*(1), 77-85.

Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (2002). Managing individual performance: A strategic perspective. *Psychological management of individual performance*, 372-390.

Jamrog, J. J. (2002). Current practices: The coming decade of the employee. *People and Strategy*, *25*(3), 5.

Jaros, S. (2007). Meyer and Allen model of organizational commitment: Measurement issues. *The Icfai Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *6*(4), 7-25.

Jaros, S. J. (1997). An assessment of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment and turnover intentions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *51*(3), 319-337.

Jaros, S. J., Jermier, J. M., Koehler, J. W., & Sincich, T. (1993). Effects of continuance, affective, and moral commitment on the withdrawal process: An evaluation of eight structural equation models. *Academy of Management Journal*, *36*(5), 951-995.

Jennings, J. E., & McDougald, M. S. (2007). Work-family interface experiences and coping strategies: Implications for entrepreneurship research and practice. *Academy of Management Review*, *32*(3), 747-760.

Jimoh, O., & Danlami, A. S. (2011). Strategic human resource management and organizational performance in the Nigerian manufacturing sector: An empirical investigation. *International Journal of Business and Management*, *6*(9), 46.

Johnsrud, L. K., Heck, R. H., & Rosser, V. J. (2000). Morale matters: Midlevel administrators and their intent to leave. *The Journal of Higher Education*, *71*(1), 34-59.

Kaiser, S., Ringlstetter, M., Reindl, C. U., & Stolz, M. L. (2010). The effect of work-life balance initiatives on employee commitment: An empirical study in the management consulting industry. *German Journal of Human Resource Management, 24*(3), 231-265.

Kalliath, T., & Brough, P. (2008). Work–life balance: A review of the meaning of the balance construct. *Journal of management & organization*, *14*(3), 323-327.

Kanter, R. M. (1968). Commitment and social organization: A study of commitment mechanisms in utopian communities. *American Sociological Review*, 499-517.

Khan, M. (2010). Political settlements and the governance of growth-enhancing institutions.

Khera, S. N. (2010). Human Resource Practices and their Impact on Employee Productivity: A Perceptual Analysis of Private, Public and Foreign Employees in India. *DSM Business Review, 2*(1).

Kinicki, A. J., Carson, K. P., & Bohlander, G. W. (1992). Relationship between an organization's actual human resource efforts and employee attitudes. *Group & Organization Management*, *17*(2), 135-152.

Klein, H. J., Molloy, J. C., & Brinsfield, C. T. (2012). Reconceptualizing workplace commitment to redress a stretched construct: Revisiting assumptions and removing confounds. *Academy of Management Review*, *37*(1), 130-151.

Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and psychological measurement, 30*(3), 607-610.

Kwon, D. B. (2009, October). Human capital and its measurement. In *The 3rd OECD World Forum on "statistics, knowledge and policy" charting progress, building visions, improving life* (pp. 27-30).

Levy, P. E., & Williams, J. R. (2004). The social context of performance appraisal: A review and framework for the future. *Journal of Management, 30*(6), 881-905.

Lew, T. (2009). The relationships between perceived organizational support, felt obligation, affective organizational commitment and turnover intention of academics working with private higher educational institutions in Malaysia. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, *9*(1), 72-87.

Lew, T. (2010). Affective organizational commitment and turnover intention of academics in Malaysia. In *2010 International Conference on Business and Economics Research Proceedings* (pp. 110-114). Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers, Inc..

Luna-Arocas, R., & Camps, J. (2007). A model of high-performance work practices and turnover intentions. *Personnel review*, *37*(1), 26-46.

Magazine, S. L., Williams, L. J., & Williams, M. L. (1996). A confirmatory factor analysis examination of reverse coding effects in Meyer and Allen's Affective and Continuance Commitment Scales. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *56*(2), 241-250.

Malik, M. E., Nawab, S., Naeem, B., & Danish, R. Q. (2010). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment of university teachers in public sector of Pakistan. *International journal of business and management*, *5*(6), 17.

Manoharan, T. R., Muralidharan, C., & Deshmukh, S. G. (2009). Employee Performance Appraisal Using Data Envelopment Analysis: A Case Study. *Research & Practice in Human Resource Management*, *17*(1).

Mathis, R. L., & Jackson, J. H. (2004). *Human resource management* (10th ed.). Singapore: Thomson Learning.

McElroy, J. C. (2001). Managing workplace commitment by putting people first. *Human resource management review*, *11*(3), 327-335.

Md-Sidin, S., Sambasivan, M., & Ismail, I. (2010). Relationship between work-family conflict and quality of life: An investigation into the role of social support. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *25*(1), 58-81.

Messmer, M. (2000). Orientation programs can be key to employee retention. *Strategic Finance*, *81*(8), 12-12.

Meyer, J. P. (Ed.). (2016). *Handbook of employee commitment*. Edward Elgar Publishing.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human resource management review*, *1*(1), 61-89.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Meyer, J. P., & Herscovitch, L. (2001). Commitment in the workplace: Toward a general model. *Human resource management review*, *11*(3), 299-326.

Meyer, J. P., & Smith, C. A. (2000). HRM practices and organizational commitment: Test of a mediation model. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences/Revue canadienne des sciences de l'administration*, *17*(4), 319-331.

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *78*(4), 538.

Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *61*(1), 20-52.

Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Jackson, T. A., McInnis, K. J., Maltin, E. R., & Sheppard, L. (2012). Affective, normative, and continuance commitment levels across cultures: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *80*(2), 225-245.

Milkovich, G. T., & Newman, J.M. (2005). *Compensation* (8th ed.). McGraw-Hill.

Morrison, E. W. (1996). Organizational citizenship behaviour as a critical link between HRM practices and service quality. *Human resource management*, *35*(4), 493-512.

Morrow, P. C. (1983). Concept redundancy in organizational research: The case of work commitment. *Academy of Management Review*, *8*(3), 486-500.

Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. W., & Steers, R. M. (2013). *Employee—organization linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover*. New York: Academic Press.

Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *14*(2), 224-247.

Mugenda, O. M., & Mugenda A., G. (2003). *Research methods – quantitative and qualitative approaches*. Nairobi: Applied Research and Training Services Press.

Muo, I. K. (2007). Improving the Effectiveness of Performance Appraisal as an Evaluative Instrument in the Workplace. *Nigerian Journal of Labour Law and Industrial Relations*, *1*(3), 133-146

Nazir, O., & Islam, J. U. (2017). Enhancing organizational commitment and employee performance through employee engagement: An empirical check. *South Asian Journal of Business Studies*, *6*(1), 98-114.

Noe, R. A. (1999). *Employee Training and Development*. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

Norton, J. (2009). Employee organisational commitment and work-life balance in Australia. *The Australian Journal of Business and Informatics*, *4*(1), 1–9.

Oakland, S., & Oakland, J. S. (2001). Current people management activities in world-class organizations. *Total Quality Management*, *12*(6), 773-788.

Ogilvie, J. R. (1986). The role of human resource management practices in predicting organizational commitment. *Group & Organization Studies*, *11*(4), 335-359.

Onoh, A.N. (2009). *The dynamics of organizational behaviour*. Enugu: Guzon Ventures.

O'Reilly, C. A., & Chatman, J. (1986). Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behaviour. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *71*(3), 492.

Oshagbemi, T. (2000). Gender differences in the job satisfaction of university teachers. *Women in Management Review*, *15*(7), 331-343.

Paré, G., & Tremblay, M. (2007). The influence of high-involvement human resources practices, procedural justice, organizational commitment, and citizenship behaviours on information technology professionals' turnover intentions. *Group & organization management*, *32*(3), 326-357.

Paşaoğlu, D. (2015). Analysis of the relationship between human resources management practices and organizational commitment from a strategic perspective: Findings from the banking industry. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *207*, 315-324.

Paul, A. K., & Anantharaman, R. N. (2004). Influence of HRM practices on organizational commitment: A study among software professionals in India. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *15*(1), 77-88.

Pfeffer, J. (1998). *The human equation: Building profits by putting people first*. Harvard Business Press.

Potgieter, S. C., & Barnard, A. (2010). The construction of work-life balance: the experience of black employees in a call-centre environment. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *36*(1), 1-8.

Qiao, K., Luan, X., & Wang, X. (2008, October). HRM practices and organizational commitment: A study about IT employees from Chinese private-owned enterprises. In *2008 4th International Conference on Wireless Communications, Networking and Mobile Computing* (pp. 1-6). IEEE.

Quansah, N. (2013). *The impact of HRM practices on organisational performance: the case study of some selected rural banks* (Doctoral dissertation).

Rahman, M., Akhter, R., Chowdhury, S., Islam, S., & Haque, R. (2013). HRM practices and it impact on employee satisfaction: a case of pharmaceutical companies in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Research in Business and Social Science (2147-4478)*, *2*(3), 62-67.

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: a review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(4), 698.

Robbins, S. P., & Coulter, M. (2013). *Management* (11th ed.). England, UK: Pearson Education Limited.

Rogers, E. W. (2001). A theoretical look at firm performance in high-tech organizations: What does existing theory tell us? *The Journal of High Technology Management Research*, *12*(1), 39-61.

Rosser, V. J. (2004). Faculty members' intentions to leave: A national study on their work-life and satisfaction. *Research in higher education*, *45*, 285-309.

Rowley, J. (1996). Motivation and academic staff in higher education. *Quality assurance in education*, *4*(3), 11-16.

Sakthivel, D. & Jayakrishnan, J. (2012). Work-Life Balance and Organizational Commitment for Nurses. *Asian Journal of Business and Management Sciences, 2* (5), 01-06.

Saleem, D. I., & Khurshid, A. (2014). Do human resource practices affect employee performance? *Pakistan business review, 15(4): 669-688*

Sastrohadiwiryo, B. (2005). *Indonesian Workforce Management Approach*. Jakarta: PT. Literary Earth.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2007). Research methods. *Business Students 4th edition Pearson Education Limited, England*, *6*(3), 1-268.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research methods for business students*. Essex, Financial Times/Prentice Hall.

Sekaran, U. (2013). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. 4 ed., New Jersey: John Wiley and Sons.

Shahzad, K., Bashir, S., & Ramay, M. I. (2008). Impact of HR practices on perceived performance of university teachers in Pakistan. *International review of business research papers*, *4*(2), 302-315.

Shaw, J. D., Dineen, B. R., Fang, R., & Vellella, R. F. (2009). Employee-organization exchange relationships, HRM practices, and quit rates of good and poor performers. *Academy of Management Journal*, *52*(5), 1016-1033.

Sheldon, M. E. (1971). Investments and involvements as mechanisms producing commitment to the organization. *Administrative science quarterly*, 143-150.

Smerek, R. E., & Peterson, M. (2007). Examining Herzberg's theory: Improving job satisfaction among non-academic employees at a university. *Research in higher education*, *48*, 229-250.

Snape, E., & Redman, T. (2010). HRM practices, organizational citizenship behaviour, and performance: A multi-level analysis. *Journal of Management Studies*, *47*(7), 1219-1247.

Solinger, O. N., Van Olffen, W., & Roe, R. A. (2008). Beyond the three-component model of organizational commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*(1), 70.

Son, T.N. (2017). Impact of human resource management activities on intention to quit through public service motivation and job satisfaction of part-time officials in commune, Hoc Mon district. Master thesis, *University of Economics*, Ho Chi Minh City.

Sorensen, T. J., & McKim, A. J. (2014). Perceived Work-Life Balance Ability, Job Satisfaction, and Professional Commitment among Agriculture Teachers. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, *55*(4), 116-132.

Storey, J. & Sisson, K. (1993). *Managing Human Resources and Industrial Relations*. Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

Tausig, M., & Fenwick, R. (2011). *Work and mental health in social context* (pp. 161-183). Springer New York.

Vratskikh, I., Masadeh, R., Al-Lozi, M., & Maqableh, M. (2016). The impact of emotional intelligence on job performance via the mediating role of job satisfaction. *International Journal of Business and Management*, *11*(2), 1-69.

Wall, T. D., & Wood, S. J. (2005). The romance of human resource management and business performance, and the case for big science. Human Relations, 58(4), 429-462

Wasti, S. A., Peterson, M. F., Breitsohl, H., Cohen, A., Jørgensen, F., de Aguiar Rodrigues, A. C., ... & Xu, X. (2016). Location, location, location: Contextualizing workplace commitment. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *37*(4), 613-632.

Wentland, D. (2003). The strategic training of employees model: Balancing organizational constraints and training content. *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, *68*(1), 56.

Whitener, E. M. (2001). Do "high commitment" human resource practices affect employee commitment? A cross-level analysis using hierarchical linear modelling. *Journal of Management*, *27*(5), 515-535.

Wiener, Y. (1982). Commitment in organizations: A normative view. *Academy of Management Review*, *7*(3), 418-428.

Wiens-Tuers, B. A., & Hill, E. T. (2002). Do they bother? Employer training of temporary workers. *Review of Social Economy*, *60*(4), 543-566.

Wilk, S. L., & Cappelli, P. (2003). Understanding the determinants of employer use of selection methods. *Personnel Psychology*, *56*(1), 103-124.

Wilkins, S., Butt, M. M., & Annabi, C. A. (2017). The effects of employee commitment in transnational higher education: The case of international branch campuses. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *21*(4), 295-314.

Wright, P. M., & Snell, S. A. (1998). Toward a unifying framework for exploring fit and flexibility in strategic human resource management. *Academy of Management Review*, *23*(4), 756-772.

Zatzick, C. D., & Iverson, R. D. (2006). High-involvement management and workforce reduction: competitive advantage or disadvantage? *Academy of Management Journal*, *49*(5), 999-1015.

Zikmund, W. G., Babin, B. J., Carr, J. C., & Griffin, M. (2013). *Business research methods*. Cengage learning.

APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

This study is being conducted to assess the effect of HRM Practices on Employee Commitment in Some Selected Districts in the Upper East Region. The study is for academic purposes only. Your candid opinion on these items will make the study a success. Thank you.

Please provide the information requested below

SECTION A: GENERAL INFORMATION

1. What is your gender? Male [ ] Female [ ]
2. What age bracket do you belong to? 25 – 30 years [ ]
   31 – 40 years [ ] 41 – 50 years [ ] Over 50 years [ ]
3. Highest level of education attained (Tick where applicable)
   Senior High School [ ] HND/Diploma [ ] Degree [ ]
   Post-graduate [ ] Other [ ]
4. Which department do you work_______________________________?
5. How long have you worked in the public service? Less than 3 years [ ]
   3 – 5 years [ ] 6 – 10 years [ ] Over 10 years [ ]

SECTION B: HRM PRACTICES

6. State the extent to which the following statements regarding training and development are true on a scale of 0-5. **Where 0 = no agreement, and 5 = highest agreement**

S/N	**Indicator**	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
TaD	**Training and Development**						
TaD1	The organization provides employees with job-specific training						
TaD2	Employees can apply the training they receive from the organization						
TaD3	The organization provides enough development opportunities						
TaD4	Employees are involved in activities that promote their professional development						
TaD5	My organisation has a comprehensive policy on training and development						
TaD6	Training needs assessment is carried out in the organisation						

C	**Compensation**						
C1	Compensations given are reflective of individual skills and effort						
C2	Compensations are reflective of individual skills and effort						
C3	Compensations include allowances for extra duties and responsibilities						
C4	Compensations are regularly revised to accommodate individual, organisational or market changes						
C5	Management recognizes the performance or input of individuals or work teams						
C6	Competitiveness of employees total salary package						
WLB	**Work-Life Balance**						
WLB1	The organization offers flexibility in when to start and end the day's work						
WLB2	The organization allows working for longer days per week to get a day free/off						
WLB3	Nursing mothers enjoy flexible working arrangements to take care of their newborn babies						
WLB4	Family leaves are given to attend to family matters						
WLB5	The volume of work that I have been assigned does not give me stress.						
WLB6	Once I notify my supervisor, I am sometimes allowed to work from home.						
PA	**Performance Appraisal**						
PA1	Performance appraisal criteria are established according to the job analysis and job description						
PA2	The various administrative and technical levels are taken into consideration when setting appraisal criteria.						
PA3	Employees know the criteria that are used to appraise their performance.						
PA4	Those who carry out the evaluation process have sufficient experience in the evaluation process.						
PA5	The employee will be informed of the result of his evaluation.						
PA6	Employees know how to increase their performance levels.						

SECTION C: EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT

7. State the extent to which the following statements regarding training and development are true on a scale of 0-5. **Where 0 = no agreement, and 5 = highest agreement**

S/N	Indicator	0	1	2	3	4	5
AC	**Affective Commitment**						
AC1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.						
AC2	I feel as if this organization's problems are my own.						
AC3	I do feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.						
AC4	I do feel emotionally attached to this organization.						
AC5	I do feel like part of the family at my organization.						
AC6	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.						
CC	**Continuance Commitment**						
CC1	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.						
CC2	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.						
CC3	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.						
CC4	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.						
CC5	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.						
CC6	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives						
NC	**Normative Commitment**						
NC1	I do feel any obligation to remain with my current employer						
NC2	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.						
NC3	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.						
NC4	This organization deserves my loyalty.						
NC5	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.						
NC6	I owe a great deal to my organization						

THANK YOU

Appendix B

Table 3.1

Table for Determining Sample Size of a Known Population

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	100	80	280	162	800	260	2800	338
15	14	110	86	290	165	850	265	3000	341
20	19	120	92	300	169	900	269	3500	346
25	24	130	97	320	175	950	274	4000	351
30	28	140	103	340	181	1000	278	4500	354
35	32	150	108	360	186	1100	285	5000	357
40	36	160	113	380	191	1200	291	6000	361
45	40	170	118	400	196	1300	297	7000	364
50	44	180	123	420	201	1400	302	8000	367
55	48	190	127	440	205	1500	306	9000	368
60	52	200	132	460	210	1600	310	10000	370
65	56	210	136	480	214	1700	313	15000	375
70	59	220	140	500	217	1800	317	20000	377
75	63	230	144	550	226	1900	320	30000	379
80	66	240	148	600	234	2000	322	40000	380
85	70	250	152	650	242	2200	327	50000	381
90	73	260	155	700	248	2400	331	75000	382
95	76	270	159	750	254	2600	335	1000000	384

Note: N is Population Size; S is Sample Size *Source: Krejcie & Morgan, 1970*