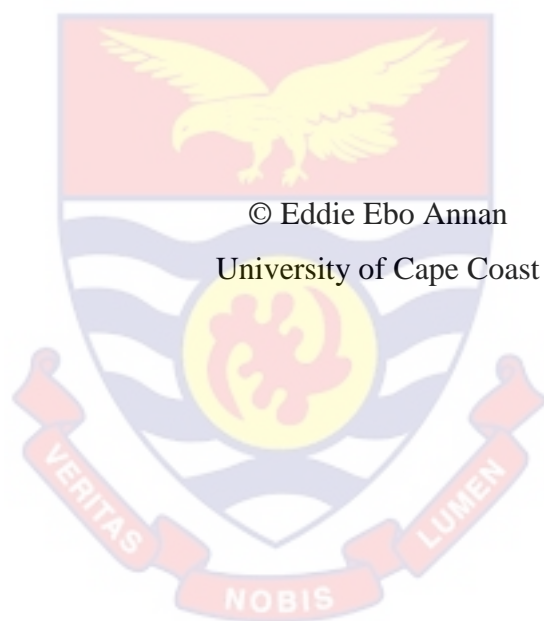UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

EFFECT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES ON

EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT IN A FAITH-BASED NON-

GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATION IN THE GREATER ACCRA

REGION, GHANA

EDDIE EBO ANNAN

2023

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GHANA

BY

EDDIE EBO ANNAN

Thesis submitted to the Department of Agricultural Economics and Extension

of College of Agriculture and Natural Sciences, University of Cape Coast, in

partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy

Degree in NGO Studies and Community Development

JUNE 2023

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis 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: ……………………………………………………………………………

Supervisors' Declaration

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

Principal Supervisor's Signature: …………………………Date……………...

Name:…………………………………………………………………………….

Co-Supervisor's Signature: ………………………… ……Date……………...

Name:…………………………………………………………………………….

ABSTRACT

This study explores the effect of human resource management (HRM) practices on employee commitment in a faith-based NGO in Ghana's Greater Accra region. Using a quantitative, cross-sectional design, data was collected from 341 employees, including 174 administrative staff, 50 managers, and 117 ministers, via self-administered questionnaires. Descriptive statistics, t-tests, ANOVA, correlation, and multiple regression analyses were employed.

The findings indicate that age, education level, years of employment, and job status significantly influence perceptions of HRM practices implementation. Marital status, years of employment, and job status were significantly influenced employee commitment. Notably, education level negatively influenced commitment, while hiring, remuneration, performance appraisal, and training positively correlated with commitment. Education level also affected the implementation of remuneration and training, whereas employment duration influenced performance appraisal and training practices.

Regression analysis revealed six predictors of employee commitment, collectively explaining 33.5% of its variance, with hiring practices as the strongest determinant. Ministers exhibited the highest levels of commitment.

The study concludes that HRM practices significantly drive employee commitment, emphasizing the roles of hiring, remuneration, and performance appraisal. It recommends that faith-based NGOs strengthen their HR departments with qualified personnel to ensure effective policy implementation and administration, thereby enhancing overall employee commitment.

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To the memory of the Late Professor Joseph Adjei Kwarteng, my Lecturer and first Principal Supervisor, I am grateful for all the times we shared together. You are resting from your labor and your testimony leaves on.

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DEDICATION

To my wife Stella Eunice,

And our children,

Manuella Nana Adwoa & Edward Nanabayin

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

FBO   Faith-based organizations

HRM   Human Resource Management

NGO   Non-Governmental Organization

SET   Social Exchange Theory

T&D   Training and Development

VIF   Variance Inflation Factor

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Human Resource Management (HRM) is widely acknowledged as a pivotal organizational resource. It focuses on policies, practices, and systems that influence employee behaviors, attitudes, and performance (Armstrong, 2006). HRM extends beyond the traditional scope of personnel management, adopting a more strategic and integrative role in aligning employee potential with organizational goals.

Storey (2001) defines HRM as a distinct employment management model aimed at achieving competitive advantage through competent and motivated employees. Similarly, Beard et al. (2000) describe HRM practices as the structured rules and principles that guide workforce management within an organization. Dittmer (2002) emphasizes the strategic dimension of HRM, highlighting its role in recruiting, developing, and retaining top talent to meet organizational objectives. Delery and Doty (1996) describe HRM as a structured set of practices aimed at aligning an organization's employees with its strategic goals and objectives. HRM practices are thus recognized as essential components in fostering organizational resilience and ensuring operational efficiency.

The Evolution of HRM Practices

The idea of HRM has developed significantly since its origins in the mid-20th century, shifting from a focus on administrative personnel tasks to a more strategic organizational role. Early HRM models emphasized compliance and transactional functions, whereas modern approaches prioritize

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employee engagement, performance, and alignment with organizational strategy.

Wright and McMahan (1992) describe HRM as a series of practices, including recruitment, performance appraisal, training, and compensation, which collectively contribute to organizational effectiveness. Research by Daley and Vasu (2005) and Ahmad and Schroeder (2003) demonstrates that these practices significantly enhance productivity and organizational efficiency. Consequently, integrating HRM into a broader organizational strategy, as advocated by Barney (1995), has become a critical focus for business leaders.

The Role of Commitment in Human Resource Management

Employee commitment has emerged as a cornerstone of HRM. Traditional views of commitment have been reshaped by globalization and evolving workplace dynamics (Meyer et al., 1998). Modern employees often prioritize career mobility, with research by Carson and Bedeian (1994) indicating that individuals frequently change employers during their careers.

Barros (2007) suggests that organizations must balance enhancing employee employability with retaining talent. Steel and Lounsbury (2009) argue that emotional bonds and affective commitment play crucial roles in fostering organizational loyalty. Such bonds align employee values with organizational objectives, strengthening their psychological connection to the organization (Morrow, 1993).

HRM Practices and Organizational Outcomes

Effective HRM practices are linked to enhanced employee performance and organizational adaptability (Khatri, 1999). According to Rundle (1997), with

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employees been key drivers of an organization's capacity to respond to competitive challenges. Lado and Wilson (1994) emphasize that managing human capital is more complex than managing other resources, making HRM a critical factor in achieving long-term competitive advantage (Wright et al., 1994).

Schuler and Jackson (1987) propose that HRM practices must align with organizational strategy to foster competencies such as flexibility, innovation, and dedication. The adoption of universally superior HRM practices remains debated (Chandler & McEvoy, 2000), yet many scholars agree that high-commitment HRM practices, such as selective hiring and performance-based rewards, yield consistent organizational benefits (Pfeffer, 1994).

HRM Practices Frameworks

Scholars have developed various frameworks to categorize HRM practices that promote organizational outcomes. Pfeffer (1994) identifies seven best practices, including intensive training, job security, and teamwork. Similarly, Redman and Matthews (1998) propose an HRM bundle comprising careful recruitment, comprehensive compensation, and performance evaluations. Saxena and Tiwari (2009) further develop the 3C-TER framework, which emphasizes commitment, competence, and congruence as pillars of effective HRM.

Employee Commitment and Organizational Support

Employee perceptions of HRM practices significantly influence their commitment to the organization (Sims, 1994; Guzzo & Noonan, 1994). Kinicki et al. (1992) noted that employees' views of organizational support are

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shaped by how HR practices are implemented. Positive perceptions foster trust and alignment with organizational goals, enhancing employee commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1990).

The psychological contract, as described by Rousseau and Greller (1994), underscores the implicit expectations between employers and employees. HRM practices, such as transparent recruitment and fair performance appraisals, serve as key communicators in defining this relationship. Consequently, HRM practices are instrumental in cultivating strong psychological contracts, which drive employee motivation and loyalty (Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni, 1994).

Commitment Dimensions in HRM: A Composite Perspective

Commitment is a multi-faceted construct that significantly influences employee performance and organizational outcomes. Meyer and Allen (1997) propose three primary dimensions of commitment:

1. Affective Commitment: This dimension reflects employees' emotional attachment and identification with the organization. It is characterized by a genuine desire to remain part of the organization because of shared values and alignment with its goals.

2. Continuance Commitment: This dimension relates to the perceived costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees weigh the financial, professional, and social sacrifices involved in leaving, resulting in a pragmatic attachment rather than an emotional one.

3. Normative Commitment: This refers to employees' sense of obligation to remain with the organization. Normative commitment often stems

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from moral or social pressures, such as loyalty instilled by organizational investments in employee development.

In HRM research, these dimensions are typically studied individually; however, some studies advocate for composite commitment a combined measure capturing the cumulative effects of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. This composite approach provides a holistic understanding of employees' commitment levels and their overall psychological investment in the organization.

Using composite commitment as a single measure allows researchers to evaluate the totality of employees' connections with their organizations. The integration of affective, continuance, and normative aspects enables HRM to: Assess engagement drivers holistically, rather than focusing on individual dimensions in isolation, identify areas for intervention that can strengthen multiple aspects of commitment simultaneously, align HRM strategies, such as rewards systems, training, and career progression, with employees' multifaceted expectations and organizational goals.

Studies suggest that HRM practices play a critical role in enhancing composite commitment. Transparent recruitment processes, fair performance appraisals, and robust training programs foster both emotional and pragmatic attachments to the organization. Similarly, equitable compensation and promotion practices reinforce the sense of obligation, enhancing normative commitment.

Organizations that adopt composite commitment as a metric benefit from a nuanced understanding of employee behavior. By fostering a balance of emotional, practical, and moral attachments, organizations can mitigate

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turnover risks and improve overall employee satisfaction. Composite commitment also highlights how integrated HRM practices such as bundling career development with performance management can address diverse employee needs, enhancing organizational resilience and adaptability. For example, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) argue that composite commitment offers insights into employees' holistic responses to HRM interventions, making it a valuable tool for strategic decision-making. In this light, composite commitment transcends its role as an HR metric, becoming a strategic lever for organizational success.

HRM in Non-Governmental and Faith-Based Organizations

Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) play a unique role in global development and humanitarian efforts. Vakil (1997) defines non-governmental organizations as independent, non-profit organizations dedicated to enhancing the quality of life for underprivileged communities. Their functions often include catalyzing social change, implementing developmental initiatives, and partnering with other stakeholders (Lewis, 2007).

Faith-based organizations (FBOs) represent a subset of NGOs, characterized by their religious affiliations and mission-driven approaches (Bradley, 2009). These organizations often combine spiritual and operational objectives, leveraging their faith traditions to address societal needs. In Ghana, FBOs operate as legally registered entities under the Ghana Companies Code of 1963, engaging in charitable and non-profit activities. Their unique structure, which integrates clergy and non-clergy staff, underscores the importance of effective HRM practices in fostering both spiritual and organizational growth.

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HRM practices are central to organizational success, shaping employee behaviors and aligning their contributions with broader goals. The evolution of HRM reflects its growing strategic significance, with frameworks and practices designed to enhance employee commitment and organizational performance. In the context of NGOs and FBOs, HRM assumes a critical role in balancing mission-driven objectives with operational efficiency, underscoring its relevance across diverse organizational landscapes. By prioritizing effective HRM strategies, organizations can unlock the full potential of their human resources, fostering resilience and sustained growth.

Statement of the Problem

Numerous studies have examined the relationship between human resource management (HRM) practices and psychological contracts between employers and employees, particularly in public and commercial sectors across various countries, including Ghana (Cofie et al., 2018).

Existing research has provided valuable insights into HRM practices across diverse industries such as banking, manufacturing, services, and engineering (Nassar, 2017; Edralin, 2008; Coetzee et al., 2014). However, there remains a significant gap in understanding the HRM practices within religious organizations, particularly faith-based NGOs in Ghana. This emphasizes the need to examine the HRM practices utilized in these organizations to better understand their impact on employee outcomes.

While the three-component model of commitment (normative, continuance, affective) by Meyer and Allen (1997) has been widely used to measure employee commitment, there is limited research on using a composite

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measure of commitment in the context of faith-based NGOs. This calls for a more comprehensive examination of employee commitment in these settings.

Furthermore, employees' perceptions of HRM practices often vary depending on their job category within the organization. These perceptions influence their attachment and devotion to the organization, emphasizing the need to investigate how different employee groups within faith-based NGOs perceive HRM practices and their impact on organizational commitment.

Individual demographic characteristics, such as education level play a crucial role in shaping employee commitment. The relationship between HRM practices, demographic factors, and employee commitment remains underexplored, especially within faith-based NGOs. Understanding these dynamics is essential for establishing effective HRM strategies that promote worker commitment.

Finally, it is unclear whether specific HRM practices, job categories, or demographic characteristics of employees significantly influence the psychological contracts between organizations and employees. Therefore, this research seeks to identify the key factors, HRM practices, job categories, and demographic characteristics that promote the formation of employee commitment within faith-based organizations in Ghana.

Objectives of the study

General objective

The general objective of the study was to determine the effect of human resource management practices on commitment of employees in a faith-based NGO in Greater Accra region of Ghana.

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Specific objective

The study aims to achieve the following objectives:

1. Compare employees' demographic characteristics and their perception of the level of implementation of HRM practices in the faith-based organization.

2. Compare employee's demographic characteristics and their level of commitment in the faith-based organization.

3. Compare employee's job status and perception of implementation of human resources management practices and employee's commitment in the faith-based organization.

4. Explore the relationships between employee's demographic characteristics, implementation of HRM practices and employee's commitment in the faith-based organization.

5. Determine the best predictors of employee's commitment from the demographic characteristics, employee job status and human resource management practices in the faith-based organization.

Hypotheses of the Study

Five hypotheses were formulated to direct the study and were tested at a 5% significance level. These hypotheses are as follows

Hypothesis 1

H_0: There is no statistically significant difference between employee's demographic characteristics and perception of the level of implementation of HRM practices.

H_1: There is a statistically significant difference between employee's

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demographic characteristics and perception of the level of implementation of HRM practices.

Hypothesis 2

H_0: There is no statistically significant difference between employee's demographic characteristics and their level of commitment.

H_1: There is a statistically significant difference between employee's demographic characteristics and their level of commitment.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3A

H_0: There is no statistically significant difference in employee's job status and the level of implementation of HRM practices.

H_1: There is a statistically significant difference in employee's job status and the level of implementation of HRM practices.

Hypothesis 3B

H_0: There is no statistically significant difference in employee's job status and employee's commitment.

H_1: There is a statistically significant difference in employee's job status and employee's commitment.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4A

H_0: There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' demographic characteristics and employee's commitment.

H_1: There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' demographic characteristics and employee's commitment.

Hypothesis 4B

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H_0: There is no statistically significant relationship between employee's perception of implementation of HRM practices and employee's commitment.

H_1: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee's perception of implementation of HRM practices and employee's commitment.

Hypothesis 4C

H_o: There is no statistically significant relationship between employee's demographic characteristics and the level of implementation of HRM practices.

H_1: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee's demographic characteristics and the level of implementation of HRM practices.

Hypothesis 5

H_o: There is no statistically significant effect of demographic characteristics, employee's job status, implementation of HRM practices on employee's commitment.

H_1: There is a statistically significant effect of demographic characteristics, employee's job status, implementation of HRM practices on employee's commitment.

Variables of the study

Dependent variable: Employee commitment to the faith-based organization was the study's dependent variable.

Independent variable: The study's independent variables included:

a. Employee's demographic characteristics (sex, age, marital status, highest level of education and years of employment)

    b. Employee's job status (administrative staff, administrative managers, ministers)

    c. Human resource management practices (hiring, remuneration, performance appraisal, training and development).

Significance of the study

There is a lack of research on the impact of human resource management (HRM) practices on employee commitment in faith-based non-governmental organizations (NGOs) across Africa, including Ghana. This study will provide valuable insights into how HRM practices influence employee commitment in religious NGOs, offering a foundation that can be applied to the broader NGO sector.

Understanding the relationship between HRM practices and employee commitment can assist organizational management in selecting the most effective HRM strategies to enhance commitment, particularly within faith-based organizations. Furthermore, the findings from this research could serve as a guide for other religious non-profit organizations seeking to improve employee engagement and loyalty.

The study will contribute to the body of knowledge on HRM practices and how employees' background characteristics impact their commitment in faith-based NGOs. This can help enrich the understanding of HRM's role in the sector and inform future HRM policy development in similar organizational contexts.

Limitations of the Study

One limitation of this study is its reliance on self-reported data from employees, which could be influenced by the accuracy and sincerity of their

responses. The study focused on how HRM practices, such as hiring, remuneration, performance appraisal, training and development, were perceived and implemented within the organization. The employees' personal biases, memory recall issues, or willingness to disclose truthful opinions could potentially affect the validity of the findings, particularly when assessing commitment.

Delimitations of the Study

The scope of this study is geographically limited to a faith-based NGO located in the Greater Accra region. Employees from other regions of Ghana in the faith-based organization were not included in the study, which may limit the generalizability of the results to other regions.

The study targeted employees with at least two years of service in the organization, excluding those who had been employed for less than two years. This criterion was established to ensure that respondents had sufficient experience with the HRM practices and could offer a fair representation of the impact on their commitment. Employees with less than two years of service may not have experienced the full benefits of the HRM interventions, potentially leading to skewed or incomplete responses.

Furthermore, the study focused on four key HRM practices hiring, remuneration, performance appraisal, and training and development because these are considered fundamental practices that significantly affect employee commitment. These practices were chosen based on previous research (Fonbrum et al., 1984), which identified them as the core HRM practices commonly implemented in organizations.

Definition of Key Terms

This segment presented the functioning definitions of the key terms utilized in the study.

Employee

Employee is the permanent employee of the faith-based NGO in Ghana who have been in employment with the organization for at least two years.

Employee Job Status

This is the employee's job category or title as specified in the employee's appointment letter by the organization. They are administrative staff, administrative manager, and minister.

    i. **Ministers:** They are staff of the faith-based NGO employed as clergy of the faith-based NGO in any branch office.

    ii. **Administrative managers**: They are staff of the faith-based NGO who provide leadership to the rest of the employees on behalf of the Minister's.

    iii. **Administrative staff**: They are the staff of the faith-based NGO who provide support services to both the Ministers and the Administrative Managers in the faith-based NGO.

Employee background

Employee background are personal characteristics of the respondents namely, sex, age as at last birthday, marital status, highest level of education, and years of employment with the organization.

HRM Practices

HRM practices are hiring, remuneration, performance appraisal, training and development.

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Employee Commitment

Employee commitment is the composite sum of affective, normative and continuance commitments of the employee to the faith-based NGO (Combined commitment approach (Somers, 2009).

Faith-based Non-Governmental Organization

The Church was conceptualized as a Faith based organization (FBO) in the study, emphasizing its role as a key actor in both spiritual guidance and community development.

The church used in this study is also registered as a company limited by guarantee, which is the legal registration for non-governmental in Ghana and operates as a religious organization with offices in Ghana including the Greater Accra region.

Organization of the Study

The study is presented into five chapters, each focusing on a specific aspect of the research. Chapter one provides an overview of the research, including the background of the study, the statement of the problem, research objectives, hypotheses, significance, scope, and structure of the study. It sets the stage for the entire research process by introducing the key themes and the need for the investigation.

In chapter two, relevant literature is reviewed to establish a theoretical foundation for the study. It examines previous research on HRM practices, commitment of employees, and the effect of demographic factors in organizational outcomes. The chapter also discusses the application of HRM practices in faith-based non-governmental organizations (NGOs), with a focus

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on gaps in existing literature related to HRM practices and employee commitment in such organizations.

Chapter three outlines the research paradigm, design, population, sampling techniques, data collection methods, and data analysis procedures used in the study. A quantitative research approach with a cross-sectional design is explained, along with the rationale behind selecting the faith-based NGO in the Greater Accra region. The chapter also details the research instrument used to collect data and the statistical methods employed for analysis, such as descriptive statistics, analysis of variance, correlation testing and regression analysis.

In chapter four, the data collected is analyzed and presented. Descriptive statistics are used to provide an overview of the participants, while various statistical tests, including independent t-tests, ANOVA, and multiple regression, are applied to examine the relationship between HRM practices and employee commitment. The results are discussed in relation to the research objectives and hypotheses, offering insights into the influence of demographic factors and HRM practices implementation on commitment in the FBO. The theoretical contribution of the study is also provided in the chapter.

Chapter five provides a summary of the key findings from the study, discussing their implications for HRM practices in faith-based NGOs. The conclusions drawn from the analysis are linked back to the research objectives, and recommendations are made for improving HRM practices to enhance employee commitment. The chapter also highlights suggestions for future research in this area.

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CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The literature on human resource management (HRM), including its ideas, practices, commitment of employees, including social exchange theory, is reviewed in this chapter. The literature discusses human resource management and organizational commitment. It looks at the relationships that exist between demographic characteristics, HRM practices, and commitment. The theoretical framework, a literature synthesis, and the conceptual framework for the study are then presented.

Human Resource Management

An essential organizational resource that aids in maintaining an organization's effectiveness is human resource management. It influences several employees' attitudes such as organizational commitment (Lee et al., 2000). According to Boxall and Purcell (2003), both researchers and practitioners have given HRM as a method of managing employees in organizations a great deal of thought and discussion.

Human resources management doesn't appear to have a single definition. However, there are many parallels among the various definitions provided. HRM, as a broad subject, refers to any way of dealing with people. According to Boxall and Purcell (2011), HRM encompasses all activities related to the control of labour and personnel in formal organizations. According to Flippo (2007), HRM is the planning, organizing directing, and controlling of finding, developing, rewarding, integrating, caring for, and reproducing human resources in order to fulfil individual, organizational, and

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societal goals. In the view of Byars and Rue (2006), HRM is a structure of actions and policies that focus on effective management of all levels of employees of an organization with the aim of achieving the goals of the organization.

Price (2004), argues that the main goal of HRM is to achieve cost-effectiveness by achieving cost-effective work through deliberate hiring of the right workers, training and development, establishment of motivation and reward schemes to retain workers and the overall flow of leadership communication. Performance appraisal systems are also put in place to increase the level of accountability and foster peaceful industrial relations to reduce conflicts. According to Boselie and Van der Wiele (2002), HRM is defined as managerial decisions that are linked with approaches and practices that collectively shape the employment relationship and are intended at achieving a variety of goals, including those of the individual, organization, and society.

In the view of Armstrong (2001), human resources management involves the management of an organization's most precious asset; employees who contribute individually and collectively to the accomplishment of its goals. Additionally, Storey (2001), sees human resource management (HRM) as a special approach to employing workers that aim to gain competitive advantage by the strategic deployment of a highly devoted and talented staff using a coordinated selection such as structural, cultural, and personal strategies. Human resource management comprises all managerial actions that have an impact on the conditions associated with employee-organization relationship (Beer et al., 1984).

The varied definitions of HRM point to the engagement of human assets into an organization to help the organization attain the goals for which it has been established (Byars & Rue, 2006; Armstrong, 2001). That engagement must be seen as management decisions (Boselie, 2002) which must happen in formal organizations (Boxall & Purcell, 2011) and ought to be intentional actions (Armstrong, 2001). Human resource management consists of a series of logical management decisions designed to engage workers, build skills, and form lasting relationships for the betterment of both the employee and the employer, as well as ultimately for a successful outcome of the organization.

History of Human Resource Management

Over the past century, human resource management has seen significant change in both form and function, notably in the last twenty years. The origins of HRM can be found in England, when guilds were formed by artisans including masons, carpenters, leather craftsmen, and other tradespeople. The field expanded further with the arrival of the industrial revolution in the late 18th century, which established the foundation for a brand-new, comprehensive industrial civilization.

 HRM has been generated from management ideas and practices through principles, practices, and methodologies. As a result, there is a strong link between the advancement of management philosophy and the advancement of human resource management. There are generally four major schools of thought when it comes to human resource management development (Tapomoy, 2006).

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The Classical School (1900-1920s)

Up until the 1920s, the traditional or classical school of management, which includes scientific, bureaucratic, and administrative management, is believed to have been centered on efficiency. Max Weber viewed bureaucracy as the most common-sense structure for organization and categorized by defined functions, use of lawful power, hierarchical system, appointment to roles based on technical proficiency, written instructions and processes, expert personnel, competence-based upgrades, and undoubtedly well-defined career progression.

Robert Winslow Relationships between employees and machines were the emphasis of Taylor's scientific management strategy. He contends that enhancing the efficacy of manufacturing processes can increase organizational productivity. He places a strong emphasis on the necessity of conserving time, labor, and other resources in order to be efficient. Jobs must be carefully planned and specified so that each employee has a specific, manageable assignment that can be carried out as directed. Additionally, each job has specific procedures that must be strictly followed in order to be done effectively.

Planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, and controlling were highlighted in Henry Fayol's administrative administration. He outlined fourteen management principles, which included task delegation, control, and duties, discipline, unification of command and direction, reduction of individual interests to organizational interests, employee compensation, centralization, employee tenure stability, order, equity, scalar chain, initiative,

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and esprit de corps. He stated that organizations' overarching objective is to combine worker's effort into a synergistic whole.

Human Relations School (1920–1950s)

The 1920s marked the emergence of human relations, also known as behavioral management, which focused on the human side of organizations. This movement began with the "Hawthorne Studies," conducted between 1924 and 1933 at the Western Electric Company's Hawthorne Plant in Cicero, Illinois, by Professor Elton Mayo and associates from the Harvard Business School. The studies revealed that no direct cause-and-effect relationship existed between working conditions and productivity. Furthermore, productivity and job satisfaction were not solely influenced by employee attitudes or the role of informal workplace groups but were shaped by a combination of social and psychological factors. These findings laid the groundwork for the human relations movement, emphasizing the importance of behavioral and worker attitude issues in organizational management.

Chester Barnard, an influential figure from this era (1886–1961), contributed significantly to management theory with his ideas on strategic planning and the acceptance theory of authority. Barnard described strategic planning as the process of creating practical plans to steer an organization toward achieving its goals. His acceptance theory of authority argued that while authority is hierarchical and flows downward, it is ultimately contingent upon the acceptance of subordinates. This perspective suggested that managers only wield as much authority as their employees are willing to grant. Although the human relations approach illuminated the role of behavior and attitudes in the workplace, it did not consistently lead to increased productivity.

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Nevertheless, it marked a significant shift in how organizations approached management and employee relations.

By the early 1950s, there was growing recognition of the innovative capabilities and underutilized potential of employees. Motivational and managerial approaches gained prominence, reflecting a belief that workers valued meaningful employment and aspired to participate in decision-making and leadership. This era acknowledged that fostering employee engagement and leveraging their talents could advance organizational goals. Employers began to understand that offering workers opportunities to contribute to leadership and decision-making processes was vital in maximizing their potential and aligning their aspirations with organizational objectives.

The 1970s witnessed the advent of human resource accounting theory, which significantly influenced the development of human resource management (HRM) as a distinct discipline. Before this paradigm shift, human resources were regarded primarily as a "cost." However, human resource accounting introduced a new perspective, recognizing human resources as organizational assets whose value derives from their capacity to generate economic benefits. This theory focused on identifying, measuring, and communicating data about human resources, particularly their costs and value, to inform decision-makers. It established a foundation for understanding the strategic importance of human resources within an organization.

During the 1980s, changes in the global economic climate posed significant challenges to US organizations, particularly as Japan emerged as a formidable competitor. The shortcomings in worker commitment and productivity in the US became glaringly apparent, underscoring the urgent

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need for restructuring and reorganization. The increasingly competitive market environment and slow productivity growth drove organizations to rethink their approaches to management. This period saw the rise of HRM as a response to these challenges. The recognition of human resources as a crucial factor in addressing organizational difficulties led to greater emphasis on HRM strategies by both academics and practitioners.

Human resource management in the 1980s evolved into a formalized discipline, with the development of foundational HRM models and the introduction of HRM courses in academic programs, such as the Master of Business Administration (MBA). These models provided theoretical underpinnings for HRM practices and laid the groundwork for subsequent HRM concepts. Organizations increasingly recognized HRM as a competitive strategy integral to modern business operations, emphasizing the alignment of human resource strategy with broader organizational strategy. This integration highlighted HRM's role in driving innovation, improving productivity, and fostering employee engagement, solidifying its importance in contemporary management practices.

Human Resource Management Theories

To better comprehend the concept of HRM, many HRM theories can be examined. These theories accomplish at least four crucial intellectual tasks.

1. They provide an environment for analysis in which to study HRM (e.g., situational considerations, stakeholders, tactical decision levels, and concepts of commitment and competence).

2. They legitimize specific HRM practices, with the distinctiveness of HRM practices being a big problem.

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3. They offer an HRM classification that generates factors and relationships that may be researched.

4. They act as a tool for gathering information to help identify and understand the nature and importance of important HR practices (Bratton and Gold, 2007).

The Harvard, Michigan, and Guest models are the three main HRM models covered in this debate.

The Harvard Model

Researchers found that managing people requires a longer-term perspective and taking into account that people are likely valuable resources rather than just a changeable expense. The Harvard School of Management proposed that HRM had two distinguishing characteristics: first, supervisors are given increased responsibility for ensuring that competitive strategy and personnel policies are in sync; and second, personnel are tasked with developing policies that govern how their activities are formed and carried out in order to make them more mutually helpful.

The Harvard model's framework, put forth by Beer in 1985, describes theoretical connections between organizational characteristics and HR strategies. Workers are viewed in this paradigm as resources, significant participants with their own goals and expectations, as well as other groups like shareholders and clients. The four HR policy domains are reward systems, pay systems and motivation, and worker influence. HR flows are recruiting, selection, placement, promotion, appraisal, assessment, and termination: responsibilities, degrees of power, and organizational structures that are delegated: Workflow design and employee alignment all result in human

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resource outcomes of commitment, congruence, capability, and cost-effectiveness, which in turn produce a long-term performance of the organization.
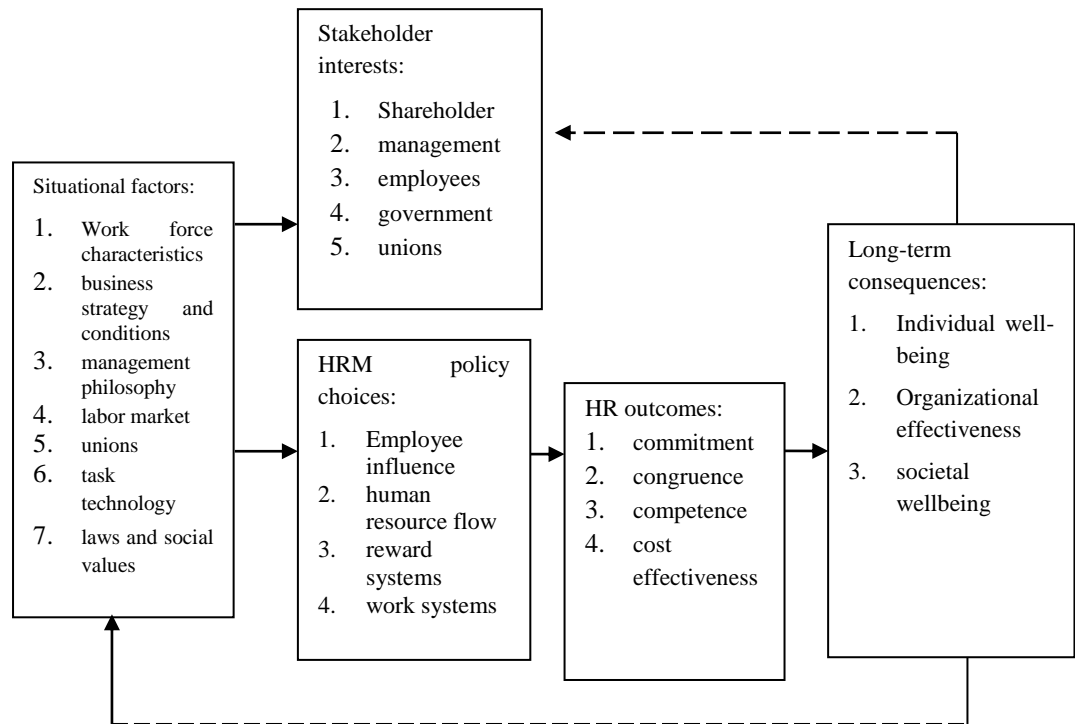
Figure 1: The Harvard Model of Human Resource Management
Source: Bratton & Gold (2007)

The Harvard model, as represented in Figure 1, is made up of six fundamental elements: situational circumstances, stakeholder interests, HRM policy decisions, HR results, long-term effects, and a feedback loop through which the outputs are sent back into the organization and to the stakeholders. The situational elements affect the management's decision on the HR strategy.

This model shows a synthesis of both product market and socio-cultural logics by combining worker features, management philosophy, labour market restrictions, social values, and patterns of unionization. Stakeholder interests emphasize the significance of trade-offs between owners, employees and their organizations, and unions. Employee commitment to organizational

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and personal goals is one of the HR outcomes that results in products or services that are affordable.

The long-term consequences include individual, organizational, and societal well-being. Thus, psychological rewards that employees receive in return for their labour make up the long-term outputs for the individual worker. At the organizational level, increased efficiency ensures the survival of the business. At the societal level, objectives like employment and growth are accomplished. The Harvard model's sixth element is the feedback loop. Additionally, situational considerations, stakeholder interests, and HR policies can all be impacted by long-term outcomes.

The fact that these paradigm group inputs and results at the organizational and social levels greatly contributes to its significance. This establishes the framework for comparative HRM evaluation. Additionally, it recognizes the importance of making trade-offs between the interests of owners and employees as well as between diverse interest groups, broadens the context of HRM to include employee influence, and emphasizes strategic decision. The Harvard model has had a substantial effect on the idea and implementation of HRM. It offers a useful framework for researching HRM. Lack of a strong theoretical basis for measuring the relationship between HR inputs, outcomes, and performance is a flaw in the Harvard model (Bratton & Gold, 2007).

The Michigan Model

The Michigan model of HRM developed by Fombrun et al. (1984), highlights the interrelationship and the coherence of HRM activities.

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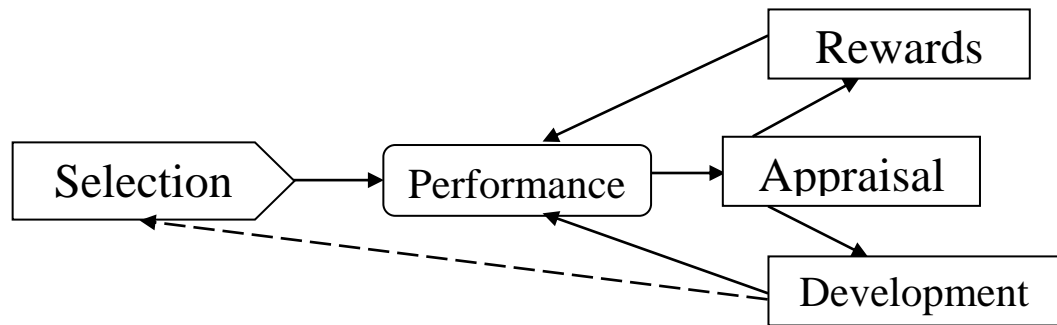
Figure 2: The Michigan Model of Human Resource Management

Source: Devanna et al. (1984)

The Michigan model's HRM cycle is made up of four essential, recurring elements: selection, appraisal, human resource development, and rewards. The cycle also provides a model for a practical framework for elucidating the significance of major HR practices, their nature, and relationships with other aspects that make up the diverse sectors of human resource management. The model emphasizes the point for organization to improve performance they must perform four basic functions namely selection, performance appraisal, rewards, and HR development.

Performance is a function of all HR components: choosing individuals who are best suited to carry out the tasks established by the organization; evaluating their performance to enable the impartial distribution of rewards; motivating employees by linking rewards to high levels of performance; and enhancing employees' skill sets to improve their current performance at work and position them to perform in the future (Devanna et al., 1984). This model's core tenet argues that when all four functions selection, performance management, rewards, and development are properly aligned, individual and organizational performance can both be improved.

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Organizational and human resource structures must be established in accordance with the organization's strategy (Fombrun et al., 1984). Managers should incorporate mission and strategy, formal structure, and HR processes in their approach to increase performance. According to Devanna et al. (1984), organizations must have a clear grasp of their strategy for displaying goods, information, and people to carry out their plan. Workers and tasks are more efficiently organized to carry out the organization's strategy when there is a defined structure for financial accounting and information sharing. To maintain high production, individuals are then hired, trained, and given tasks that are specified within the formal organizational structure. According to Marchington and Wilkinson (2005), the Michigan model's main goal is to ensure alignment between an organization's mission and the way its personnel should be handled.

Price asserted that the Michigan model describes how important it is for an organization's internal HR policy to be consistent with its outward business plan. Because it employs a mechanical method of organizational decision making, while real decisions are higher in complexity than the model predicts. Bratton and Gold (2007) noted that four HR practices are strictly required by the model as a prerequisite to performance. It disregards the interests of many stakeholders, contextual variables, and the idea of management's strategic option. According to the Michigan model, which employs a 'hard' approach to human resource management, employees are resources much like any other type of corporate resource (Price, 2004).

The Guest Model

The Guest model in Figure 3 is seen as an additional prescriptive theoretical framework that reflects the idea that a fundamental collection of complementary HRM practices can produce excellent individual and organizational outcomes. According to Guest (1987), HRM differs typically from personnel management in that it incorporates human resources into strategic management. The model focuses mainly on the effective use of human resources and considers employees' behavioral commitment to organizational goals. It works best in organizations with an organic structure.

According to the Guest model, there are significant overlaps between business and HR strategies in terms of cost, emphasis, and distinctiveness. However, the basic premise remains that HR procedures must be planned to fulfil a series of HR goals, including high levels of employee commitment, quality, and flexibility.

Table 1: Guest Model of Human Resource Management

HRM Strategy	HRM Practices	HRM Outcomes	Behavior Outcomes	Performance Outcomes	Financial Outcomes
Differentiation (Innovation)	Selection		Effort	**High:**	
	Training			Productivity	Profits
	Appraisal	Commitment		Quality	
			motivation	Innovation	
	Rewards			**Low:**	
Focus (Quality)	Job design	Quality		Absence	
			Cooperation	Labor	
	Involvement			Turnover Conflict	Return on Investment
		Flexibility			
Cost (Cost reduction)	Status & security		Organizational	Customer complaints	
			citizenship		

Source: Bratton & Gold (2007)

The key tenet of Guest's approach is that greater individual performance will be attained when integrated set of HR practices is employed in a cogent manner. Additionally, it is presumptive that better organizational performance will follow. Table 1 illustrates the six elements of the Guest model: HRM practices, HR strategy, HR results, behavioral outcomes, number of performance outcomes, and financial outcomes.

The Guest model's strength is its ability to categorize the inputs and outputs and evidently map the field of HRM. The model is helpful for assessing objectives often linked to strategic integration, commitment, flexibility, and quality normative HRM approaches.

Organizational Commitment

Scholars from a wide range of disciplines, including industrial psychology, organizational behavior, management, business administration, and public administration, have given the topic of commitment in the workplace a great deal of attention (Cohen, 2003). According to Lew (2011), the promotion of the topic of commitment among employees has attracted a lot of interest from organizations. This is due to the numerous benefits that accrue to the organization when employees demonstrate commitment. The study of employees' behavior in the workplace has become very important due to the many research work that have examined and found correlation between organizational commitment and attitudes in the workplace (Angle and Perry, 1981).

According to studies on the subject, Porter et al. (1974)) noted that organizational commitment can be measured as a single construct that encompasses identification, engagement, and loyalty from an attitudinal

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perspective. The mental bond that an employee forms with the organization regarding their identification and participation with it is known as the attitudinal perspective (Porter et al., 1974). The side-bet theory, another perspective on organizational commitment suggests that individuals commit to an organization if they remain members of the organization, in-spite of any stressful conditions they go through and will be ready to leave the organization if they are given alternate benefits (Alutto et al.,1973).

In their support of the side bet theory, Mowday et al. (1982) defined organization commitment as a behavior connected to the method by which individuals become trapped in a particular organization and how they deal with this problem. Meyer and Allen (1997) define commitment as a psychological condition that represents an employee's affiliation with the organization and influences the choice to continue participation in the organization or not.

Defining organizational commitment

Several descriptions have been given to organizational commitment and different authors have attempted to define what it means for an employee to be committed to an organization. According to Khan et al. (2016), commitment is a psychological state that identifies an individual's affiliation with the purpose of continuing participation in the organization. It is a bond between the employee and the organization. According to Lamba & Choudhary (2013), organizational commitment refers to a person's emotional dedication to an organization. It goes beyond a person's loyalty to that organization and entails a dynamic relationship in which every employee is determined to offer their resources and talents in the success of the

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organization. Organizational commitment is therefore seen as "the strength of an individual's identification and involvement with a particular organization" (Imran & Ahmed, 2012).

An employee's mentality that binds them to the company is called organizational commitment (Meyer et al., 2004). According to Ezrim et al. (2012), commitment means the extent to which an individual connects with and contributes to a specific organization. Reade and Lee (2012) found organizational commitment to be connected to employee traits, roles, and behaviors as well as the organization's sociocultural climate. For Tsai and Cheng, (2011), organizational commitment involves general interests, beliefs, objectives, and goals as well as a significant emotional component. Commitment is seen "as an attachment to the organization, characterized by an intention to remain in it; an identification with the values and goals of the organization; and a willingness to exert extra effort on its behalf" (Porter et al. 1974).

According to Guest (1987), organizational commitment refers to the extent to which employees are motivated to maintain their connection with a company due to a strong alignment with and interest in its goals and values. Organizational commitment, according to Harter et al. (2002), also describes the circumstance in which workers are devoted to the company due to the values and actions that support them. Allen and Meyer (1996) asserted that employee's commitment to the company is "a psychological connection between the employee and the company that reduces the likelihood that the employee will voluntarily leave the company" (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

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According to Welty et al. (2014), who considered the views of dedicated workers, greater organizational commitment among employees makes them less likely to actively seek out new employment because they would prefer to stay with and advance their current employer. Additionally, workers that are highly committed make a positive contribution to the organization.

Organizational Commitment Models

There are various approaches to developing the organizational commitment notion. They are Meyer and Allen's (1984) Multidimension Theory, Porter's Affective Dependency Theory (1974), and Becker's Side Bet Theory (1960). The various theories, especially the multidimension theory of Meyer and Allen (1984), which has come to dominate organizational commitment research, have helped to understand the idea of organizational commitment.

The Side-Bet approach to Organizational Commitment

Becker's (1960) side-bet theory, suggest that commitment is a willingness to participate in "consistent lines of activity" due to the accumulation of "side bets" that would disappear if the activity were discontinued. The "consistent line of activity" refers to continuing one's employment with the organization in order to demonstrate a person's dedication to the organization. According to Becker (1960), the connection between a company and its employees is predicated on actions constrained by an understanding of financial benefits. According to Becker (1960), side bets are social mechanisms that, through a set of rules, result in penalties (such as

losing investments), forcing a person to be obligated to engage in a particular type of activity.

According to Wallace (1997), there might be repercussions for someone who switches from one line of work to another. The likelihood of someone remaining in their existing position increases if the advantages of the new change or new organization do not outweigh the costs of leaving the previous one. The motivation and loyalty of employees to the company are a result of their covert vested interests or side bets. The employees highly value these side-bets, which are made up of everything of value in which they have invested (such as time, effort, or money) and which they would lose if they left the company.

These investments could be made in non-vested pension plans, organizational skill development, using organizational standing to get lower credit rates, health and child education insurance, etc. There can be a perception that there aren't enough replacements to make up for the lost investments, which would increase the apparent cost of leaving the company. The threat of financial loss, in any form, binds a person to the organization.

According to Becker (1960), an individual's commitment is influenced in different ways without conscious awareness. The commitment continues until the person is forced to make a crucial decision and discovers that side bets have already been decided for them. He goes on to say that someone might discover that their connection with something or an organization has, in a variety of ways, already set aside bets and decided their future activities.

There are numerous side bets that can be divided into several categories, such as general cultural expectations, impersonal bureaucratic

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structures, individual social situational adjustment, self-presentation issues, and non-work considerations. Additionally, Becker contends that these several side-bets may be closely related, making it challenging to distinguish between them (Becker, 1960).

Ritzer and Trice (1969) asserted that the "best indicator" of activities made to stake something of value in the employing organization is considered to be age or a related variable, tenure in the organization. They reasoned that since side bets typically increase over time. This is the case due to the fact that leaving the company is highly challenging due to the accumulation of certain charges over time. The dominant organizational commitment theory was replaced with the side-bet theory. However Meyer and Allen's (1984) scale often known as continuation commitment, shows the theory's impact.

Affective Dependence Method of Organizational Commitment

Porter et al. (1974) began the second phase of Commitment. And placed more focus on developing a psychological tie with the organization than on tangible side advantages. Employee involvement in the organization was linked to financial benefits, but affective influence was given more weight.

According to Mowday et al. (1979), compared to work satisfaction, commitment was a more effective substitute concept in predicting turnover intentions. Their theory views commitment as characterized by three traits: a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and ideals, a willingness to put forth a sizable amount of effort on its behalf, and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. Despite their contributions to the concept of organizational commitment, they upheld the central

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assumption of Becker's theory that employee turnover and commitment are strongly associated.

Multidimensional Approach to Organizational Commitment

The study of organizational commitment has evolved significantly over time, transitioning from a single-dimensional approach to a more nuanced, multidimensional perspective. Early theories, such as Becker's Side-Bet Theory, primarily conceptualized commitment in terms of the costs associated with leaving an organization. However, this limited perspective failed to capture the full complexity of the psychological and emotional factors influencing employee behavior.

To address these gaps, Meyer and Allen (1984) and O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) emerged as pivotal theorists in reframing organizational commitment as a multidimensional construct. Among these contributions, Meyer and Allen's Three-Component Model (TCM) became the dominant framework for exploring organizational commitment, addressing many of the shortcomings of earlier theories. Their work sought to bridge the theoretical gaps and provide a more comprehensive understanding of why employees remain with or leave an organization.

The Three-Component Model introduced by Meyer and Allen in 1984 was designed to address the confusion and inaccuracies resulting from the misapplication of Becker's Side-Bet Theory. Becker's theory proposed that employees remain committed to an organization due to the accumulation of side bets or investments that would be lost upon departure. However, Meyer and Allen observed that the scales created by Becker's supporters, such as

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those by Alutto et al. (1973) and Ritzer and Trice (1969), often measured attitudinal commitment rather than the intended side-bets.

Meyer and Allen (1984) argued that side bets should be quantified through metrics that reflect employees' perceptions of the number and size of their investments. As a result, they developed two distinct scales to measure affective and continuance commitment. These scales enabled researchers to distinguish between emotional attachment to an organization and the perceived costs associated with leaving it.

The development of the affective commitment scale was particularly transformative, as it improved upon earlier tools like the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The OCQ, originally developed by Porter et al. (1974), was instrumental in linking commitment to both attitudinal concepts and their behavioral consequences. However, the introduction of the affective commitment scale enhanced the OCQ by enabling the measurement of commitment as evidenced by positive feelings of identification with the workplace.

While the OCQ provided a foundation for studying organizational commitment, its limitations in accurately representing the continuance dimension led Meyer and Allen to propose a separate continuance commitment scale. This scale was designed to assess the extent to which employees felt compelled to remain with an organization due to the investments they had made or the benefits they might lose by leaving.

Normative commitment was later added as the third component of Meyer and Allen's model. Defined as a sense of obligation to remain with an organization, normative commitment reflects internalized values and cultural

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influences that shape employees' sense of duty. Meyer and Allen (1997) argued that this sense of obligation could extend to the organization itself, its leadership, or even colleagues. They also emphasized the role of socialization and cultural factors in shaping normative commitment before an employee joins an organization. This dimension highlighted the ethical and moral considerations that influence employee behavior, distinguishing normative commitment from the more emotionally driven affective commitment and the cost-based continuance commitment.

Affective commitment

Each component of the TCM offers unique insights into the dynamics of organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1984) defined affective commitment as the emotional connection that employees develop with their respective organizations. This connection encourages workers to stay with the organization out of a genuine desire, as their personal values and goals align with those of the organization. Affective commitment is often fostered through positive workplace experiences, including open communication, employee participation in decision-making, and access to relevant organizational information.

Research by Dirani and Kuchinke (2011) highlights how these practices promote a sense of belonging and emotional attachment among employees. Furthermore, human resource management practices, such as fair compensation and employee development programs, significantly enhance employees' affective commitment by improving their perceptions of competence and well-being.

However, affective commitment is not without its challenges. It is often difficult to precisely define the characteristics of this component, as it is largely perceived through employee behavior rather than directly measurable attributes. Despite these challenges, the importance of affective commitment in fostering long-term employee engagement cannot be overstated. Employees with strong affective commitment are more likely to identify with the organization's mission and values, contributing to a positive organizational culture and higher levels of job satisfaction.

Continuance commitment

Continuance commitment, the second component of the TCM, is rooted in the perceived costs of leaving an organization. Becker (1960) conceptualized this dimension as an awareness of the sacrifices associated with organizational departure. Employees with high levels of continuance commitment remain with their organizations not because they want to, but because they feel they need to. This sense of necessity often arises from investments that are considered non-transferable, such as retirement benefits, years of service, or relationships with colleagues.

According to Reichers (1985), these non-transferable investments represent additional costs that employees consider when evaluating their decision to leave. Wang et al. (2017) further emphasize that as employees accumulate resources and benefits over time, their commitment to the organization strengthens due to the fear of losing these advantages.

Continuance commitment has significant implications for human resource management. Organizations can enhance this type of commitment by offering long-term benefits and opportunities for professional development.

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For instance, Anton (2009) highlights the strong correlation between HR strategies and continuance commitment, particularly when employees perceive that their investments in the organization are reciprocated.

However, it is important to note that continuance commitment, while effective in retaining employees, does not necessarily foster the same level of engagement or enthusiasm as affective commitment. Employees who remain with an organization solely due to continuance factors may exhibit lower levels of discretionary effort and overall job satisfaction.

Normative commitment

Normative commitment, the third component of the TCM, is characterized by a sense of moral obligation to remain with an organization. Wiener (1982) defines normative commitment as the totality of internalized normative pressures that guide employees to act in ways that align with organizational goals and interests. Employees with high normative commitment often feel indebted to their organizations, whether due to the training and resources they have received, or the ethical standards instilled by their upbringing. This sense of obligation is influenced by both pre-employment socialization and the treatment employees receive during their tenure.

Studies by Riveros and Tsai (2011) suggest that employees are more likely to develop normative commitment when they perceive that the organization has invested significantly in their development. Training and development programs are particularly effective in fostering normative commitment. Wood (1999) argues that these programs not only enhance employees' skills but also reinforce their sense of reciprocity toward the

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organization. Employees who feel that their organizations have invested in their growth are more likely to reciprocate by remaining committed to the organization's goals.

However, normative commitment is not solely driven by organizational practices; cultural and societal norms also play a significant role. Wiener (1982) observes that individuals raised in cultures that emphasize loyalty, family, and community are more likely to exhibit normative commitment in their professional lives.

While the TCM provides a comprehensive framework for understanding organizational commitment, it is not without its criticisms. One major critique is the lack of clear conceptual boundaries , particularly between normative and affective commitment. Studies by Ko et al. (1997) and Meyer et al. (2004) reveal significant correlations between these two dimensions, suggesting that they may not be entirely distinct. For instance, an analysis conducted found a correlation of 0.63 between affective and normative commitment, indicating substantial overlap (Meyer et al., 2004). Bergman (2006) argues that this overlap raises questions about the discriminant validity of the TCM and suggests that further refinement is needed to clarify the unique attributes of each component.

Despite these criticisms, the TCM remains one of the most widely used frameworks for studying organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen's scales have been rigorously tested and validated, demonstrating strong psychometric properties and practical utility. These scales have provided valuable insights into the antecedents and outcomes of organizational

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commitment, enabling researchers and practitioners to develop targeted interventions for improving employee engagement.

The multidimensional method to commitment, as conceptualized by TCM (Meyer and Allen, 1997) represents a significant advancement in understanding employee behavior. By differentiating between affective, continuance, and normative commitment, the model offers a nuanced perspective on why employees choose to remain with their organizations. Although the TCM is not without its limitations, its contributions to the field of organizational behavior are undeniable. Future research should continue to refine the model, addressing its conceptual ambiguities and exploring its applicability across diverse cultural and organizational contexts. The insights gained from such efforts will undoubtedly enhance the effectiveness of HR practices and contribute to the creation of more committed and engaged workforces.

O'Reilly and Chatman's model

Organizational commitment was defined as a psychological attachment to an organization (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). An employee's level of attachment to an organization is reflected in their ability to "adopt and adapt" to its character and views. Compliance, identification, and internalization are three separate themes that predict a worker's psychological attachment. When an employee complies with the policies of the company in hopes of receiving an external benefit, this is known as compliance, the shallowest level of attachment to the organization or commitment.

Employees often exhibit specific attitudes and behaviors to obtain certain rewards. Identification represents a deeper level of commitment than

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compliance, indicating a more advanced phase of organizational attachment. It is seen as desire for affiliation which induces involvement of employees. Workers typically admire and accept the organization's accomplishments and principles because they feel good about being a part of it (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). The employee adopts the organization's values since they are similar to their own, which is the third and final stage of commitment.

The model made significant improvement to the study of commitment since it was the first to distinguish between "instrumental exchange and psychological attachment clearly. The concept effectively distinguished between the two stages: a surface level of commitment resulting from compliance, which is caused by an exchange process, and a deeper-seated commitment resulting from psychological attachment. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) also acknowledged internalization and identification, the other two types of psychological attachment. Additionally, their theory also highlighted organizational citizenship conduct as the result of employees' psychological attachment. This study extends the organizational outcome relationship that Becker (1960) and Porter et al. (1974) presented, which largely focused on commitment as a significant determinant of intentions to leave the company.

But there are problems with this model too. The scale for the "identification" component, according to Vandenberg et al. (1994), captures the same data as an organizational commitment questionnaire. Second, internalization and identification have a positive link with the intention to remain with a company, while compliance works in the opposite direction and has a positive correlation with turnover (Bennett & Durkin, 2000). This illustrates that when an individual has a long tenure, the less likely it is to be

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assumed that commitment is based on compliance. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) posed the question of whether compliance can be seen as a type of organizational commitment at all arises given that the conclusion for organizational commitment is that it reduces the likelihood of employee turnover.

The model has not been widely applied by scholars because of the challenges this theory faces; instead, they have chosen to adopt Meyer and Allen's (1984) methodology to conduct additional organizational commitment research.

Combined Approach to Organizational Commitment

The combined commitment approach provides a nuanced perspective on the complex interplay between various dimensions of commitment and their influence on workplace outcomes. Somers (2009) conducted an evaluative study of 288 hospital workers to examine how different profiles of organizational commitment influenced factors such as desire to leave the profession, job-seeking behavior, work-withdrawal, and workplace stress. Through his research, Somers identified five distinct profiles of commitment: "highly committed, affective–normative dominant, continuance–normative dominant, continuance dominant, and uncommitted." These profiles illuminated the diverse ways employees experience and express commitment, moving beyond a simplistic understanding to capture the multifaceted nature of commitment in organizational settings.

The findings of Somers' study revealed that an affective-normative commitment profile was strongly associated with positive work outcomes. Employees in this category demonstrated lower levels of psychological stress

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and reduced turnover intentions, suggesting that a high degree of emotional and normative commitment fosters a sense of meaningful engagement with their work and organizational goals. This engagement helps employees feel valued and connected to their organizations, enhancing overall job satisfaction and reducing their likelihood of leaving. Somers further noted that individuals in the continuance–normative commitment profile exhibited the lowest levels of absenteeism, highlighting that these combined dimensions of commitment could encourage employees to maintain regular attendance and fulfill their job responsibilities consistently.

Interestingly, Somers' analysis indicated no significant differences in late-coming behavior among varied commitment groups. This finding indicates that while various types of commitment influence certain work behaviors, others, such as punctuality, may be less affected by the underlying psychological state of commitment. Nonetheless, the study emphasized the intricate processes through which commitment develops and operates, underscoring the importance of considering employees' psychological and emotional experiences. According to Somers (2009), employees' levels of commitment significantly influence their perception and experience of their psychological state, with high emotional and normative commitment, reducing the adverse effects associated with continuance commitment.

A particularly insightful argument made by Somers (2009) is that employees with high levels of affective and normative commitment do not feel "stuck" in their organizations. Instead, they feel engaged and connected, which mitigates the potentially negative impacts of continuance commitment. Continuance commitment, often associated with a perception of being bound

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to an organization due to lack of alternatives or significant costs of leaving, can negatively affect employee attitudes and behaviors when experienced in isolation. However, when combined with high affective and normative commitment, the potential drawbacks of continuance commitment—such as feelings of entrapment or dissatisfaction—are significantly diminished. This finding has profound implications for organizations, suggesting that fostering affective and normative commitment can enhance employee retention and overall workplace morale, even in contexts where continuance commitment plays a role.

Somers (2009) also advocated for a shift in the research focus on organizational commitment. Rather than adhering strictly to the three-component model (TCM) proposed by Allen and Meyer (1990), which categorizes commitment into affective, normative, and continuance dimensions, Somers suggested exploring the cumulative effects of commitment. He argued that commitment should be viewed as an integrated and holistic construct rather than a set of isolated dimensions. This perspective recognizes the interplay between different types of commitment and how their combination influences workplace outcomes. For instance, while continuance commitment alone might lead to unfavorable feelings of being "trapped," its integration with affective and normative commitment can create a more balanced and positive experience for employees.

The implications of Somers' combined commitment approach extend beyond theoretical considerations. Organizations aiming to enhance employee retention and satisfaction should design strategies that simultaneously promote emotional attachment (affective commitment) and a sense of moral obligation

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(normative commitment). Such strategies might include fostering a supportive work environment, aligning organizational values with employee aspirations, and recognizing and rewarding employee contributions. By doing so, organizations can reduce the negative impact of continuance commitment and cultivate a workforce that feels both valued and motivated.

Furthermore, Somers' findings suggest that organizations should not merely focus on individual dimensions of commitment in isolation but instead consider the holistic experience of employees. This comprehensive approach involves addressing both the psychological and emotional factors that influence commitment and understanding how these factors interact to shape employee behavior. For example, providing opportunities for meaningful work and professional development can strengthen affective and normative commitment, which in turn can enhance employees' willingness to stay with the organization even when continuance commitment is present.

In addition, Somers' recommendation for future research to investigate the cumulative effects of commitment opens new avenues for understanding how different commitment dimensions interact over time. This approach can provide insights into how organizations can create synergistic effects that amplify the positive outcomes of commitment. For instance, longitudinal studies could explore how changes in affective, normative, and continuance commitment influence employee engagement, productivity, and retention over extended periods.

In conclusion, the combined commitment approach proposed by Somers (2009) provides a valuable framework for understanding the complexity of organizational commitment. By recognizing the interplay

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between affective, normative, and continuance commitment, organizations can develop strategies that foster a balanced and positive commitment experience for employees. This approach not only enhances employee retention and job satisfaction but also contributes to a more engaged and productive workforce. Somers' calls for research to explore the cumulative effects of commitment underscores the importance of viewing commitment as a dynamic and integrated construct, paving the way for more holistic and effective organizational practices.

Demographic Variables and Employee Commitment

Sex and employee commitment

Sex is the social classification of a person as being male or female (Snowdon, 2009). According to Khalili and Asmawi (2012), sex can be considered from the job or gender model in organizational commitment literature. The employment model assumes men and women behave in the same ways at work. The gender model contends, however, that women typically embrace family obligations as a primary basis for their individuality and pleasure, which results in a different emphasis on work than that of men, for whom work is major.

When it comes to socio-psychological classifications of maleness and femaleness, sex has an impact on how committed employees are to their organizations. According to Elizur and Koslowsky (2001), some studies have shown that men are more committed to their organizations than women are, while other studies have shown the opposite. Other studies have shown that sex is totally not linked to organizational commitment. Igbal (2011) has observed that cultural context can influence the effect of sex on commitment

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in a manner that if women experience sexual inequality within environment, it might be detrimental to their devotion to the organization. Also, it is possible for the hierarchical position or department of the individual in the organization to have an influence on their commitment (Elizur & Koslowsky ,2001).

Forkuah et al. (2014) discovered that female employees were more dedicated than male employees in their investigation of the extent of commitment of family and non-family member firms. Men were more devoted to their specific groups than women (Kumasey et al., 2014). Salami (2008) found that sex was not a very important predictor of organizational commitment in his investigation of the demographic and psychological elements predicting it in industrial workers. According to Pourghaz et al. (2011), men's levels of commitment to their organizations were comparable across the board.

Age and employee commitment

Age is the number of years of individuals. For any study, the ages of individuals may be grouped into different age groups. People up to 40 years are usually described as young and those above 40 years (Abrams et al., 2011) are considered older. The age of individuals communicates the changes happening in their true, emotional, and social living (Innocenti et al., 2013). Age is a measure of employees getting a higher position and gaining more years in the organization (Sommez & Benligiray, 2013). It also shows the investments individuals have made in the organization.

Angelis et al. (2010) discovered that the age of the worker was positively related to employee commitment. Dick (2010) found that age had small effect on employee commitment. In the study in determine the

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association among demographic characteristics and organizational commitment in Nigeria, Amangala (2013) discovered a positive association between commitment and age.

Age and commitment are associated, according to Rabindarang et al. (2014), who also noted that older workers appear to be more dedicated to the company than younger workers and new hires. Al-Kahtani (2012) discovered that age had a positive association with commitment and that older employees were more devoted than younger ones in a related study of Saudi Arabia's public sector organizations. In his study of the association between demographic variables and organizational commitment, Azeem (2010) discovered that age and length of employment were predictors of organizational commitment.

Marital status and employee commitment

This includes singles who have Never married, divorced, widow or widower. One demography that affects how committed employees are to their company is marital status. Benligiary and Sonmez (2013) contend that a person's commitment to their career is negatively affected by marriage and that married people need time and energy to maintain their home, which tends to have a negative effect on their work output and career commitments. Couples who work and have children need to plan for their children's school and their own work roles. Employee commitment has been demonstrated to increase with marital status (Bayona-Sáez et al., 2009). Married people need a stable job. Employees who are married are more likely to increase their responsibilities towards their family and especially those with family responsibilities tend to be more dependable with work issues to be able to

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satisfy their financial obligations. There is an association between commitment among workers and married status (Bayona-Saez et al., 2009).

Educational level and employee commitment

Education is the level of knowledge and abilities (Barton et al., 2009). Educational level is the academic qualifications obtained by an individual (Thomas & Feldman, 2009) and most organizations use the level of education to measure the skill level of individuals and serve as the basis for hiring of employees for the organization. Most likely, individuals who possess higher education levels have more nuanced, rational understandings than people with lower education levels (Thomas & Feldman, 2009).

Among the demographic factors, education also influences organizational commitment such that higher-educated workers are less committed to their company than lower-educated employees, who appear to be more committed because they don't change jobs as frequently. According to Al-Khatani (2012), employees with higher levels of education tend to have elevated expectations of their organizations, which are often unmet or beyond what the company can fulfill. Igbal, (2011) argues that higher educated people appear to be less committed because they have more work possibilities available to them. Additionally, personnel with higher qualifications showed less dedication than those with certificates and lower-level degrees (Forkuoh et al., 2014).

According to Jafri (2011), the level of education negatively predicts employee's commitment. This is because employees with higher educational qualifications move from one organization to the other with the aim of growing their profession and improving their financial benefits so the always

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have high expectations and become less committed when the expectations are not met. Furthermore, individuals with higher educational qualifications also move from job to job simply because their skills and expertise expose them to better opportunities.

On the contrary, the degree of education and a worker's dedication are directly related. Employees with high level of educational qualification in most organizations occupy managerial and executive roles with its attendant responsibilities which require them to show greater dedication to the organization and therefore the higher the level of education, the possibility of having a higher level of commitment (Amangala, 2013). Additionally, better education increases employees' loyalty to the company and sense of affiliation (Khan et al., 2016).

Years of employment and employee commitment

The number of years a person has worked for a company, also known as tenure or job experience, and as a result, has accrued substantial expertise and knowledge (Gilson et al., 2013). During the job tenure, employees develop a psychological capacity for work because of their encounters and different aspects of work-related issues and gradually get into senior level roles (Bhopatkar, 2013). These work-related experiences enhance employee decision making processes, provide different learning phases and enable them to make sound judgement relative to their work with the passing of time and eventually develop a thorough-bred employee.

Long employment in a business is therefore probable to result in a high level of loyalty among the workforce. According to Salami (2008), years of employment are a very important indicator of dedication. Bayona-Sáez et al.

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(2009) posits that older employees justify their long tenure in the workplace by their commitment and they also receive other benefits because of their long service to the organization. S

Shore et al. (2008), argues that it is expensive for employees with long years with the organization to leave since they may lose some benefits including pension, seniority at their current workplace and non-transferable training. The accumulation of benefits accrued to employees because of long years of employment makes it very difficult to leave and therefore more likely to remain with the organization. Igbal (2011) found that faculty members revealed that period of service was linked with commitment and was positively significant and suggest that employee's responsibilities for organizational outcomes increase, the longer they stay in the organization.

However, (Benligiray & Sommez, 2013) discovered that the association between years of employment and commitment from employees was negative. This is supported by Karakus and Aslan (2009) who showed that teachers with more than 21 years of service were less dedicated.

Job Status and Employee Commitment

Job status, often defined as the position or role an employee holds within an organization, plays a critical role in shaping employee commitment. Hierarchies within organizations are typically delineated based on an individual's title, position, or function, and these distinctions significantly impact employees' levels of dedication to the organization. Research indicates that employees occupying higher-level roles, particularly managerial or senior positions, tend to exhibit stronger commitment to their organizations compared to those in junior roles (Olapegba & Onuoha, 2012). This

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phenomenon can be attributed to several factors, including enhanced benefits and privileges such as higher salaries, bonuses, and allowances enjoyed by senior-level employees.

Senior employees often perform managerial duties and are entrusted with greater responsibility, which creates a stronger psychological investment in the organization. These individuals frequently view their roles as integral to the success of the organization, thereby fostering a deeper sense of dedication. From the perspective of Becker's Side-Bet Theory, this commitment can be explained through the concept of "side-bets," which are investments accumulated by employees during their tenure that would be forfeited if they chose to leave the organization (Wood & Rowe, 2011). Such investments include intangible elements like seniority, organizational reputation, and professional networks that are difficult to transfer across workplaces. These side-bets create a sense of commitment that is not solely driven by financial incentives but also by the accumulated value tied to their position within the organization.

The link between job status and commitment also highlights the potential cost of job mobility for senior employees. Changing jobs may entail significant risks, including the loss of seniority, reduced access to resources, and diminished influence in a new organization. These potential losses serve as deterrents, motivating senior employees to remain committed to their current organization. Research by Dick (2011) underscores this point, finding a positive correlation between job status and employee dedication. Employees in higher job statuses tend to perceive their roles as more meaningful and

aligned with their personal and professional goals, leading to increased organizational loyalty.

However, the relationship between job status and commitment is not only shaped by the tangible benefits associated with higher positions but also by the psychological and social dynamics within organizations. Higher-level employees are often more engaged in decision-making processes, which can lead to a greater sense of ownership and alignment with organizational objectives. This sense of inclusion cultivates a stronger emotional bond with the organization, a key feature of affective commitment. Conversely, employees in lower-status roles may feel excluded from critical decision-making processes, potentially leading to feelings of disengagement and lower levels of commitment.

From a practical perspective, the implications of job status on commitment suggest that organizations need to adopt strategies to enhance the commitment of employees at all levels. Providing opportunities for professional growth, fostering inclusive decision-making, and recognizing the contributions of employees in junior roles can help bridge the commitment gap between different job statuses. For instance, offering tailored training programs and career development opportunities to employees in lower positions may enable them to perceive their roles as stepping stones toward future advancement, thereby enhancing their commitment to the organization.

Moreover, organizations that fail to address disparities in commitment related to job status may face challenges in workforce cohesion and productivity. Employees in lower-status roles who perceive inequities in recognition and rewards may become disengaged, negatively impacting their

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performance and overall outcomes in the organization. It is important therefore for management to cultivate a workplace culture that values the contributions of employees across all levels, ensuring that job status does not become a divisive factor.

The dynamics of job status and employee commitment are also shaped by external labor market conditions. During periods of economic uncertainty or limited job opportunities, employees in lower-level positions may exhibit higher levels of continuance commitment, driven by a fear of losing their source of income. However, this form of commitment, which is rooted in necessity rather than enthusiasm, may not translate into increased job satisfaction or productivity. In contrast, senior employees, who typically have more financial stability and professional options, are likely to remain committed due to their deeper alignment with organizational values and objectives.

Job status significantly influences employee commitment through a combination of tangible benefits, psychological investment, and the perceived risks of job mobility. Employees in senior roles tend to demonstrate higher levels of commitment due to greater organizational involvement, enhanced privileges, and the accumulation of side-bets that deter turnover. However, to foster a cohesive and committed workforce, organizations must address the unique needs and concerns of employees at all levels. By promoting inclusiveness, professional development, and equitable recognition, organizations can enhance commitment across the hierarchy, ultimately contributing to their long-term success.

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Human Resource Management Practices and Employee Commitment

Ogilvie (1986) asserts that HRM practices are one of the factors influencing commitment in the workplace and contends that workers' opinions of HRM practices in an organization reflect a sense of exchange and the level of commitment the organization shows to employees. The effect of HRM techniques on organizational commitment to organizations has been examined by Meyer and Allen (1997). The result is the assurance that businesses will offer a variety of benefits in exchange for workers' contributions and commitment. The more organizations use HRM practices the more committed employees become. HRM practices are consequently seen as helpful methos to nurture commitment to employees.

Utilizing a bundle of HRM practices is significant because organizations do not use single practice but several HRM practices. Literature suggests that it is not the HRM practices which affect commitment, but the impression that employees have of fairness in the application of human resources management processes (DeConinck & Stilwell, 1996). Employees are exposed to a variety of HRM practices at work, and how such practices are perceived by them is crucial to understanding how they affect their behavior (Chang, 2005). The real HR procedures have an impact on how employees perceive the organization's commitment to them, which in turn has an impact on how they feel about their jobs and the organization (Kinicki et al., 1992). The view supports the claim that it is how employees perceive the organization's dedication to HRM interventions which influences their work outcomes rather than the HR practices themselves.

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According to Paul and Anantharaman (2004), earlier studies' findings, there is a strong correlation between HRM practices and organizational commitment. Meyer and Smith (2000) contend that methods for hiring, education, reviewing performance, giving out rewards, and job stability are thought to increase employees' commitment. In their investigation into how workers' perceptions of HRM practices affect organizational commitment and entrenchment, Scheible and Bastos (2013) discovered a higher positive correlation between commitment and perception of HRM practices. A favorable correlation was established between organizational commitment and how HRM practices were regarded to be being implemented by Cofie et al. (2018) study on obtaining organizational commitment through HRM practices in Ghana's banking industry.

Hiring Practices and Employee Commitment

Hiring practices are foundational to building employee commitment as they initiate the relationship between the individual and the organization. Costello (2006) defines hiring as a structured process designed to find and select suitable candidates who align with organizational goals and values. Armstrong (2009) further emphasizes that hiring involves not only identifying potential employees but also ensuring their compatibility with the organization's culture, expectations, and long-term objectives. As the gateway to the workforce, hiring plays a pivotal role in determining how well employees integrate into the organizational structure and contribute to its overall success. Effective hiring practices, therefore, establish a critical link between the employee and the organization, fostering an environment where both parties are motivated to achieve their shared goals.

Effective hiring practices significantly impact employee commitment by fostering a sense of value and alignment. According to Fiorito et al. (2007), the financial and temporal investments made during the hiring process communicate the organization's recognition of employee worth, motivating recruits to reciprocate with increased loyalty. This sentiment is rooted in social exchange theory, which suggests that individuals are likely to exhibit commitment when they perceive investments being made in their growth and well-being (Aryee et al., 2002). When employees feel valued from the outset, their commitment to organizational objectives is strengthened, as they are more inclined to contribute to the organization's success.

Moreover, the alignment between individual values and organizational culture enhances commitment. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) argue that a deliberate fit between employee and organizational values fosters trust and belief in the company's goals. This alignment allows employees to see their personal goals reflected in the organization's mission, reinforcing their dedication to achieving shared objectives. For instance, Iplik et al. (2011) found that managers in five-star hotels who reported a higher person-organization fit exhibited greater commitment to their organizations. When employees experience this congruence, they are more likely to perceive their work environment as supportive, which deepens their connection to the organization and motivates them to remain committed.

The significance of effective hiring practices is also apparent in the link between structured recruitment and increased employee commitment. Caldwell et al. (1990) identified a positive correlation between rigorous hiring practices and higher levels of employee commitment. Structured recruitment

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processes not only ensure the selection of qualified candidates but also cultivate a sense of organizational reliability and fairness. This perception is crucial, as employees are more likely to commit to organizations they view as consistent and just in their operational practices. Transparent and inclusive hiring practices create a sense of fairness and equality, contributing to stronger organizational trust, which in turn enhances employee commitment.

Breaugh (2013) emphasizes the significant impact of recruitment quality on the employee's long-term relationship with the organization. Effective recruitment ensures that employees possess not only the necessary skills but also a cultural fit with the organization, which strengthens their sense of belonging and commitment. The attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework, proposed by Schneider (1987), further underscores the importance of hiring in fostering employee commitment. This model highlights that organizations attract, select, and retain individuals whose values align with their culture, fostering a committed workforce. Employees who perceive that their personal values match the organization's culture are more likely to remain loyal and engaged.

Rynes and Cable (2003) emphasize that the clarity of job roles, communicated during hiring, increases the likelihood of employee satisfaction and retention. Employees who understand their roles are more likely to engage with organizational objectives, resulting in enhanced commitment. Clear communication during the hiring process reduces uncertainty and sets realistic expectations, which are essential for employees to feel confident in their roles and their ability to contribute to the organization's success.

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Furthermore, transparent and inclusive hiring practices positively influence employee perceptions of organizational justice, which is a critical predictor of commitment. Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991) found that employees who perceive fairness during hiring processes are more likely to develop trust and loyalty toward the organization. The fairness of recruitment and selection procedures contributes to the employee's sense of belonging and reinforces their commitment to the organization. Thus, organizations must design hiring strategies that are equitable, consistent, and aligned with organizational values to build a committed workforce.

In conclusion, hiring practices are a key determinant of employee commitment. By ensuring that recruitment processes are fair, transparent, and aligned with organizational values, companies can foster a committed workforce that is motivated to contribute to the long-term success of the organization. The integration of clear job expectations, a cultural fit, and transparent procedures during the hiring process enhances employee engagement and sets the stage for strong, lasting commitment.

Remuneration Practices and Employee Commitment

Remuneration is a cornerstone of employee motivation and commitment, encompassing wages, salaries, bonuses, and other forms of financial reward. Milkovich and Newman (1996) describe remuneration as a reward system that acknowledges and compensates employees for their contributions to the organization. Suparyadi (2015, as cited in Sari et al., 2020) categorizes remuneration into financial and non-financial components, both of which are essential in fulfilling employees' intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. While financial remuneration satisfies basic needs, non-financial rewards,

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such as recognition and job security, reinforce employees' psychological commitment to the organization.

Research highlights the critical role of remuneration in fostering employee loyalty and satisfaction. Bloom and Michel (2002) emphasize that remuneration significantly influences key attitudes, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance. Employees who perceive their compensation as fair and competitive are more likely to view their organization positively, fostering a stronger sense of belonging and attachment (Pfeffer, 1994). Conversely, inadequate or inequitable compensation can lead to dissatisfaction, reduced motivation, and diminished commitment, negatively affecting both individual performance and organizational outcomes.

The impact of remuneration extends beyond financial fulfillment, shaping employees' self-perception and organizational attachment. Mowday et al. (1982) argue that fair compensation enhances employees' sense of value and importance within the organization, reinforcing their loyalty. Milkovich and Newman (2005) note that remuneration directly affects employees' attitudes toward their roles, influencing their willingness to remain committed to the organization. When employees believe they are compensated fairly for their efforts, they are less likely to seek alternative employment opportunities, which reduces turnover rates and enhances workforce stability.

High remuneration levels also contribute to employee retention by fostering happiness, loyalty, and dedication. Nazir et al. (2014), highlights that competitive pay packages serve as powerful motivators, reducing absenteeism and turnover rates. Chiu et al. (2002) support this view, stating that equitable compensation promotes job satisfaction and organizational loyalty. However,

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when employees perceive their remuneration as inadequate or inconsistent with their expectations, their motivation and commitment are negatively impacted. This underscores the importance of designing remuneration systems that are both equitable and aligned with employee expectations to maintain high levels of organizational commitment (Chiang & Birtch, 2010; Igbaria & Greenhaus, 1992; Saeed et al., 2013).

Remuneration is a pivotal factor in shaping employee attitudes and behaviors, particularly their commitment to the organization. According to Eisenberger et al. (1990), remuneration is a tangible representation of organizational support, signaling appreciation for employees' contributions. This recognition fosters a sense of obligation and reciprocity, leading to increased commitment. Equity theory (Adams, 1965) suggests that employees assess their remuneration relative to others in similar roles. The perceived fairness in compensation is linked to higher levels of organizational commitment and reduced turnover intentions (Heneman & Judge, 2000). For instance, employees who view their salaries and benefits as competitive are more likely to exhibit loyalty and dedication to their organization (Tessema & Soeters, 2006).

Additionally, non-financial rewards such as recognition and career advancement opportunities complement monetary compensation in enhancing employee commitment. Deci et al. (1999) argue that intrinsic rewards foster self-determination and job satisfaction, both of which are critical components of commitment. Organizations that implement comprehensive remuneration strategies, including financial and non-financial incentives, create an environment that encourages sustained commitment.

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Performance Appraisal Practices and Employee Commitment

Performance appraisal is a vital human resource practice that serves as a platform for evaluating employee contributions and identifying development opportunities. Murphy and Cleveland (1995) describe performance appraisal as a systematic evaluation of employees' job performance, aimed at aligning individual contributions with organizational goals. Toppo and Prusty (2012), note that appraisals assess critical aspects of employee performance, including outcomes, behaviors, and attributes, providing a comprehensive view of their impact on organizational success. These evaluations enable organizations to reflect on past achievements, identify areas for improvement, and set objectives for future performance (Armstrong, 2010).

Fair and transparent performance appraisals significantly influence employee commitment by fostering trust and engagement. Abdallah (2014) highlights that appraisals serve as an integral tool for rewarding performance, identifying training needs, and making promotion decisions, all of which contribute to employee satisfaction and loyalty. Employees who perceive appraisal processes as fair and unbiased are more likely to develop trust in their organization, reinforcing their commitment to its objectives. Bekele et al. (2014) found that fairness in appraisal systems is a critical determinant of employee attachment, as it fosters a sense of equity and respect.

The relationship between performance appraisals and commitment is further supported by empirical studies. Salleh et al. (2013) observed that employees who experience fair and objective appraisals are more willing to invest extra time and effort in achieving organizational goals. Paşaoglu (2015) found a significant positive correlation between appraisal practices and

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organizational commitment, emphasizing the role of regular and unbiased evaluations in enhancing employee loyalty. Similarly, Giauque et al. (2010) identified impartial performance rating procedures as key drivers of commitment in Swiss SMEs, highlighting the importance of transparent evaluation systems in fostering trust and engagement.

Roberts (2003) underscores the predictive role of performance appraisals in shaping employee attitudes and behaviors. Organizations that prioritize the continuous improvement of appraisal practices are better positioned to maintain high levels of employee commitment and satisfaction. By aligning appraisal processes with employee expectations and organizational goals, firms can create a culture of accountability and recognition, fostering long-term commitment among their workforce.

Performance appraisal practices serve as a mechanism for aligning individual performance with organizational objectives, thereby influencing employee commitment. According to Fletcher (2001), effective appraisals provide employees with constructive feedback, clarify expectations, and recognize achievements, all of which enhance their engagement and loyalty. Perceptions of fairness in appraisal processes significantly impact employee attitudes. Greenberg (1986) highlights that procedural justice in appraisals fosters trust and a sense of equity, which are critical for commitment. Workers who recognize appraisals as objective and transparent have the propensity to admit performance outcomes consequently aligning their efforts with organizational goals (Erdogan, 2002).

The relationship between appraisal and commitment is further reinforced by the goal-setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990). Regular

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performance evaluations that involve collaborative goal-setting and development discussions create a sense of shared purpose between employees and employers. This collaborative approach strengthens employees' emotional attachment and commitment to the organization.

Training and Development Practices and Employee Commitment

Training and development are essential components of organizational strategy, designed to enhance employee skills and prepare them for future roles. Training focuses on improving specific competencies required for current job performance, while development emphasizes broader preparation for future responsibilities (Noe et al., 2007). Together, these practices form a continuous process that ensures employees remain adaptable and competent throughout their careers.

Bartlett (2001) highlights the significant impact of training and development on employee commitment. Employees perceive training opportunities as a tangible expression of the organization's investment in their growth, fostering a psychological contract that enhances their loyalty. McElroy (2001) adds that training increases employees' sense of value and importance, reinforcing their commitment to the organization. By demonstrating support for employee growth, training and development initiatives strengthen the bond between employees and their organization.

Empirical studies corroborate the positive relationship between training practices and employee commitment. Bulut and Culha (2010) found that training support, accessibility, and perceived benefits significantly enhance organizational commitment among employees in the hospitality industry. Similarly, Qiao et al. (2008) reported a strong link between training

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opportunities and organizational loyalty. Gellatly et al. (2009) observed that development-oriented HR policies increase employee engagement, while Al-Emadi and Marquardt (2007) demonstrated that training benefits positively correlate with organizational commitment among senior employees.

By investing in training and development, organizations not only enhance employee capabilities but also create a culture of mutual growth and respect. These practices create a sense of belonging and alignment with organizational goals, making them crucial elements of effective human resource management. Organizations that prioritize continuous learning and development are better equipped to retain a committed and motivated workforce, ensuring long-term success and sustainability.

Training and development are essential for enhancing employee skills and fostering commitment by demonstrating the organization's investment in its workforce. According to Nadler (1984), training focuses on improving job-specific skills, while development prepares employees for future roles and responsibilities. Both practices signal organizational support, which, in turn, enhances employee commitment.

The human capital theory by Becker (1960) posits that training increases the value of employees' contributions, thereby strengthening their commitment. When employees perceive training opportunities as beneficial to their personal and professional growth, they are more likely to remain loyal to the organization (Meyer et al., 2004). Additionally, SET (Blau, 1964) explains that training fosters a reciprocal relationship between workers and the employer. For example, Bartlett (2001) found that employees who participated in training programs reported higher levels of organizational commitment due

to perceived investment in their development. Similarly, Tannenbaum et al. (1991) argue that continuous learning opportunities enhance employees' engagement and alignment with organizational objectives.

Empirical evidence further supports the positive impact of training on commitment. Kraimer et al. (2011) found that development initiatives, such as leadership training and career planning, significantly enhance employees' affective commitment. Bulut and Culha (2010) also demonstrated that employees in organizations that prioritize training are more likely to exhibit loyalty and dedication.

Faith-based organization

The conceptualization of a faith-based NGO (FBO) as a church reflects the understanding that FBOs operate at the intersection of religious and community service functions, combining spiritual missions with developmental goals to address both spiritual and material needs within communities.

De Cordier (2009) defines FBOs as "non-governmental organizations whose mission and actions are rooted in religious traditions and values," emphasizing their dual focus on integrating spiritual guidance with community services. Similarly, Clarke (2007) identifies FBOs as entities that merge religious beliefs with social service delivery and social justice advocacy, making them critical players in addressing social inequalities. Ebaugh et al. (2003) further highlights FBOs' purpose in promoting faith values while offering humanitarian aid, while Mansour and Ezzat (2009) define them as organizations driven by spiritual principles to provide material and moral support.

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Churches exemplify FBOs by embodying these characteristics. They fulfill both spiritual and social roles, such as providing religious services and undertaking community development initiatives. Churches also act as mediators in social justice, delivering material and emotional support to vulnerable populations (James, 2011; Act Alliance, 2015). Their deep community roots allow them to address societal issues effectively, leveraging trust, cultural relevance, and faith networks (Ferris, 2005).

Moreover, churches align their humanitarian efforts with religious doctrines, integrating ethical guidance with service delivery, thereby reflecting the operational ethos of FBOs (De Cordier, 2009). Activities such as education, healthcare, disaster relief, and poverty alleviation further solidify their classification as FBOs, as they often surpass secular NGOs in community engagement and sustainability (Barnett & Stein, 2012). These characteristics underscore why churches are a natural fit within the broader framework of faith-based organizations.

Theoretical Framework

The study was based on three key theoretical frameworks: Michigan HRM model (Fombrun et al.,1984), Guest HRM model (Guest,1987), and the social exchange theory (Homans,1958).

The Michigan Model

Figure 2 illustrates the four core human resources management procedures that made up the Michigan model (Fombrun et al., 1984): selection, rewards, appraisal, and human resource development. The model emphasizes that the four functions of selection, rewards, performance management, and development must be appropriately aligned and applied in

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the organization to achieve superior performance at the individual and organizational level, which is the goal and function of all HR components (Devanna et al.,1984).

Bisharat et al. (2016), used the four HRM components of recruitment, training and development, performance appraisal, and rewards system in their study on the impact of HRM practices on commitment in Jordan as suggested in the Michigan model. Coffie et al. (2018) used recruitment and selection, rewards and recognition, performance appraisal, and training and development as HRM practices in their study of creating organizational commitment through HRM practices in the banking sector in Ghana. The four HRM practices were also employed by Nassar (2017) in his investigation into HRM practices and organizational commitment and in hotels in Egypt.

The Guest Model

The six elements of the Guest model were human resources management strategy, human resources management procedures, HRM outcomes, behavior outcomes, performance outcomes, and financial outcomes (Bratton & Gold, 2007). The theoretical framework that a core set of HRM practices will produce superior individual HRM results inside the firm is echoed by the model in Figure 3. The core proposition of the Guest model is that HR practices, when constructed and implemented well within an organizational setting, will accomplish a greater employee commitment which is an HRM outcome, and consequently improve performance of the organization. The core HRM practices therefore serve as the input variables and employee commitment becomes the expected HRM outcome.

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Social Exchange Theory

According to Emerson et al. (1997), one of the key theories for comprehending behavior at work is the social exchange theory (SET). Researchers agree that social exchange involves a sequence of transactions that lead to obligations, even though numerous perspectives on social exchange have arisen. Blau (1964) noted that the notion is viewed as a two-sided, equally gratifying approach that calls for a series of exchanges that rely on one another's activities. As a result, SET can be used to elaborate on worker behavior and the bond between two parties, including the employee and employer (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000).

Social exchanges involve obligations, which means that when one person does a favor for someone else, that person will expect some future return. When businesses treat their workers well, pleasant employee behavior results, which is considered as an intervening variable to produce inspiring employee behavior, and social exchange relationships are created.

Mitchell et al. (2012) argues that social exchange theory (SET) views social life as a continuous series of exchanges between two or more parties, where resources are exchanged through reciprocity, with one individual compensating for any of the actions of the other (Gouldner, 1960). According to Blau (1964), these transactions' value is significantly influenced by the association between the actor, employer, target or employee. Most significant studies in organizational behavior including commitment have all been successfully examined using the social exchange model (Bishop et al., 2000).

Relationships evolve into loyal, trusting, and reciprocal commitments, which is one of SET's fundamental tenets. To accomplish this, parties, in this

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case the employer and employee, must comply with specific rules of exchange that serve as the guidelines of exchange processes. As a result, the application of social exchange theory in studies of organizational behavior is outlined based on the rules of exchange. This exchange in social relationships, according to Eisenberger (1990), gets more robust when the parties are willing to exchange resources that are beneficial to one another. Whereas workers place importance on treatments which benefit them, employers on the other hand search for devotion and commitment (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000) and mostly organizations act as the initiators.

The development of high-quality exchange connections is claimed to be influenced by the organization's encouraging actions aimed at its personnel (Wayne et al., 1997). The concept suggests that when an employer takes positive actions, employees are likely to respond similarly, displaying more positive behaviors and little negative ones. Employee responses can be categorized into relational and behavioral types, with one often triggering the other. Furthermore, a sequence of successful mutual interactions can evolve an economic exchange into a stronger social exchange relationship, encouraging employees to feel emotionally engaged with their employers (Meyer, 1997).

Perhaps the most well-known transaction principle is reciprocity, or payment in kind. Within the context of the exchange rule, reciprocity may be characterized in three different ways: common belief, transactional pattern of mutually dependent trades; and an ethical standard. Reciprocal interdependence highlights conditional interpersonal relationships, where a party's action causes another to react. A two-way directed transaction is involved in the exchange; something is given, and something is returned.

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The defining characteristic of social exchange (Molm, 1994) therefore consists of shared and corresponding arrangements. The argument is that if an individual provides a benefit, the beneficiary of the benefit must respond in kind (Gergen, 1969). When one of the parties in the exchange initiates an action, then the process of exchange begins and if the other party in the exchange reciprocates, then another round of exchange begins. Each outcome can start a self-reinforcing cycle once the process is underway.

The reference to relationships by researchers refers to an association between two relating partners and the partners could be individuals or institutions. The common assumption is that workers can have distinctive social exchange connections with other individuals, including their immediate boss work colleagues, employing organizations and customers (Houston et al., 2006).

Masterson et al. (2000) stated that in the exchange process, individuals are more likely to show support and compassion to the person or people through whom they have a social exchange relationship because they are expected to repay the benefits they receive in kind. Meyer and Allen (1997) showed that organizational commitment predicts a range of workplace outcomes, and it is a relational notion that has been examined extensively (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Social exchange theorists argue that workers are inclined to trade their dedication for an organization's concern (Eisenberger et al., 1990). Researchers have advocated that appropriate HRM practices generate beneficial emotional well-being for employees who may encourage them to

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realize organizational goals (Becker et al., 1997) and their implementation of the HRM practices signal organization's trust in employees (Pfeffer, 1998).

Employees reciprocate management behavior using specific HRM practices by positive work-related behaviors (Aryee et al., 2002). Additionally, an employee's sense of reciprocity and level of commitment to the company are influenced by how HRM methods are applied within the organization. Findings from various studies revealed that employees believe the company will provide both symbolic and material incentives in exchange for their efforts and devotion. Human resource management practices are therefore seen as pragmatic approaches in nurturing employee commitment.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study was informed by the three theories: Michigan Model of HRM, Guest Model of HRM, and Social Exchange Theory (SET). Each theory provides valuable insights into the relationship between HRM practices, employee characteristics, and organizational outcomes, particularly focusing on employee commitment in the context of faith-based NGOs.

The Michigan Model, developed by Fombrun et al. (1984), emphasizes the alignment of HRM practices with organizational goals to maximize efficiency. This model highlights four key HR functions: selection, compensation, performance appraisal, and training and development. These functions are considered essential in shaping employee outcomes, including commitment and organizational performance. The Michigan Model suggests that when HR practices are implemented strategically, they help drive positive employee attitudes and behaviors, which directly influence organizational

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success (Fombrun et al.,1984). In this study, the Michigan Model guides the choice of the four HRM practices.

Building upon the Michigan Model, the Guest Model of HRM (Guest, 1987) focuses on the relationship between HRM practices, employee outcomes, and organizational performance. He advocates for high-commitment, high-outcome work techniques, where HRM practices are designed to promote commitment of employees, leading to enhanced individual and organizational performance. Guest (1987), introduces the distinction between best-fit and best-practice approaches, suggesting that HRM practices should be adopted to the organizational need and the employees.

The Guest Model in the context of this study, supports the idea that adopting commitment-oriented HRM practices enhances employee commitment, especially in faith-based organizations, where alignment with the organization's mission is crucial (Guest, 1987). The study examines how demographic factors such as sex, age, marital status, education, and years of employment influence employee perceptions of HR practices and their resulting commitment to the organization.

SET (Blau,1964), suggests that human interactions, including those within organizations, are based on a reciprocal exchange process. Employees evaluate the costs and benefits of their relationships with the organization, particularly how HRM practices affect their well-being and development. When employees perceive that the organization invests in them (e.g., through fair treatment, performance appraisals, and professional development opportunities), they are likely to reciprocate with higher levels of commitment

and engagement (Blau, 1964). In the study, SET helps explain why certain HRM practices such as hiring, remuneration, and training positively influence employee commitment. The theory suggests that employees are more likely to feel committed to the organization when they perceive their treatment as fair and aligned with their expectations (Mitchell et al., 2012).

The three theories connect to provide a holistic view of how HRM practices influence employee commitment behavior, and its organizational outcomes. The Michigan Model focuses on aligning HRM practices with organizational goals and strategic objectives, ensuring that four basic practices; hiring, compensation, appraisal and training are implemented to achieve desired organizational outcomes (Fombrun et al., 1984).

The Guest Model enhances this by emphasizing the importance of commitment driven HRM practices that contribute to long-term organizational loyalty, particularly in the context of FBOs, where mission alignment plays a key role (Guest, 1987). Social Exchange Theory adds a layer of understanding about how employees' perceptions of fairness in HRM practices lead to reciprocal commitments, benefiting both employees and the organization (Blau, 1964).

Together, these frameworks offer the basis for analyzing how HRM practices shape employee satisfaction and commitment, particularly in faith-based organizations where the integration of spiritual and social objectives is essential. By examining how HRM practices influence employees across different demographic and employment variables, this study contributes to understanding the dynamics of employee commitment in faith-based NGOs.

Profile of Respondents

1. Sex
2. Age
3. Marital status
4. Highest Level of Education
5. Years of employment
6. Employee Job status

Human Resource Management Practices

Hiring

Compensation

Performance Appraisal

Training and Development

Perception of implementation

Employee Commitment
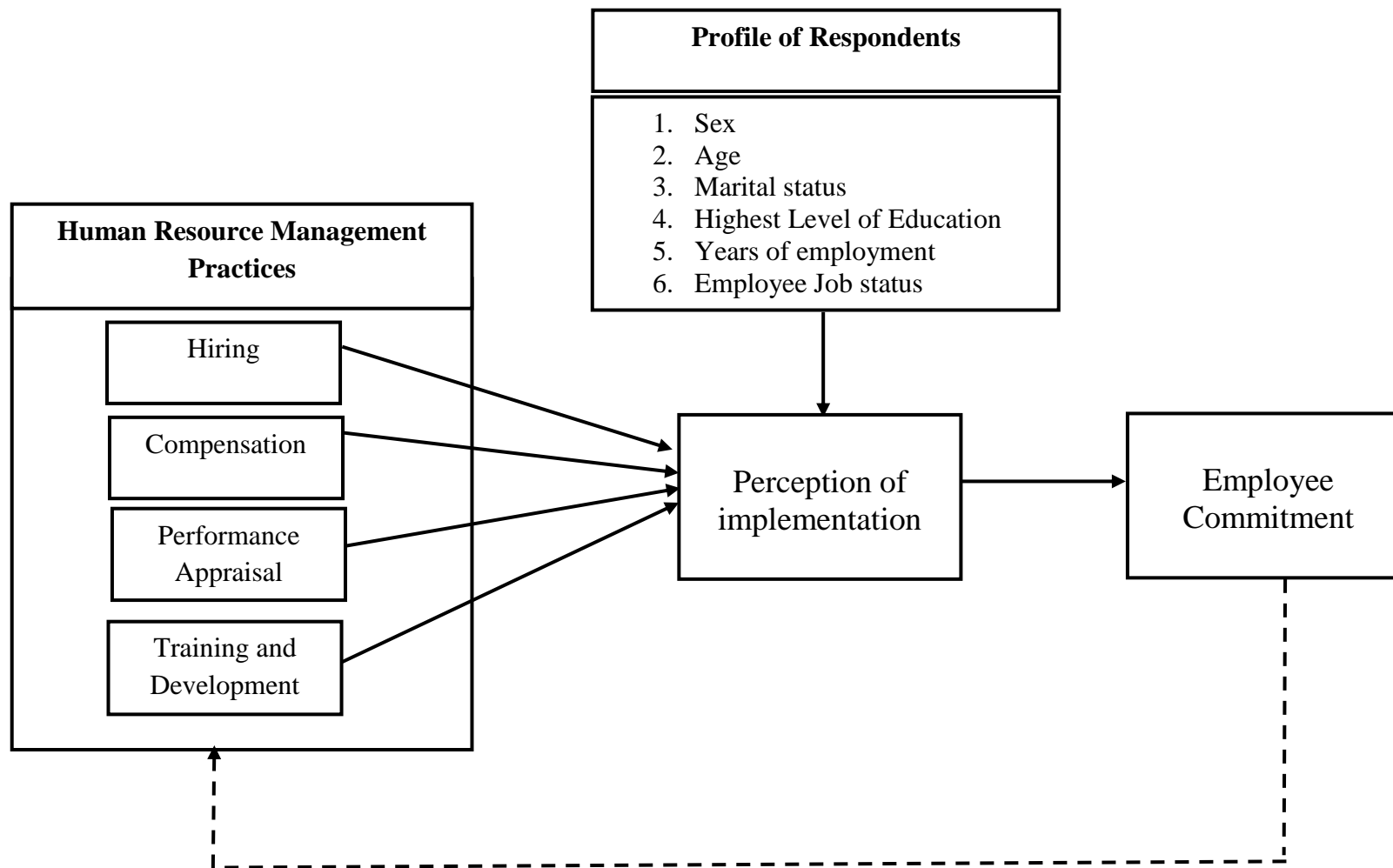
Figure 3: Conceptual Framework of effect of HRM practices on employees' commitment.
Source: Author's Construct, 2021.

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CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The methods employed to gather and analyze the study's data are described in this chapter. The topics discussed included the research paradigm, design, pilot study, study population, sampling method, sample size, research instrument used, procedure for collection of data and analysis used for the study.

Research Paradigm

According to Kuhn (1977), a research paradigm is a research culture that a group of researchers share regarding the purpose and methods of their work. In addition, paradigms can be thought of as the researcher's worldview and views about the nature of research; they are formed depending on the researcher's orientation, discipline, research communities, mentors, and prior research experiences (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Three paradigms dominate social research namely, positivism, constructivism or interpretivism, and pragmatism. Each of these ideas offers a unique perspective on the researcher's understanding of reality and truth (ontology), how they acquire that knowledge (epistemology), and how they conduct their research (methodology) (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

This study adopted the positivism approach. This view of research assumes that reality exists autonomous of humans and are realist in their ontological view. There is cause and effect relationship between phenomena in nature, and positivists try to understand these relationships in the social world just like the natural world. Positivist sees reality as context free, and

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therefore different researchers are most likely to arrive at similar findings about a particular phenomenon.

In its epistemological viewpoint, positivist researchers conduct themselves as objective observers who study social phenomenon that exist independently of the researcher and apply the use of language and symbols to label the phenomena as they are observed without interference by the researcher (Hutchinson,1988). To attain precision in the description of parameters and the existence of association among them, positivists arrange the knowledge-generating process with the adoption of quantification and scientific techniques (Hennning et al., 2004). Post-positivism, which is a modified perspective of positivists, observes that we cannot perceive total accuracy of objects of enquiry, however we still use this approach of enquiry to regulate the search of knowledge (Philips, 1990).

There are diversities of research methodologies with no specific one accepted as the only approach appropriate to all research problems. The choice of a particular research approach automatically brings a loss and a gain to the process (Schulze, 2003). Researcher's consciously or not brings their personal history, their views of themselves, others, and their ethical issues to influence research. These research assumptions are implemented in research using worldviews or paradigms which represent the "basic set of beliefs that guides action" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). The researcher then brings these beliefs to the research process (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011). According to Popkewitz et al. (1979), these beliefs give form and meaning to the research design.

Research Design

According to Saunders et al. (2019), a research design is the strategy for how the research questions will be addressed. The main focus of design is on "aims, uses, purposes, intentions and plans within the practical constraint of location, time, money" and the researcher's comfort (Hakim, 2000). There are three different ways to do research, according to Creswell and Cresswell (2018): quantitative, qualitative, and a combination of both qualitative and quantitative techniques. This study used a quantitative cross-sectional design.

By examining the relationship between variables that are measured with research instruments in such way that numbered data may be studied using statistical procedures, quantitative research is a strategy for testing objective theories (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This approach attempts to determine the scope of the presence of a relationship among aspects of a phenomenon by computing the variation (Boateng, 2016). According to Rovai et al. (2014), quantitative research is characterized by the researcher formulating a theory that is represented by a hypothesis and is tested, with conclusions regarding the hypothesis being drawn after observations and an analysis of the data gathered.

Study Population

A population is all the people or items with the unique traits that are to be studied (Bhattacharjee, 2012). All employees of the faith-based organization in Ghana's Greater Accra region who had been employed for at least two years comprised the study's population. There were 950 employees in 330 branch offices of the faith-based organization in Greater Accra with each branch having at least one minister and an administrative staff. Other

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branch offices had additional staff being administrative officers or managers (Faith-Based NGO Annual Report, 2021).

Sampling Procedure and the Sampling Size

To select participants for the study, a multi-stage random sampling procedure was employed. The sample size was determined using the table by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). With a total population of 950 employees, the calculated sample size for the study was 274 employees, ensuring statistical representativeness.

Additionally, the study identified 330 offices in the Greater Accra region as the sampling frame for office selection (Faith-Based NGO Annual Report, 2021). Using the same determination table, a sample size of 186 offices was established. Four (4) offices in Greater Accra, along with respondents in those branch offices in the Greater Accra region, were used to conduct a pilot study, which helped refine the survey instrument and ensure reliability and validity. These four offices and their staff were excluded from the actual study.

The Greater Accra region of the faith-based organization had two administrative zones, Region A and Region B.

- Region A: 420 employees across 147 offices
- Region B: 530 employees across 183 offices

Proportional sampling was used and allocated 121 employees and 83 offices to Region A and 153 employees and 103 offices to Region B, maintaining the ratio of employees and offices across regions.

Within the selected offices, a census approach was applied, where all employees who had been with the organization for at least two years were

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included in the study. This ensured that respondents had sufficient experience to provide informed perspectives on HRM practices and commitment. The questionnaire was distributed directly to the sampled employees to enhance participation and response accuracy.

The decision to focus on a single faith-based organization enabled a targeted examination of HRM practices and their impact on employee commitment. A single-case approach, as emphasized by Yin (2018), facilitates in-depth investigation into the processes and challenges of one unit, offering nuanced insights that can serve as a representative case study for similar organizations. This approach simplifies tracking specific HRM strategies, their implementation, and measurable outcomes.

The study adopted quantitative methods to analyze numerical data and derive objective insights into the faith-based organization's HRM strategies. Quantitative findings provide robust, statistically valid results that can inform policy recommendations and HRM practice improvements. Despite focusing on a single organization, the methodology allows for generalization within a defined scope, leveraging the representativeness of both the sample and region.

Additionally, studying the organization in the Greater Accra region was strategic because Greater Accra is Ghana's major urban and administrative hub, facilitating access to resources and respondents and the region's dynamic socio-cultural environment provides a rich context for understanding.

Data Collection Instrument

The study used a questionnaire tool to gather data. According to Kothari (2003), the questionnaire helps in the collection of correct and

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dependable data since answers are given at liberty without any stimulus. The instrument's face and content authenticity were guaranteed. The instrument was arranged in three parts.

  (a) section one: Demographic characteristics of employees and employee job status.

  (b) section two: Implementation of human resource management practices namely, hiring, remuneration, performance appraisal and training and development.

  (c) section three: Employees commitment.

The items in section one was background characteristics of participants namely sex, age, marital status, level of education, years of employment in addition to employee job status. The 40 scale items in section two on human resource management practices by Geringer et al. (2002) were adopted for the study. A Likert scale of 1 to 5, was used to measure implementation of HRM practices with 1 representing "not at all" and 5 representing "very large extent". The scale evaluates hiring, remuneration, performance appraisal, and training & development processes. For each subscale of the HRM practices, a single average overall score was calculated. The conversion ratings shown in table 2 were also used to gauge how well HRM practices were perceived to be implemented.

The organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) instrument scale components by Meyer and Allen (1997) were presented in section three. Originally, the 24-item instrument was intended to evaluate the affective, continuance, and normative aspects of organizational commitment. Each subscale contained eight items, and the Likert scale was used to score each

item on a scale from 1 to 5, with 1 denoting "strongly disagree" and 5 denoting "strongly agree." The study combined all the 24 items into a composite commitment and not in the subscales of continuance, affective and normative. A single overall average score for commitment was computed. The commitment level of employees was measured using the conversion scores as indicated in table 2.

Table 2: Level of Implementation and Commitment conversion scale used in the study.

Scale	Level of Implementation	Level of commitment
1.0 - 2.0	Poorly implemented	Low commitment
2.1 - 3.0	Fairly implemented	Moderate commitment
3.1 - 4.0	Highly implemented	High commitment
4.1 - 5.0	Greatly implemented	Great commitment

Source: Author's Construct (2021)

Pilot Study

Before the actual research was carried out, a pilot study was completed. This was done to make sure the research instrument was reliable. A total of Four branch offices of the faith-based organization were selected with two each from both administrative region A and B. 21 participants were chosen for the pilot study. The participants were purposefully selected and consisted of 7 staff each of ministers, administrative manager, and administrative staff. This ensured that all three categories of employee job status were captured.

According to Pilot et al. (2001), a pilot study is a trial run that is carried out in advance of the actual study and might be used to pre-test the research instrument. Pre-testing the research instrument and determining its

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applicability for the study was a major factor in the decision to conduct the pilot study.

Using SPSS 21, the data acquired from the pilot study was examined. Estimates of Cronbach's alpha reliability were utilized to assess the items internal consistency. The reliability coefficients for every subscale HRM practice and commitment are displayed in Table 3. Cronbach's Alpha estimates ranged from.735 to.901 for the five (five) subscales of the research instrument: hiring, compensation, performance appraisal, training and development, and commitment.

Table 3: Cronbach's alpha estimates of the research instrument

Construct	Alpha	Number of items
HRM Practices		
a. Hiring	.735	10
b. Remuneration	.813	9
c. Performance Appraisal	.875	11
d. Training and Development	.901	10
Employee Commitment	.722	24

Source: Pilot Study, (Annan, 2021)

Validity & Reliability

The employee commitment and HRM practices questionnaire used in this study have been extensively used by other researchers with related research interests. The scale's thorough piloting and refinement processes resulted in good content validity (Geringer et al., 2002) and provided triangulation proof to raise the scale's content validity. With their operationalization of the scale, Von Glinow et al. (2002) added empirical evidence of construct validity.

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The study by Geringer et al. (2002) on the HRM practices scale in forty (40) countries, including both industrialized and developing nations, presents a technique for undertaking globally dispersed human resource practices research, according to Von Glinow et al. (2002) and the report of the item measurements for each HRM practice's Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranged from.83 to.88.

Shahnawaz and Juyal (2006) and Nassar (2017) in their study of organizational commitment and human resource management practices in India and Egypt respectively used the scale with Cronbach's alpha scores for hiring decisions of 0.95, training and development of 0.91, performance appraisal of 0.88, and remuneration practices of 0.93.

The study's adapted the OCQ by Allen and Meyer, (1990), because it had been widely used in research and has good psychometric qualities and measures employees' commitment. The scale has strong evidence of validity and reliability. According to Cook et al. (1981), all the studies that have employed the scale have found Cronbach's alpha to be consistently high, ranging from 0.82 to 0.93 with a median of 0.90. Significant negative correlations provide further proof of the questionnaire's convergent validity, and it has shown both convergent and discriminant validity.

Hiring, remuneration, appraisal, training and development, and commitment subscales' Cronbach's   alpha values, which are shown from the pilot study in Table 3, varied from 0.74 to 0.90, demonstrating the scales' excellent reliability. A scale's Cronbach's alpha coefficient should be above 0.7, according to Pallant (2013), who supports the findings of the reliability analysis of the research instrument.

The data collection process for this study involved administering a standardized self-administered questionnaire to employees of the faith-based organization. The researcher, along with five trained enumerators administered the questionnaires to the respondents, which included ministers, administrative managers, and administrative staff. The data collection was conducted over a three-week period, ensuring ample time for completion and maximizing respondent engagement.

To address potential challenges related to low response rates, which are common in survey-based studies (Dillman et al., 2009), 450 questionnaires were administered, exceeding the original sample size of 274 employees. This approach was intentionally designed to enhance the likelihood of obtaining enough responses, as several studies have highlighted that the actual response rate often falls below the expected rate due to non-responses or incomplete submissions (Bryman, 2016). By administering more questionnaires than necessary, the study aimed to ensure that the final dataset would be robust and representative, compensating for any anticipated loss of responses.

The decision to distribute 450 questionnaires instead of the minimum required 274 was influenced by the desire to achieve a high response rate and account for variability in individual responses. As noted by Fowler (2013), increasing the number of distributed surveys can help mitigate non-response bias, which is vital in keeping the consistency and validity of the study. This approach also ensured that the sample size remained large enough for meaningful statistical analysis, particularly given the study's use of regression analysis, which requires adequate data to produce reliable and generalizable results (Hair et al., 1995).

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At the end of the data collection period, 341 completed questionnaires were returned, yielding approximately 75% rate of response. This response is seen as strong and reflects the effectiveness of the strategy used in collecting data, which included direct distribution and follow-ups, thereby improving participation and reducing the chances of under-representation of the target population.

The decision to administer 450 questionnaires was justified by the need to overcome potential challenges in achieving a sufficient response rate and to ensure that the study would yield reliable and statistically valid results. The higher number of distributed questionnaires allowed the researcher to mitigate non-response bias, improving the overall quality of the data and ensuring that the final sample was both representative and sufficient for robust analysis.

Data Analysis

SPSS version 21 was used to analyse the research data. The initial respondent demographic characteristics were very low frequencies and therefore recoded.

The age at last birthday of respondents was recoded from ten (10) categories to five (5) categories namely below 30, 30 to 39, 40 to 49, 50 to 59 and 60 and above.

Marital status was recoded from five (5) categories into two (2) categories, single and married.

The highest level of education was recoded into three categories (3), below bachelor, bachelor, and post-graduate.

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Years of employment of employees were recoded from a continuous scale into a categorical scale of three (3) categories, namely 10 years and below, 11 to 20 years and above 20 years.

Employee job status was recoded from six (6) categories to three (3) categories, administrative staff, administrative manager, and minister.

According to Cohen (1988), statistical power is critical for detecting true effects. When there are small frequencies in certain response categories, the statistical power is diminished, which can lead to Type II errors (failing to detect a true effect). By recording variables, the sample size in each group was increased, improving the likelihood of detecting meaningful patterns.

Hair et al. (2010) discuss how recoding categorical variables can simplify data interpretation. Combining categories can make the data more comprehensible and ensure the results are more meaningful, particularly in surveys or questionnaires where a large number of categories may be overwhelming. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) note that small frequencies can lead to unreliable results, especially when analyzing categorical data. By recoding, the influence of outliers or anomalies is minimized , ensuring the strength of the research conclusions.

In analyzing objectives one and two, mean, percentages, frequencies, and standard deviation was used to describe respondent's demographic characteristics and their level of implementation of HRM practices. The difference in the level of implementation of HRM practices and the demographics characteristics of the staff were compared using the independent t-test and one-way analysis of variance.

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used in the analysis of objective three to ascertain the difference between employees' job status, implementation of HRM practices, and level of commitment. When the ANOVA test revealed a significant difference between the various demographic factors, Eta-squared was computed to quantify the effect size of the significance for objectives one through three. Cohen's (1988) effect size classification was applied to determine the degree of significance between variables. To determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the categories of employee demographic information, Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was performed. To test for multicollinearity among the groups Bonferroni and Games-Howell post hoc multiple comparison were used when appropriate to determine the mean difference among the groups.

According to the level of measurement of the independent variables against the dependent variable, association coefficients were employed to analyze objective four's correlations between the independent and dependent variables. Phi, Biserial (rbi), and Rank Biserial (rrbi) correlation coefficients were employed.

The link among two inherently dichotomous nominal variables (such as sex, measured as 1 = male, 0 = female, and amount of commitment or implementation of HRM practices, defined as 1 = low extent, 0 = otherwise) is quantified by the phi (r) correlation. The degree of association between a nominal variable with an artificial dichotomy and a ratio or interval scale was measured using the Biserial Correlation (rbi). The degree of association between any nominal dichotomy (such as the level of HRM practice

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implementation) and ordinal or ranked level metrics (such as the highest level of education) was measured using the Rank Biserial (rbi) method.)

Table 4: Codes, sign of variables and correlation type used for data analysis of variables.

Demographic Variable	Codes	Sign	Type of Correlation
Sex (X_1)	1 =Male, 0 = otherwise	$\pm$	Phi
Age (X_2)	Number of years	$\pm$	Biserial
Marital status (X_3)	1 = married, 0 = otherwise	$\pm$	Phi
Highest level of Education (X_4)	Ordinal scale	$\pm$	Rank Biserial
Years of Employment (X_5)	Ordinal scale	$\pm$	Biserial
Employee Job status (X_6)	Ordinal scale	$\pm$	Rank Biserial
Hiring (X_7)	Ratio scale	$\pm$	Biserial
Remuneration (X_8)	Ratio scale	$\pm$	Biserial
Performance appraisal (X_9)	Ratio scale	$\pm$	Biserial
Training and development (X_{10})	Ratio scale	$\pm$	Biserial
Employee Commitment (X_8)	Ratio scale	$\pm$	Biserial

Based on the degrees of measurement of the variables employed, Table 4 shows the different correlations that were used. According to Dancey & Reidy's (2004) assessment of the correlation coefficient, a weak correlation ranged from 0.1 to 0.3, a moderate correlation ranged from 0.4 to 0.6, and a strong correlation ranged from 0.7 to 0. 9.

Multiple regression was employed to analyze Objective five and to identify the predictors of employee commitment from the independent variables, demographic characteristics of respondents, employee job status, and perceived level of HRM practices implementation. The list of the independent variables was:

a. Demographic characteristics of employees (X_1 - X_6)

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b. Human resource management practices (X_7 - X_{10})

Ethical Consideration

Undertaking a study in the researcher's institution poses ethical issues. The researcher is an "insider" within the organization itself. According to Trowler (2011), the "insider" tends to have very good access to both data and respondents and while the research may have chances of having impact on policies of the organization, there is considerable advantages and disadvantages to the research that need to be addressed and further posits the following challenges of an insider researcher as follows.

1. The potential of not producing neutral accounts and treating what is unusual as normal and therefore, not given the importance it requires.

2. A conflict between the researcher and a professional within the organization.

3. An interview bias situation could occur where respondents may change responses to the questions to support the preferences of the researcher.

Bell (2014) provides a guide to overcome access, ethics and the inherent challenges posed by insider research. This includes a formal permission to undertake the research in the organization, keeping to strict ethical standard throughout the entire research process, determining what is meant by anonymity and confidentiality, communicating with the participants who will be part of the research, deciding on access to the research report by participants, being sincere about the objective and conditions of the study, going through the process of always negotiating access and not assume understanding of how the organization functions.

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Homan (2001) further argues that it is imperative for insider researchers not to be their own gatekeepers and that the laid down processes must be followed to gather data and informed consent ought to be complied with before starting the study.

Before starting the data collection procedure, a written request to conduct the research was sent to the head office of the faith-based organization for official approval. The letter detailed the study's objectives and how the organization's data would be used. A copy of the approved letter from the faith-based organization was given to the organization's branch offices who were sampled to participate in the study. Participants were made aware of the study's goal at each of the branch offices.

When the researcher's intentions for the study differ from what is stated to participants, deception occurs in the research process, hence it is crucial to make this distinction clear to participants (Sarantakos, 2005). Participants were made aware that the study was intended for academic work and the responses they provided were to be used solely for academic reasons.

Seeking consent from participants is the most accepted practice in social research (Bailey, 1978). Participants' informed consent was requested as part of the data collection procedure, and participants were made aware that they might leave the study whenever they saw fit. Each participant in the study, including the employees, signed a consent form. The permission letter's main goal was to reassure participants that taking part in the study was completely voluntary and that they were free to stop at any time.

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CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The study's findings are presented in this chapter. It also discusses the results according to the specific objectives and hypothesis of the study.

Demographic characteristics of respondents

The demographic details of respondents are presented in Table 5. Majority of respondents were male, making up 73% (249) , while 27% (92) were female. Age-wise, the largest group, comprising 47% (156) of the respondents, was between 30 and 39 years old. The smallest group, 4% (14), was aged 60 and above. Additionally, 16% (56) of respondents were below 30 years, 18% (62) were aged 40 to 49 years, and 15% (50) were aged 50 to 59 years.

In terms of marital status, 68% (231) of respondents were married, while 32% (110) were single. Regarding education, 40% (136) held a bachelor's degree or higher, 36% (123) had a post-graduate degree, and 24% (82) had an education level below a bachelor's degree.

Employment tenure varied, with 86% (289) of respondents having 10 years or less of experience, 11% (36) with 11 to 20 years, and about 4% (12) having been employed for over 20 years.

In terms of job roles, 51% (174) of respondents were administrative staff, 34% (117) were ministers, and 15% (50) held the position of administrative managers

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics of Employees Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Variables		n	%
Sex	Male	249	73
	Female	92	27
Age as at last birthday (years)	Below 30	56	16.4
	30 – 39	156	46.6
	40 – 49	62	18.2
	50 – 59	50	14.7
	60 and above	14	4.1
Marital status	Single	110	32.3
	Married	231	67.7
Highest level of education	Below bachelor	82	24.0
	Bachelor	136	39.9
	Postgraduate	123	36.1
Years of employment	10 years and below	289	85.8
	11- 20 years	36	10.7
	Above 20 years	12	3.6
Employee job status	Administrative staff	174	51
	Administrative manager	50	14.7
	Minister	117	34.3

n=341.

Scale for level of implementation: 1.0 - 2.0 = Poorly implemented, 2.1-3.0 = fairly implemented, 3.1- 4.0 = highly implemented, 4.1 – 5.0 = greatly implemented

Source: Field Survey, Annan 2021

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Employees Level of implementation of HRM practices

The first objective was to compare employees' demographic characteristics and perceived level of implementation of human resource management practices.

Differences in employees' sex and perceived level of implementation of human resource management practices.

From table 6, both males (X =3.12, SD=.62) and females (X=3.20, SD=.77) perceived HRM practices to be highly implemented. The perceived mean level of implementation of HRM practices was higher for Females (X=3.21) than the males (X=3.12). The standard deviations for both male and female employees were less than 1, indicating agreement with the perceived application of HRM practices. The perceived mean level of implementation of HRM practices was compared to see if there was a statistically significant difference between sex of the employees. This was done using the independent sample t-test.

Table 6: Independent Sample t-test of Employee's Sex and Perceived Mean level of Implementation of HRM Practices

Sex of Employee	n	X	MD	SE	t	sig	CI (95%)
Male	249	3.12	-.083	.089	-.929	.355	-.2600-.0938
Female	92	3.21					

n=341 $\rho < 0.05$ Levene's statistics (F= 7.125, sig=.008) CI = Confidence interval

Scale of Level of Implementation: 1.0 - 2.0 = Poorly implemented, 2.1-3.0 = fairly implemented, 3.1- 4.0 = highly implemented, 4.1 – 5.0 = greatly implemented.

Source: Field Survey, Annan 2021

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Using an alpha level of 0.05, the analysis presented in Table 6 revealed no statistically significant differences in the perceived mean level of HRM practice implementation between males and females. Consequently, the study concluded that there is no significant relationship between employees' perceptions of the mean level of HRM practice implementation and their sex, thereby failing to reject the null hypothesis.

These findings suggest that employees' perceptions of HRM implementation are not influenced by their sex. This result aligns with the conclusions of Balatbat (2010), who investigated the perceived implementation of HRM practices in private higher education institutions. Balatbat similarly found that sex did not significantly affect employees' perceptions of HRM practices.

The consistency of these findings across different studies highlights the possibility that gender-neutral factors, such as organizational culture, management policies, or individual roles within the organization, might play a more prominent role in shaping perceptions of HRM practices. This suggests the importance of focusing on broader organizational strategies to ensure effective HRM practice implementation, rather than attributing variations to demographic factors like sex.

Differences in employees' age and perceived level of implementation of human resource management practices

As shown in Table 7, all categories of employees' age perceived the HRM practices to be highly implemented. The perceived mean level implementation of HRM practices of respondents aged 60 and above (X=3.49), was the highest, above the rest of employees' age categories. The

lowest perceived mean level implementation of HRM practices were respondents aged 40 to 49 years (X=3.03).

To ascertain whether there was a statistically significant difference between the age of employees and the perceived mean degree of HRM practice implementation, one-way analysis of variance was performed.

Table 7: ANOVA of Employees' Age and Perceived Mean Level of Implementation of HRM practices

Employee	n	X	SD	F	sig
Below 30	56	3.36	.64	4.313	.002
30 - 39	159	3.08	.73		
40 – 49	62	3.03	.61		
50 – 59	50	3.25	.49		
60 and above	14	3.49	.38		
Total	341	3.14	.66		

$\rho < 0.05$ Df (4,336), Eta- Squared = 0.18.

Scale of level of implementation: 1.0 -2.0 = Poorly implemented, 2.1-3.0 = fairly implemented, 3.1- 4.0 = highly implemented, 4.1 – 5.0 = greatly implemented.

Source: Field Survey, Annan 2021

At an alpha level of 0.05, Table 7 revealed that there were statistically significant differences between the age of employees and the perceived mean level of implementation of HRM practices; F (4, 336) = 4.313, =.002. The null hypothesis, that there was no significant difference between the perceived level of implementation of HRM practices and the age of the employees, was therefore not accepted by the study. The alternate hypothesis, according to the study's findings, that "employee age and the perceived mean level of application of HRM practices differ significantly, is accepted.

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According to Cohen's (1988) classification (0.01 = small effect, 0.06 = medium effect, and 0.14 = large effect), Table 7 effect size (calculated using eta squared) of 0.18 indicated that the actual difference in the mean scores of HRM practices among employees' ages was substantial.

Table 8: Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances among Employees' Age and Implementation of HRM Practices

Levene's Statistics	Sig
4.850	.001

$\rho< 0.05$ (below 30: n=56; 30 – 39: n=159, 40 – 49: n=62, 50 – 59: n =50; 60 and above: n=14).

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

The appropriate post hoc multiple comparison method to apply to identify the significant differences between the five age categories of employees' perceived HRM practice implementation levels was determined using Levene's test.   Levene's test of homogeneity of variance among employee age categories is presented in Table 8. Table 8 demonstrated that, at the 0.05 alpha level, the variance between the means was significant (df = 4, 336; =.001). As a result, the homogeneity of variance assumption was broken. The implication was that the age of employees and how HRM practices were really perceived to be implemented did not vary equally.

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**Table 9: Games-Howell's Post Hoc Multiple Comparison of Employees'
Age and Perceived Mean Level Implementation of HRM Practices**

Employees		MD	Original sample (n=341)		
A	B	A-B	Std. Error	Sig	CI (95%)
Below 30	30 – 39	.317	.104	.023	.030 - .605
	40 - 49	.337	.116	.035	.016 - .658
	50-59	-.106	.110	.870	-.200 -.413
	60 and above	-.124	.132	.881	-.504 - .257
30 – 39	40 - 49	.019	.097	1.00	-.248 - .288
	50 - 59	-.211	.090	.140	-.461 - .039
	60 and above	-.441	.116	.008	-.784 - 096
40 - 49	50 - 59	-.231	.104	.181	-.519 - .058
	60 and above	-.461	.127	.008	-.829 - -.093
50 -59	60 and above	.230	.122	.350	-.127 - .587

n= 341, ρ < 0.05* MD = Mean Difference. CI = Confidence interval

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

At an alpha level of 0.05, the Games-Howell multiple comparison technique was used to identify areas where there were significant differences between employees' ages and how they felt HRM practices were implemented. This is because the sample sizes for the five age categories of employees used in the ANOVA (below 30: n=56; 30–39: n=159; 40–49: n=62; 50–59: n =50; 60 and above: n=14) varied and the test of homogeneity of variance revealed that equal variances were not assumed.

Table 9 showed the multiple comparison of employees' age and the perceived mean level of implementation of HRM practices using Games-Howell's post hoc multiple comparison.

The results presented in Table 9 reveal several statistically significant differences in employees' perceptions of the level of implementation of HRM practices across different age groups. Specifically, there was a significant

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difference between employees aged below 30 (X = 3.36, SD = .64) and those aged 30 to 39 years (X = 3.05, SD = .73), with a p-value of .023. Similarly, employees aged below 30 (X = 3.36, SD = .64) had a significantly higher perception of HRM practices implementation compared to those aged 40 to 49 years (X = 3.03, SD = .61), with a p-value of .035.

Furthermore, the perceived mean level of HRM practice implementation differed significantly between employees aged below 30 (X = 3.36, SD = .64) and those aged 60 years and above (X = 3.49, SD = .38), with a p-value of .008. Lastly, a significant difference was also found between employees aged 40 to 49 years (X = 3.03, SD = .61) and employees aged 60 years and older (X = 3.49, SD = .38), with a p-value of .008.

The findings indicate that younger employees, specifically those aged below 30, perceive the implementation of HRM practices more positively than their counterparts in the 30 to 39 and 40 to 49 age groups. This could be due to several factors. The first being that, majority of employees below 30 (86% of respondents, see Table 5) have been employed for 10 years or less, meaning they are likely relatively new to the workforce and may have limited exposure to HRM practices.

Consequently, their expectations from the organization may be lower, and they might be more content with their current experiences, especially since they are often in non-managerial roles. Their relatively limited tenure within the organization could also lead them to accept the status quo in terms of HRM practices, without a strong basis for comparison to more established practices they may not have experienced yet. Additionally, younger employees may be less inclined to voice concerns about the implementation of HRM

practices for fear of potential victimization, further reinforcing their acceptance of current practices.

On the other hand, employees aged 60 years and older reported significantly higher perceptions of HRM practice implementation. These employees are more likely to have accumulated extensive experience within the organization, which often corresponds to a longer tenure and possibly a leadership or managerial role. Over time, such employees are likely to have witnessed the evolution of HRM practices and enjoyed the benefits that accompany these roles. As a result, their perceptions of the implementation of HRM practices are generally more positive compared to those in younger age groups who may not have had the same depth of exposure or responsibility.

The variation in perception across age groups underscores the impact of experience and accumulated knowledge within the organization. According to Wagner et al. (1984), employees' length of experience can shape their beliefs in organizational structures, and this effect is often more pronounced among older employees who have seen HRM practices evolve over time. Konrad and Hartmann (2002) also suggest that age plays a crucial role in shaping employees' attitudes toward HRM practices. Older employees tend to have more favorable attitudes toward these practices due to their accumulated experiences and the organizational benefits they have witnessed or received.

The findings suggest that age, along with the length of service within the organization, plays a significant role in shaping employees' perceptions of HRM practices. While younger employees may be less critical or more accepting due to limited exposure and experience, older employees with longer tenure and leadership roles tend to have more positive views, having

experienced the benefits of well-established HRM practices over time. This highlights the importance of considering employees' age and experience when designing and implementing HRM strategies to ensure that practices are effectively communicated and perceived across all levels of the organization.

Differences in employees' marital status and level of

implementation of human resource management practices

Table 10 showed that both single and married employees perceived HRM practices to be highly implemented. Single employees (X=3.18) perception of the HRM practices implementation was higher than married employees (X=3.13). The perceived mean degree of HRM practice implementation was compared to the employees' marital status to see if there was a statistically significant difference. This was done using the independent sample t-test.

Table 10: Independent Sample t-test of Employees' Marital Status and Perceived Mean Level of Implementation of HRM practices

Marital status	n	X	MD	SE	t	sig	CI (95%)
Single	110	3.18	.052	.077	.668	.505	-.1003-.2034
Married	231	3.13					

n=341 p < 0.05   CI = Confidence interval

Scale of level of HRM implementation: 1.0 -2.0 = Poorly implemented, 2.1-3.0 = fairly implemented, 3.1- 4.0 = highly implemented, 4.1 – 5.0 = greatly implemented.

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

Table10 indicated no statistically significant differences between employees' marital status and their perceived mean level of HRM practices implementation (ρ = .505) at an alpha level of 0.05. As a result, the study failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that marital status whether

single or married did not significantly influence employees' perceptions of the implementation of HRM practices.

This finding implies that employees' marital status does not play a determining role in shaping their views on how HRM practices are implemented within the organization. Regardless of whether employees are single or married, their experiences and assessments of HRM implementation appear to be consistent.

The results underscore the neutrality of marital status as a factor influencing perceptions of HRM practices. This suggests that other variables, such as organizational structure, the inclusivity of HRM policies, and the overall workplace environment, might have a more pronounced effect on how HRM practices are perceived. It also highlights the importance of adopting HRM practices that cater to a diverse workforce without bias toward demographic characteristics, such as marital status.

Additional research could examine whether this neutrality persists across different organizational contexts or industries. It may also be valuable to explore how other personal and situational factors, such as work-life balance needs, dependents, or support systems, interact with marital status to influence employees' overall satisfaction and perception of HRM practices. Such studies could help organizations further tailor HRM strategies to address the broader needs of their workforce effectively..

Differences in employees' level of education and the perceived level of implementation of HRM practices

Table 11 shows that all categories of employee's level of education perceived HRM practices to be highly implemented. The perception of implementation of HRM practices of employees with below bachelor level of

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education was the highest (X=3.25). This was followed by employees with bachelor level of education (X=3.20) and the least being employees with postgraduate level of education (X=3.02).

To ascertain whether there was a statistically significant difference between the educational attainment of employees and the perceived mean level of HRM practice implementation, one-way ANOVA was utilized. At an alpha level of 0.05, Table 11 revealed statistically significant differences; F (2, 338) = 3.867, =.022; between employees' level of education and perceived mean level implementation of HRM practices.

The study concluded that the alternative hypothesis "there is a significant difference in employees' level of education and the perceived mean level of implementation of HRM practices is accepted". The appropriate post hoc multiple comparison methods to utilize to identify the areas where there were significant differences between the employees' perceived level of HRM practice implementation and education level was determined using Levene's test.

Table 12 shows the test of homogeneity of variance among employees' level of education. Table 12 showed that the variance which existed among the means was not significant (df = 2, 338; ρ = .234) at 0.05 alpha level. This meant that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not violated.

Table 11: ANOVA of Employees' level of Education and Perceived Mean Level of Implementation of HRM practices

Employee	n	X	SD	F	sig
Below bachelor	82	3.25	.69	3.867	.022
Bachelor	136	3.20	.60		
Postgraduate	123	3.02	.70		
Total	341	3.14	.67		

$\rho < 0.05$ Eta- Squared = 0.19. Df (2, 338)

Scale of level of HRM implementation: 1.0 -2.0 = Poorly implemented, 2.1-3.0 = fairly implemented, 3.1- 4.0 = highly implemented, 4.1 – 5.0 = greatly implemented.

Source: Field Survey, Annan 2021

Table 12: Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances among Employees level of education and Perceived Mean level of Implementation of HRM Practices

Levene's Statistics	Sig
1.460	.234

$\rho < 0.05$ (below bachelor: n=82; bachelor: n= 136, Postgraduate: n=123)

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

This meant that, even though the sample sizes for the three employee groups varied and the sample size for those with less than a bachelor's degree was smaller (n=82) than the sample sizes for those with a bachelor's degree (n=136) and postgraduate degree (n=123), equal variances are assumed among the three categories of employees' level of education.

The Bonferroni post hoc text was used to determine where the significant difference existed among the categories of employee's level of education. This is due to the homogeneity of variance test demonstrating that equal variances were assumed.

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Table 13 showed the multiple comparison mean perceived level of implementation of HRM practices of the three categories of employees.

Table 13: Bonferroni's Post Hoc Multiple Comparison of Employees Level of Education and Perceived Mean Level of Implementation of HRM Practices.

Employees		MD	Original sample (n=341)		
A	B	A-B	Std. Error	Sig	CI (95%)
Below bachelor	Bachelor	.053	.092	1.00	-.169- .275
	Postgraduate	.236	.094	.038	.009 - .463
Bachelor	Postgraduate	.182	.082	.080	-.015- .381

n= 341, ρ < 0.05* MD = Mean Difference. CI = Confidence interval

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

The results in Table 13 indicate a statistically significant difference (ρ = .502) between employees with a bachelor's degree (M = 3.20, SD = .60) and those with a postgraduate degree (M = 3.02, SD = .70) regarding the perceived implementation of HRM practices, with the perceived level of HRM practice implementation being significantly higher among employees with a bachelor's degree.

This finding is intriguing, as it suggests that employees with higher educational qualifications do not necessarily perceive a higher level of HRM practice implementation, which deviates from some conventional expectations.

A possible explanation for this results could be the type roles performed by employees in the worker place. Employees with bachelor's degrees may generally occupy roles that are more aligned with the organization's operational and strategic priorities, where the implementation of HRM practices is more visible and impactful. On the other hand, employees with

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postgraduate degrees may hold positions that involve more specialized, technical, or strategic functions, where HRM practices may be less apparent or relevant in their daily work. This distinction could lead to different perceptions of the implementation of HRM practices. Postgraduate employees may be more focused on high-level tasks and responsibilities that do not require or benefit as much from HRM interventions that are typically aimed at operational and developmental levels of the workforce.

Moreover, employees with postgraduate qualifications may have higher expectations from the organization, which could lead to them perceiving the level of HRM practice implementation as inadequate. This aligns with the findings of some studies that suggest employees with higher education levels may have higher expectations for workplace practices, including HRM strategies (Hancock et al., 2013). When these expectations are not met, their perceptions of HRM practices may be less favorable, which could explain the lower mean scores for HRM implementation among employees with postgraduate degrees.

Additionally, it is important to consider the nature of HRM practices themselves. Some HRM practices may be more generic or foundational, such as recruitment, remuneration, and training, which are typically more directly relevant to employees in operational roles and those with less specialized qualifications (Aguinis, 2009). These practices may be perceived as being implemented more consistently and effectively by employees with a bachelor's degree. On the other hand, practices related to career advancement, leadership development, or strategic decision-making may be more relevant to employees with higher educational qualifications but may not be as uniformly

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applied or visible in their experience, leading to their lower perception of HRM practice implementation.

Furthermore, the discrepancy in perceived HRM implementation between employees with different educational qualifications could also be related to the career stage and tenure within the organization. Employees with postgraduate degrees may have more experience or tenure in the organization, which may influence their perspectives on HRM practices. They may have had the opportunity to engage with a broader range of HRM practices, leading them to form more critical assessments of their quality or effectiveness. On the other hand, employees with bachelor's degrees may have less experience and therefore fewer comparisons to draw from, leading them to perceive HRM practices as being more effectively implemented, even if they are not necessarily so.

The findings from Table 13 suggest that employees with a bachelor's degree perceive a higher level of HRM practice implementation than employees with postgraduate degrees, possibly due to differences in the types of roles, expectations, and exposure to HRM practices across education levels. This highlights organization's obligation to tailor HRM practices to address the specific wishes and expectations of workers at different educational and experience levels to ensure that HRM strategies are perceived as equitable and effective by all employees, regardless of their qualifications.

In FBOs, HRM practices might emphasize relational, spiritual, or community-oriented approaches over formalized procedures. Postgraduate employees, trained in secular HRM approaches, might perceive a mismatch between these approaches and conventional standards. If HRM practices such

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as training and career progression are less robust for employees with higher qualifications, they may perceive the implementation of HRM practices as insufficient compared to their expectations.

Differences in Employees Years of Employment and the Level of implementation of HRM practices

Table 14 showed that employees with 10 years and above and those with above 20 years of employment perceived HRM practices to be highly implemented.

Table 14: ANOVA of Employees years of employment and the Perceived Mean Level Implementation of HRM practices

Employee's years of Employment	N	X	SD	F	sig
10 years and below	289	3.19	.67	7.531	.001
11- 20	36	2.74	.54		
Above 20	12	3.22	.59		
Total	337	3.14	.69		

$\rho < 0.05$ Eta- Squared = 0.18. Df (2, 334)

Scale of level of implementation: 1.0-2.0 = Poorly implemented, 2.1-3.0 = fairly implemented, 3.1- 4.0 = highly implemented, 4.1 – 5.0 = greatly implemented.

Source: Field Survey, Annan 2021

Employees with 11 to 20 years of employment perceived HRM practices to be fairly implemented. The mean level of implementation of HRM practices for employees with above 20 years of employment (X=3.22, SD=.59) was higher than employees with 10 years and above (X=3.19, SD =.67) and 11 to 20 years of employment (X=2.74, SD = .54).

To ascertain whether there was a statistically significant difference between the number of years of employment of employees and the perceived

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mean level of implementation of HRM practices, one-way analysis of variance was utilized. Table 14 indicates that there were statistically significant differences; F (2, 334) = 7.531, ρ = .001; between employees' years of employment and the perceived mean level of implementation of HRM practices at an alpha level of 0.05.

The study concluded that the alternate hypothesis, which states that "there is a significant difference between employees' years of employment and the perceived mean level of implementation of HRM practices was accepted. Table 14 also showed the calculated effect size of 0.18. This illustrates the extent of the difference between the mean HRM practice ratings for employees and the size of the significance. The appropriate post hoc multiple comparison approach to be utilized to identify where the significant differences were among the three employee groups and the perceived mean level of HRM practice implementation was determined using Levene's test of homogeneity of variance.

Table 15 showed the test of homogeneity of variance between employees' years of employment and the perceived mean level implementation of HRM practices.

Table 15: Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances among Employees years of employment and Perceived Mean level of Implementation of HRM Practices

Levene's Statistics	Sig
.782	.256

ρ< 0.05 (Administrative staff: n=174; Administrative managers: n= 50, Ministers: n=117)

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

Table 15 demonstrates that, at the 0.05 alpha level, the variance between the means was not significant (df = 2, 334; =.256). This meant that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not violated and that equal variances were assumed among the three groups of employees even though the sample size for each of the three groups of employees were different and the sample size of the employees with above 20 years of employment was smaller (n=12) compared to the sample size of the administrative employees with 10 years and above (n=289) and 11 to 20 years (n=36) years of employment.

The Bonferroni test of multiple comparison technique was used to determine where significant differences existed among the three groups of employees' years of employment and the perceived mean level implementation of HRM practices. This is because the test of homogeneity of variance revealed that equal variances were assumed and in addition the sample sizes of the three categories of employees employed for the ANOVA were very different (Field Survey, 2021).

Table 16 shows the multiple comparison perceived mean level implementation of HRM practices of the three categories of employees using Bonferroni's test of multiple comparison for the original sample.

Table 16: Bonferroni's Post Hoc Multiple Comparison of Employees years of Employment and Perceived Mean Level Implementation of HRM Practices.

Years of employment		MD	Original sample (n=341)		
A	B	A-B	Std. Error	Sig	CI (95%)
10 years and below	11-20	.448	.116	.000	.168 - .727
	Above 20	-.024	.193	1.00	-489 - .441
11-20	Above 20	-.472	.219	.095	-998 - .054

n= 341, ρ < 0.05* MD = Mean Difference. CI = Confidence interval

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

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The findings presented in Table 16 reveal a statistically significant difference (ρ = .000) between employees with 10 years or less of employment (X = 3.19, SD = .67) and employees with 11 to 20 years of employment (X = 2.74, SD = .44) regarding their perceptions of the implementation of HRM practices. Specifically, employees with 10 years or less of employment perceive a greater level of HRM practice implementation than those with 11 to 20 years of tenure.

This result suggests that employee perceptions of HRM practices vary significantly with years of experience, with those who have been with the organization for a shorter period, generally perceiving these practices as being more effectively implemented. A possible explanation for this finding could lie in employee tenure and expectations. Employees with 10 years or less of employment are often younger, less experienced, and more likely to occupy non-managerial or entry-level roles. As such, they may be more content with the HRM practices in place, as they might not have had the opportunity to experience or compare them to practices in other organizations.

Additionally, these employees may not yet have developed high expectations for HRM practices and may be more accepting of the current state of affairs. SET (Blau, 1964), indicates that these younger, less experienced employees may feel a sense of reciprocity toward the organization and perceive the implemented HRM practices as sufficient for their current needs.

Furthermore, the lower levels of perceived HRM practice implementation among employees with 11 to 20 years of tenure may reflect a difference in expectations that develop over time. As employees gain more

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experience and possibly progress into managerial roles, their expectations of HRM practices may increase. This group of employees are more likely to have higher demands for career development, recognition, and job satisfaction, which may not always be met by the organization. According to Salami (2008), employees with longer tenure and more experience, particularly those in managerial roles, often have greater expectations for the quality and completeness of HRM practices and may become more critical when these expectations are not fulfilled. This dissatisfaction could explain their lower perception of the implementation of HRM practices.

Additionally, employees with longer tenure may have been exposed to multiple changes in HRM practices over time. If these changes were not effectively implemented or communicated, employees might perceive the implementation of HRM practices as inconsistent or inadequate. Over time, employees may become more attuned to the distinctions of HRM practices, and their expectations may shift from basic fulfillment of needs to more sophisticated forms of development, recognition, and strategic alignment. When these more advanced needs are unmet, it could lead to discouragement and a lower perception of HRM practice implementation.

In contrast, employees with fewer years of employment may be less experienced in evaluating HRM practices or may have been exposed to a more standardized and consistent set of practices. These practices may appear to be well-implemented from their perspective, especially if they have not yet encountered the limitations or challenges faced by more tenured employees. This aligns with the notion that newer employees may have lower expectations

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or fewer frames of reference, and thus perceive HRM practices more favorably (Wagner et al., 1984).

These findings also suggest that the perception of HRM practice implementation can be influenced by employee tenure and the resulting experiences and expectations. As employees become more established in the organization, their perspectives on HRM practices may shift, reflecting a deeper understanding of the practices and a higher standard for their quality and effectiveness. Organizations should recognize this progression and adapt their HRM strategies to address the evolving expectations of long-tenured employees to ensure continued satisfaction and commitment.

Employees with 10 years or less of employment tend to perceive HRM practices more positively than employees with 11 to 20 years of tenure, likely due to differences in experience, expectations, and role types. This highlights the importance for organizations to consider how the needs and perceptions of employees evolve over time and to ensure that HRM practices are sufficiently dynamic to meet the expectations of both new and more experienced employees.

Employees' Level of Commitment

Objective two was to compare employees' demographic characteristics and their level of commitment. Table 17 shows the descriptive statistics of employees' level of commitment. 74% (239) of respondents were males and 26 % (86) were females.

The majority (47%) of respondents were between 30 to 39 years and minority were aged 60 years and above. 69% (225) of respondents were married and 31% (100) were single. 24% (78) of respondents were with below

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bachelor degree, about 40% (132) with bachelor degree and about 36% (115) were with postgraduate degree as their highest level of education. 85% (273) of respondents had below 10 years of employment, 11% (36) of respondents had 11 to 20 years of employment and 4% (12) had above 20 years of employment.

Table 17: Descriptive Statistics of Employees Demographic Characteristics and Mean Level of Commitment

Demographic Variables		N	%	SD
Sex	Male	239	73.5	.52
	Female	86	26.5	.60
Age as at last birthday (years)	Below 30	54	16.6	.57
	30 - 39	153	47.1	.55
	40 - 49	58	17.8	.60
	50 - 59	48	14.8	.39
	60 and above	12	3.7	.44
Marital status	Single	100	30.8	.50
	Married	225	69.2	.55
Highest level of education	Below bachelor	78	24.0	.55
	Bachelor	132	40.6	.60
	Postgraduate	115	35.4	.44
Years of employment	10 years and below	273	85.0	.52
	11- 20 years	36	11.2	.38
	Above 20 years	12	3.70	.86

n=325. Scale of level of commitment: 1.0 -2.0 = low commitment, 2.1-3.0 = moderate commitment, 3.1- 4.0 = high commitment, 4.1 – 5.0 = great implemented.

Source: Field Survey, Annan 2021

Differences in employees' sex and level of commitment

Table 18 indicates a high level of commitment for male and female employees with females (X=3.59) having a higher mean commitment level than males (X=3.55). To ascertain whether there was a statistically significant difference between employees' sex and the mean level of commitment, the independent sample t-test was utilized.

Table 18: Independent Sample t-test of Employees Sex and level of Commitment

Sex of Employee	n	X	MD	SE	t	sig	CI (95%)
Male	239	3.55	-.037	.089	-.516	.607	-.2600-.0938
Female	86	3.59					

n=325 ρ < 0.05   CI = Confidence interval

Scale of level of commitment: 1.0-2.0 = low commitment, 2.1-3.0 = moderate commitment, 3.1- 4.0 = high commitment, 4.1 – 5.0 = great commitment.

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

Table 18 of the study indicates no statistically significant relationship between employees' sex and their level of organizational commitment ($ρ$ = .607) at the 5% significance level. Consequently, the study failed to reject the null hypothesis, concluding that there is no significant difference in the mean level of commitment between male and female employees. This finding suggests that sex does not influence employees' commitment levels in the context of this study.

The results, align with previous studies that have similarly found no significant sex-based differences in organizational commitment. For example, Khalili and Asmawi (2012), in their research on sex differences and organizational commitment in an Iranian private company, arrived at the same decision. Similarly, Dogar (2014), in a study of employees in Istanbul's banking sector, also found no significant variance in the commitment levels between male and female employees. These findings suggest a broader trend in certain sectors or cultural contexts where sex does not play a defining role in determining organizational commitment.

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However, the findings of this study differ from those reported by Kumasey et al. (2014) in Ghana's service industry. They observed that male employees were more committed than their female counterparts. This observation was echoed by Afum-Osei et al. (2015) in a study of commercial bank employees in Ghana, where male employees demonstrated higher levels of organizational dedication than females. Such differences in results could stem from the varying nature of the industries studied, cultural dynamics, or other context-specific factors.

Several factors may explain why this study did not observe significant differences in commitment levels between males and females. This study was conducted in the non-governmental organization (NGO) sector, which is often perceived as less competitive and performance-driven compared to service-oriented or banking sectors. Such an environment might reduce the impact of competitive pressures on employees' commitment levels.

Also, male respondents made up a significant majority (73%) of the sample, with female respondents accounting for only 26%. This imbalance may have influenced the findings. Interestingly, female employees scored a higher average commitment level (X = 3.59), possibly due to their minority status in the organization. As a minority, women might perceive their roles as particularly critical, thereby fostering higher levels of dedication to their work.

The specific cultural and organizational context of the faith-based NGO may have cultivated a more inclusive workplace, reducing gender-based differences in commitment levels. These findings highlight the importance of considering organizational context when examining factors that influence employee commitment.

Differences in employees' age and level of commitment

As shown in Table 19, employees aged 60 years and above had the highest level of commitment (X=3.94), followed by employees aged 50 to 59 (X=3.63), then 40 to 49 (X=3.58), then below 30 (X=3.53), and the lowest being employees aged 30 to 39 years (X=3.52). All categories of employees' age indicated a high level of commitment.

The findings of the study indicate that older workers display commitment levels higher than younger workers.. However, an ANOVA test revealed no statistically significant differences between employee age groups and level of commitment, with $F_{(4, 320)} = 2.019$, $\rho = .092$ at a 5% significance level. Consequently, the study failed to reject the null hypothesis, concluding that employee age does not significantly influence organizational commitment.

Table 19: ANOVA of Employees Age and level of commitment

Employee	n	X	SD	F	sig
Below 30	54	3.53	.57	2.019	.092
30 - 39	153	3.52	.55		
40 - 49	58	3.58	.60		
50 - 59	48	3.63	.39		
60 and above	12	3.94	.43		

$\rho < 0.05$ Eta- Squared = 0.18.

Scale of level of commitment: 1.0 -2.0 = low commitment, 2.1-3.0 = moderate commitment, 3.1- 4.0 = high commitment, 4.1 – 5.0 = great commitment.

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

Although the results are not statistically significant, the trend indicating higher commitment among older employees aligns with the findings of Afum-Osei et al. (2015). Their study, conducted in a Ghanaian commercial

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bank, reported that older employees exhibited greater organizational dedication compared to their younger colleagues. This trend may reflect broader patterns influenced by life stage, career goals, or workplace values that evolve with age.

Older employees often have more work experience and organizational tenure, fostering a deeper connection and loyalty to their employer. Their familiarity with the culture of the organization may increase commitment. Also, older workers may prioritize stability and long-term goals, leading to greater alignment with organizational objectives. In contrast, younger employees might focus more on career advancement and personal development, potentially leading to lower levels of commitment to a single employer.

The study was conducted in the NGO sector, which may offer a more flexible, mission-driven environment appealing to older employees seeking purpose-driven work. Younger workers, on the other hand, may be exploring career options and thus exhibiting less commitment. In many cultural settings, older employees are traditionally seen as more reliable and responsible, which may influence their attitudes toward work and organizational loyalty.

While this study and Afum-Osei et al. (2015) observed a trend of greater commitment among older employees, contrasting findings exist. For instance, some research highlights no significant differences in commitment levels based on age, emphasizing the role of other factors such as job satisfaction, leadership style, and organizational support in shaping commitment.

The results emphasize the need to understand the nuanced relationship between age and organizational commitment. While age alone may not be a

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statistically significant determinant, it could interact with other factors like job satisfaction, role alignment, and workplace environment.

Differences in employees' marital status and level of commitment

The results from Table 20 indicate that both single and married employees exhibited a high level of commitment to the faith-based organization, but the level of commitment among married employees (X = 3.61) was significantly higher than that of single employees (X = 3.46). The independent sample T-test revealed a statistically significant difference between the marital status of employees and their level of commitment (ρ = .027), supporting the rejection of the null hypothesis that there is no difference in commitment based on marital status.

Table 20: Independent Sample T-test of Employees Marital Status and Level of Commitment

Marital status	n	X	MD	SE	t	sig	CI (95%)
Single	100	3.46	-.144	.065	-2.22	.027	-.2707-.0163
Married	225	3.51					

n=325 ρ < 0.05   Levene's statistics (F= .045, sig=.831) CI = Confidence interval

Scale of level of commitment: 1.0 -2.0 = low commitment, 2.1-3.0 = moderate commitment, 3.1- 4.0 = high commitment, 4.1 – 5.0 = great commitment.

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

The results suggest that marital status plays a role in influencing employees' organizational commitment, with married employees showing a stronger attachment to the workplace compared to their single colleagues.

These findings align with prior research indicating that marital status can influence organizational commitment. For instance, John et al. (2006)

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found in a study of university employees in Pakistan that married employees were more committed than their single colleagues, a conclusion also supported by Salami (2008), who observed higher commitment levels among married employees.

In line with this, Igbeneghu and Popoola (2010) also found a significant relationship between marital status and organizational commitment among employees in Nigerian higher education institutions, suggesting that employees who are married incline to possess higher commitment levels to their jobs

The reason for this outcome is likely rooted in the idea that marriage brings additional responsibilities, which may lead employees to value job stability and organizational support more highly. Married employees, particularly those with family responsibilities, may view their work as a critical source of income and security, increasing their motivation to remain loyal and committed to their organization.

However, it is important to note that other studies have found contrasting results. For example, Affum-Osei et al. (2015), discovered that single employees were more committed than married employees in their study of commercial banks employee's commitment in Ghana. This discrepancy may be explained by contextual differences such as the nature of the work environment, organizational culture, or regional factors that influence employees' attitudes and commitment levels. For instance, single employees might have fewer external obligations and may be more flexible or motivated to invest their energy and time in their jobs, particularly in organizations that offer career growth opportunities.

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In the context of a faith-based organization, the higher commitment levels among married employees could be attributed to the stability and long-term support they seek in their professional lives. Bayona-Sáez et al. (2009) argue that married employees are typically more dependable, as they have additional financial and familial responsibilities that they need to fulfill. These responsibilities often translate into a greater commitment to their employer, as the organization plays a vital role in providing the means to meet these obligations.

In contrast, single employees may not face the same pressures and responsibilities, leading them to place less emphasis on long-term organizational loyalty or commitment. Single employees, particularly those with fewer family ties, might prioritize personal goals or career development opportunities, which could influence their level of commitment to the organization.

The study contributes to the understanding of how marital status impacts employees' organizational commitment in faith-based organizations. The findings suggest that marital status, along with other personal factors, can significantly shape employees' attitudes toward their work. The higher commitment observed among married employees in this study underscores the importance of considering demographic factors, such as marital status, when designing HRM practices that aim to foster employee engagement and retention. However, it is also essential to recognize the diversity of factors that could affect commitment, including work-life balance, personal values, and career development opportunities, which may vary between employees.

Differences in employees' level of education and level of commitment

Table 21 shows that all categories of employees' level of education indicate a high commitment level. The commitment level of employees with below bachelor (X=3.66) level of education was higher than employees with bachelor (X=3.58) and postgraduate education (X=3.48). The results indicate that employees with a lower level of education had a greater level of commitment than employees with a much higher level of education (See Table 21).

ANOVA was applied to test the null hypothesis that there is no difference between employees' level of education and their commitment level at an alpha level of .05. Table 21 shows that there were no statistically significant variations between employees' levels of education and level of commitment at an alpha level of 0.05: $F (2, 322) = 2.801, =.062$.

Table 21: ANOVA of Employees Level of Education and Level of Commitment

Employee	n	X	SD	F	sig
Below bachelor	78	3.66	.55	2.801	.062
Bachelor	132	3.58	.60		
Postgraduate	115	3.48	.44		
Total	325	3.56	.54		

$\rho< .05$ Eta = 0.08

Scale of level of commitment: 1.0 -2.0 = low commitment, 2.1-3.0 = moderate commitment, 3.1- 4.0 = high commitment, 4.1 – 5.0 = great commitment.

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

The study's findings revealed that employees' level of education does not significantly influence their commitment to the faith-based NGO. The

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study therefore failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that there is no significant difference between employees' level of education and their level of commitment. The effect size calculation of 0.08, shown on table 20 indicates a medium difference in mean scores of organizational commitments across various education levels.

These findings align with the results of Clarence and George (2018), who examined Catholic college teachers in Bangalore and found that educational qualifications had no significant impact on organizational commitment. Similarly, Ali and Zafar (2006) observed that workers with higher educational qualifications had lower levels of commitment compared to those with lower qualifications. Forkuoh et al. (2014) also reported that employees with lower levels of education (below a bachelor's degree) demonstrated greater commitment than those with higher educational qualifications.

Interestingly, the study revealed that higher organizational commitment was demonstrated by employees who had lower educational level. Those with a bachelor's degrees and below showed extra dedication to the organization compared to those with postgraduate or advanced degrees.

Employees with lower educational qualifications may find it challenging to secure alternative employment opportunities, fostering greater commitment to their current employer. Conversely, employees with higher qualifications often have access to broader job markets and career mobility, potentially reducing their attachment to a single organization.

Also, in faith-based NGOs, educational qualifications might not directly translate to promotions, increased responsibilities, or financial incentives. This

lack of upward mobility could diminish the motivation of highly educated employees to stay committed, as argued by Salami (2008).

The negative relationship between education level and commitment has been explained by Jafri (2011), who argued that highly educated employees often harbor greater expectations regarding professional growth and financial rewards. When these expectations remain unmet, such employees may become disengaged and seek opportunities elsewhere. In contrast, less educated employees may have lower expectations and view their roles as stable and fulfilling, thereby showing greater organizational commitment.

The nature of the faith-based NGO sector likely contributes to the observed results. In such organizations commitment may stem more from intrinsic motivations, such as alignment with the organization's mission or values, rather than external rewards tied to educational qualifications. Unlike private or public sectors, faith-based NGOs might not offer structured career advancement tied to higher qualifications, reducing the perceived value of educational achievements.

Differences in employees' years of employment and level of commitment

Table 22 shows that both employees with 10 years and below and 11 to 20 years of employment indicated a high level of commitment. Employees with over 20 years of employment indicated a great level of commitment. Employees with above 20 years of employment had the highest level of commitment (X=4.22), followed by employees with 10 years and below years of employment (X=3.55) and the lowest level of commitment being employees with 11 to 20 years of employment (X=3.39).

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To see if there was a statistically significant difference between the mean level of commitment and the employee's years of employment, one way analysis of variance was utilized. Table 22 shows that there were statistically significant differences; F (2, 318) = 11.635, ρ = .000; between employees' years of employment and the mean level of commitment at an alpha level of 0.05.

Table 22: ANOVA of Employees years of Employment and Level of Commitment

Employee's years of Employment	n	X	SD	F	sig
10 years and below	273	3.54	.52	11.635	.000
11- 20	36	3.39	.38		
Above 20	12	4.22	.86		
Total	337	3.55	.54		

ρ< .05   Eta = 0.07

Scale of level of commitment: 1.0 -2.0 = low commitment, 2.1-3.0 = moderate commitment, 3.1- 4.0 = high commitment, 4.1 – 5.0 = great commitment.

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

The study therefore failed to accept the null hypothesis and concluded that the alternate hypothesis that "there is a significant difference in employees' years of employment and the level of commitment was accepted. Table 22 shows the calculated effect size of 0.07 and indicated that the actual difference in mean scores of levels of commitment was medium.

The test of homogeneity was employed to determine the suitable post hoc multiple comparison technique to be used to determine where the significant differences existed between employees' years of employment and the level of commitment. Table 23 indicates Levene's test of homogeneity of variance among the three categories of employees' years of employment.

Table 23: Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances between Employees years of Employment and Level of Commitment

Levene's Statistics	Sig
4.914	.008

$\rho< 0.05$ (10 years and below: n=273; 11-20 years: n= 36, above 20 years: n=112)

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

"Table 23 shows that the variance that existed between employees' years of employment and the mean level of commitment were significant (df = 2, 318; ρ = .008) at 5 percent. This means that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated and that equal variances were not assumed among the three categories of employees' years of employment.

The Games-Howell's test multiple comparison technique was used to determine where significant differences existed among the three categories of employees. This is because test of homogeneity of variance presented that equal variances were not assumed and in addition the sample sizes of the three categories of employees employed for the ANOVA were different (Field Survey, 2021). Table 24 shows the post Hoc multiple comparison of employee's years of employment and the mean level of commitment using Games-Howell's multiple comparison test for the original sample".

Table 24: Games-Howell's Post Hoc Multiple Comparison of Employees Years of Employment and Level of Commitment

Years of employment		MD	Original sample (n=341)		
A	B	A-B	Std. Error	Sig	CI (95%)
10 years and below	11-20	.157	.071	.079	-.015-.329
	Above 20	-.671	.252	.052	-1.35-.005
11-20	Above 20	-.828	.258	.018	-1.51 -- .144

n= 337, p< 0.05* MD = Mean Difference. CI = Confidence interval

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

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The findings presented in Table 24 highlight a statistically significant difference (ρ = .018) between employees with 11 to 20 years of employment (X = 3.39, SD = .38) and employees with over 20 years of employment (X = 4.22, SD = .86), with those in the latter group exhibiting significantly higher levels of commitment. This suggests that employees with longer years in the organization are more committed compared to those with relatively shorter service periods.

This outcome aligns with the body of literature suggesting that job tenure positively influences organizational commitment. Amangala (2013) emphasized that tenure in an organization impacts an employee's commitment, as longer tenure typically leads to a deeper sense of ownership and responsibility toward the organization's success. Similarly, Igbal (2011) found in a study of university faculty in Saudi Arabia that employees who stayed longer with an organization often developed a stronger attachment and increased accountability for organizational outcomes.

This finding can be explained by the accumulation of both experience and loyalty over time, as employees come to identify more with the organization's goals and values the longer, they remain.

Moreover, Salami (2008) also found that employees with greater job tenure tend to demonstrate higher levels of commitment. As employees gain more experience within the organization, they often develop a greater understanding of its culture and operations, which can foster a sense of pride and loyalty. These employees are often more engaged with the organization's mission, as they have witnessed its evolution and may have contributed significantly to its growth and success over time.

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Bayona-Sáez et al. (2009) further supported this idea, arguing that employees who justify their long tenure often do so through their strong commitment to the organization. The longer an employee remains in the workplace, the more likely they are to perceive their role as integral to the organization's overall mission. Additionally, employees with long service may feel they have a greater stake in the organization's future, making them more motivated to ensure its success and stability.

From a practical standpoint, the higher level of commitment observed in employees with over 20 years of employment can also be attributed to the "sunk cost" phenomenon, where employees with long tenure have invested considerable time and effort in their careers within the organization. According to Shore et al. (2008), employees with long tenure may feel it is costly to leave their organization because they would forfeit certain benefits tied to their seniority, such as retirement benefits, pension plans, or non-transferable training. This feeling of having too much to lose from leaving may reinforce their commitment to stay and contribute to the organization's success.

In contrast, employees with 11 to 20 years of service may not yet have reached the point where the perceived costs of leaving outweigh the potential benefits of seeking new opportunities. They may still be more mobile in their career choices and possibly more open to exploring other options, which could explain their relatively lower commitment compared to long-tenured employees.

These findings have important implications for organizations, particularly in designing strategies to retain employees at various stages of

their career. While long-tenured employees may already exhibit high levels of commitment, organizations must continue to engage them by offering opportunities for career advancement, recognition, and other incentives that reinforce their attachment to the organization. For employees with shorter tenures, on the other hand, organizations might consider providing additional support, training, and career development opportunities to help them feel more connected to the organization and its goals, ultimately increasing their long-term commitment.

The study reinforces the notion that organizational commitment grows with tenure, highlighting the significance of fostering enduring relationships with employees by acknowledging and rewarding their contributions as they progress within the organization.

Employees Job Status and Implementation of HRM Practices and Level of Commitment

Objective three was to compare the difference between employees' job status and the level of implementation of HRM practices and commitment.

Differences in employee's job status and implementation of HRM practices

Table 25 indicates that administrative staff (X=3.11) and ministers (X=3.25) all perceived the HRM practices to be highly implemented. Administrative managers perceived HRM practices to be fairly implemented (X=2.99). Minster's perception of HRM practice was higher than administrative staff and managers.

One-way ANOVA was used to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between employees' job status and the

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perceived mean level implementation of HRM practices. Table 25 showed there was statistically significant differences; $F (2, 338) = 3.162$, $\rho = .044$; between employees' job status and the perceived mean level implementation HRM practices at an alpha level of 0.05. As a result, the study therefore failed to accept the null hypothesis and concluded that the alternate hypothesis that "there is a significant difference among employees' job status and the perceived mean level implementation of HRM practices was accepted.

Table 25: ANOVA of Employees Job Status and the Perceived Level Implementation of HRM practices

Employee	n	X	SD	F	sig
Administrative staff	174	3.11	.93	3.162	.044
Administrative Manager	50	2.99	.77		
Minister	117	3.25	.93		

$\rho < 0.05$ Eta- Squared = 0.19. Scale of level of implementation: 1.0 -2.0 = Poorly implemented, 2.1-3.0 = fairly implemented, 3.1- 4.0 = highly implemented, 4.1 – 5.0 = greatly implemented.

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

Table 25 shows that the calculated effect size of 0.19 and reveals that the actual difference in mean scores of implementations of HRM practices among employees was large. Table 26 shows Levene's test of homogeneity of variance among employees' job status and perceived mean level of implementation of HRM practices. Table 26 indicates that, at the 0.05 alpha level, the variance between the means was not significant (df = 2, 338; =.459). The assumption of homogeneity of variance was not violated and that equal variances were assumed among the three groups of employees' job status .

Table 26: Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances between Employees Job status and level Implementation of HRM practices

Levene's Statistics	Sig
.782	.459

$\rho < 0.05$ (Administrative staff: n=174; Administrative managers: n= 50, Ministers: n=117)

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

The Bonferroni multiple comparison technique was used to determine where significant difference existed among three categories of employee's job status. This is because the test of homogeneity of variance revealed that equal variances were assumed and in addition the sample sizes of the three categories of employees (administrative staff: n=174; administrative managers: n=50; ministers; n=117) employed for the ANOVA were very different (Field Survey, 2021).

Table 27 showed the multiple comparison between employee's job status and the perceived mean level implementation of HRM practices using Bonferroni's multiple comparison for the original sample. The findings from Table 27 indicate a statistically significant difference (ρ = .046) between the perception of HRM practice implementation between ministers and administrative managers, with ministers perceiving a higher level of HRM practice implementation than administrative managers.

Table 27: Bonferroni's Post Hoc Multiple Comparison of Employees Job Status and Perceived Mean Level of Implementation of HRM Practices.

Employees		MD	Original sample (n=341)		
A	B	A-B	Std. Error	Sig	CI (95%)
Administrative staff	Administrative manager	.128	.106	.502	-.116 - .372
	Minister	-.138	.079	.223	-.326 - .051
Minister	Administrative manager	.266*	.112	.046	.104 - .529

n= 341, $\rho < 0.05$* MD = Mean Difference. CI = Confidence interval

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

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This result suggests that the role of ministers within the faith-based organization leads them to perceive the implementation of HRM practices more favorably than administrative managers, who are likely to be more removed from the core religious and spiritual functions of the organization.

This finding is consistent with the research by Baack et al. (1993), which analyzed organizational commitment among clergy members. The study found that clergy members exhibited greater attitudinal commitment levels compared to other groups within the organization. This could be explained by the unique role of clergy members, who, in the context of faith-based organizations, are often viewed as both spiritual leaders and moral exemplars. Their commitment to the organization and its practices is not only a professional responsibility but also a spiritual calling, which can lead to a greater alignment with organizational values and practices.

In faith-based organizations, ministers, as the senior-most employees, are expected to lead by example, setting the tone for other staff members regarding the implementation and adherence to organizational practices. The ministers' higher perception of HRM practices can be understood in this context.

Since the success of faith-based organizations is often perceived as dependent on strong spiritual and moral leadership, ministers may feel an intrinsic obligation to embody the organization's core values, even in the absence of formal HRM practices. In such environments, the perception of HRM practices may be intertwined with a sense of duty to God and the organization, which could enhance their view of how well these practices are being implemented.

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Furthermore, ministers in faith-based organizations may be more accustomed to operating in environments where leadership is expected to inspire and lead through example rather than relying heavily on structured HRM processes. Their work may be viewed as a divine calling or duty, making them less reliant on formal systems and more committed to their roles out of a sense of responsibility to their faith and community. This sense of higher purpose could influence their perception of HRM practices, as they may see these practices as less relevant to their primary role as spiritual leaders.

Administrative managers, on the other hand, are more likely to view their roles from a more secular perspective. Their work may involve more routine administrative tasks and interactions with the organizational structure, which could lead to a more critical view of HRM practices. The distance between their day-to-day responsibilities and the faith-based core of the organization might make them less inclined to perceive HRM practices as impactful to their sense of commitment to the organization.

This difference in perception between ministers and administrative managers further highlights the importance of understanding the unique roles and motivations within different organizational groups, especially in faith-based settings. While ministers may view HRM practices as part of their holistic spiritual and organizational role, administrative managers may view these practices through a more practical lens, which can result in a divergence in their perception of how well HRM practices are implemented.

The study's findings underscore the importance of considering the unique nature of faith-based organizations when analyzing HRM practices.

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Ministers, given their position as both spiritual and organizational leaders, may perceive these practices more positively due to the greater personal and professional commitment they feel towards their roles. Understanding these dynamics is essential for faith-based organizations in aligning HRM practices with the values and responsibilities of different employee groups, ensuring that all members feel supported and committed to the organizational mission.

Differences in employee's job status and level of commitment

Table 28 shows that all categories of employees' job status indicated high commitment. Ministers had the highest commitment level (X=3.72), followed by administrative staff (X=3.49) and administrative managers (X=3.47). To ascertain whether there were statistically significant differences between employees' job status and level of commitment, one way ANOVA was utilized.

Table 28: ANOVA showing Employee Job status and Level of Commitment

Employee	n	X	SD	F	sig
Administrative staff	168	3.49	.51	7.27	.001
Administrative Manager	50	3.47	.46		
Minister	107	3.72	.58		

$\rho < 0.05$ Eta- Squared = 0.08.

Scale of level of commitment: 1.0 -2.0 = Low commitment, 2.1-3.0 = Moderate commitment, 3.1- 4.0 = high commitment, 4.1 – 5.0 = great commitment

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

Table 28 reveals that there was a statistically significant difference; F (2, 322) = 7.273, ρ = .001; between employees' job status and the level of commitment at 5 percent. The study therefore failed to accept the null

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hypothesis and concluded that the alternate hypothesis that "there is a significant difference between employees' job status and the level of commitment is accepted. Table 28 shows that the calculated effect size was 0.08 and showed that the actual difference in mean scores of levels of commitment was medium.

Table 29: Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances between Employees Job Status and Level of Commitment

Levene's Statistics	Sig
1.752	.175

ρ< 0.05 (Administrative staff: n=168; Administrative managers: n= 50, Ministers: n=107)

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

The results of Table 29 show the homogeneity of variance test on the employee job status and the level of commitment reveals that the variation between the means was not statistically significant (df = 2, 322; =.175) at 0.05 alpha level. This means that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not violated and that equal variances are assumed among the three categories of employees' job status.

Bonferroni's multiple comparison technique was used to determine where significant difference existed among the three groups of employees. The test of homogeneity of variance presented that equal variances were assumed among the categories of employees. Table 30 shows the several comparisons that mean level of commitment of the three categories of employees' job status using Bonferroni's post hoc multiple comparison in the main sample.

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The findings from Table 30 show a statistically significant difference in the level of commitment between ministers and both administrative staff and administrative managers, with ministers exhibiting the highest level of commitment (X = 3.72) compared to administrative staff (X = 3.49) and administrative managers (X = 3.47).

These results suggest that job status plays a crucial role in influencing employees' commitment to the organization, with those in senior or more influential roles, like ministers demonstrating higher levels of commitment than those in more junior or administrative positions.

Table 30: Bonferroni's Post Hoc Multiple Comparison of Employees Job Status and Level of Commitment.

Employees		MD	Original sample (n=341)		
A	B	A-B	Std. Error	Sig	CI (95%)
Administrative staff	Administrative manager	.017	.086	1.00	-.189 - .223
	Minister	-.235*	.066	.001	-.393 - .077
Minister	Administrative manager	.252*	.091	.018	.471 - .033

n= 325, p< 0.05* MD = Mean Difference. CI = Confidence interval

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

The higher level of commitment among ministers can be understood in the context of a faith-based organization. Ministers often occupy the most senior roles within such organizations, and their positions are often viewed as both professional and spiritual calling. This dual responsibility to the organization and to their faith likely contributes to their heightened sense of commitment.

In faith-based organizations, ministers are expected to lead by example, demonstrating high levels of dedication and commitment not only to

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their spiritual mission but also to the organizational goals. This sense of moral obligation and the need to set a positive example for others in the organization can result in ministers exhibiting a greater degree of commitment compared to their administrative counterparts, who may not feel as deeply tied to the organization's spiritual purpose.

These findings align with previous research that highlights the relationship between job status and organizational commitment. Jena (2015) found that job level significantly impacted employees' commitment, with executives demonstrating higher levels of commitment than non-executives in an industrial context in Odisha, India. This suggests that employees in senior roles, due to their greater responsibility and influence within the organization, tend to display higher levels of commitment. Similarly, Muasa et al. (2021) reported that individuals in higher vocational roles, such as diocesan priests, exhibited the highest levels of commitment, further supporting the idea that job status can significantly affect commitment levels.

The concept of job status and its relationship to commitment is further supported by the work of Lodahl and Kejner (1965), who suggested that an employee's level of involvement in their job and its importance to their self-image impacts their level of commitment. Kanungo (1982) expanded on this idea, proposing that employees in high-status roles tend to have a stronger emotional attachment to their jobs. For ministers in a faith-based organization, this attachment may be even more pronounced, as their work often aligns with their personal beliefs and values, making it central to their identity. As a result, ministers are less likely to leave their roles, and display commitment to the organization which is higher.

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Additionally, Olapegba and Onuaha (2013) found that senior-level employees tend to be more committed than junior employees due to the incentives and benefits associated with higher positions. In the case of ministers, these incentives could include both intrinsic rewards, such as a sense of spiritual fulfillment, and extrinsic rewards, such as respect, leadership opportunities, and influence within the organization.

In contrast, administrative staff and managers, while important to the functioning of the organization, are likely to have different motivations and expectations. Their roles, while essential, may not carry the same spiritual weight or sense of divine calling that ministers experience. As a result, their commitment levels may be lower compared to ministers, as their attachment to the job may be more administrative and less emotionally or spiritually driven.

The study's findings emphasize the role of job status in influencing organizational commitment, particularly in the context of a faith-based organization. Ministers, due to their senior positions and spiritual responsibilities, demonstrate higher levels of commitment, driven by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. These findings suggest that organizations should consider the unique motivations and expectations of employees in different roles when designing strategies to enhance commitment and performance across various levels of the organization.

Relationships between Employees' Demographic Characteristics, Level of Commitment, and Implementation of HRM Practices

Objective four was to assess the relationships between employees' demographic characteristics and the level of commitment, employees' perception of HRM practices implementation and commitment and

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employees' demographic characteristics and the perception of implementation of HRM practices.

Relationship between employees' demographic characteristics and level of commitment

Table 31 shows the relationship between employees' demographic characteristics and the level of commitment. Also, the type of correlation used to determine the relationship between the variables is displayed in Table 31.

Table 31 showed that three of the demographic characteristics: age, education, and years of employment were significantly correlated with employee commitment.

Table 31: Correlation Coefficients of Employees' Demographic Characteristics and the Level of Commitment

Demographic characteristics	Coefficient	P-value	Type of Correlation
Sex (1=male, 0 =otherwise)	.220	.698	Phi (r_φ)
Age as at last birthday (year)	.126*	.023	Biserial (r_{bi})
Marital status (1=married, 0 =otherwise)	.080	.152	Phi (r_φ)
Highest level of education	-.131*	.018	Rank Biserial (r_{rbi})
Years of employment (years)	.122*	.028	Biserial (r_{bi})

n=341 $\rho< 0.05$*

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

Employees' age had a weak positive correlation with commitment (r_{bi} = 0.126*). This implied that as employees advanced in age, they also increased their commitment to the faith-based organization.

Again, Table 31 shows that employees' level of education had a weak significant negative correlation with commitment (r_{bi} = -.131*). This meant that as employees acquired a higher level of education their commitment level reduced. Employees with lower educational qualifications were more likely to be more committed than those with a relatively higher degree of education in

the faith-based NGO. The results implied that workers with postgraduate qualifications had lower commitment levels than employees with a bachelor's degree qualification or lower.

In addition, Table 31 showed that employees' years of employment had a significantly weak positive correlation with commitment ($r_{bi} = 0.122*$). This indicated that staff with longer years of service in the company had a higher level of commitment than those with comparatively shorter years of service.

Salami (2008) observed that employee tenure and their had a significant link with commitment in the study examining psychological and employee background characteristics influencing organizational commitment among engineering employees in Nigeria. Mowday et al., (1979) argued that for older employees, they tend to have very few employment options available to them and leaving the organization may cost more than if they stayed with their current organization.

There was a negative association between level of education and commitment in the faith-based NGO. This is consistent with Forkuoh et al. (2014), that there is a negative association between commitment and educational attainment. Highly educated people were more likely to have very high expectations from their employers, which may not be provided by the organization. It is argued that employees with higher academic holders may have less commitment because of the numerous options of employment opportunities ,(Igbal, 2011).

Additionally, there was a positive link between years of employment and commitment in this study. Meyer and Allen (1997) argued that the longer

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an individual stays with a company, the more emotional attachment they form, making it challenging for them to shift jobs. Additionally, if years of work are positively correlated with commitment, the result may be that uncommitted personnel leave the organization, while only those who are dedicated remain. Employees who stay with a company for a longer period gain more experience in the organization, they are promoted into higher roles which are accompanied by increased benefits and likely to enhance their attitude and commitment toward their roles and the organization.

Relationship between Employees' perception of the Implementation of Individual Human Resource Management Practices and Commitment

The results in Table 32 reveal the critical role of HRM practices hiring, remuneration, performance appraisal, and training and development in promoting employee commitment. Each of these practices recorded a moderately positive and statistically significant relationship with employee commitment, underscoring their collective and individual importance in affecting employee commitment.

Table 32: Correlation Coefficients of Employees' Perception of Implementation of Individual HRM Practices

HRM practices variables	Coefficient	P value	Type of Correlation
Hiring practices (1=low extent, 0 =otherwise)	.384**	.000	Rank Biserial (r_{bi})
Remuneration practices (1=low extent, 0 =otherwise)	.351**	.000	Rank Biserial (r_{bi})
Performance appraisal practices (1=low extent, 0 =otherwise)	.408**	.000	Rank Biserial (r_{bi})
Training and development practices (1=low extent, 0 = otherwise)	.397**	.000	Rank Biserial (r_{bi})

n=341 $\rho< 0.05$*; $\rho< 0.01$**

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Hiring Practices and Employee Commitment

The study found a moderately positive correlation between hiring practices and employee commitment (**rbi = 0.384, p < 0.01**). This indicates that the more rigorous and effective the hiring process is perceived, the more likely employees are to feel committed to the organization. Hiring practices, as supported by Caldwell et al. (1990), communicate an organization's value for high-quality talent, which in turn engenders reciprocal commitment from employees.

Cho et al. (2006) also highlighted that pre-employment assessments contribute to higher employee retention by fostering initial passion and alignment with organizational goals. Moreover, Fiorito et al. (2007) emphasized that hiring signifies an investment in the employee, creating a psychological contract of mutual value. When employees recognize the rigor and intentionality in recruitment processes, it reinforces their perception of the organization's commitment to long-term success, thus driving their own commitment.

Remuneration Practices and Employee Commitment

Remuneration practices were also moderately positively correlated with employee commitment (**rbi = 0.351, p < 0.01**). Warsame (2015) argued that remuneration serves as a powerful motivator and plays a vital role in fostering organizational commitment. Fair and competitive pay communicates respect for employees' skills and contributions, reinforcing their sense of value within the organization.

Hanoko (1994) elaborated that effective remuneration practices not only satisfy financial needs but also reflect the organization's dedication to

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retaining its workforce. This positive perception often translates into reciprocal dedication from employees. Furthermore, remuneration efforts serve as a strategic lever to inspire higher levels of effort and loyalty, as employees equate remuneration with the organization's prioritization of their well-being and professional growth.

Performance Appraisal Practices and Employee Commitment

The link between performance appraisal and employee commitment was the strongest among the HRM practices examined (**rbi = 0.408, p < 0.01**). Effective performance appraisal systems are perceived as equitable and developmental, which enhances employees' sense of procedural justice and value within the organization.

Studies by Paul and Anantharaman (2004) and Giauque et al. (2010) corroborate these findings, emphasizing that procedural fairness in performance evaluations strengthens employee trust and organizational commitment. Performance appraisals not only highlight areas for professional development but also provide a basis for tangible rewards such as promotions and salary increase. This creates a positive feedback loop where employees feel appreciated and incentivized to maintain or exceed performance expectations, thereby deepening their organizational commitment.

Training and Development Practices and Employee Commitment

A significant moderate positive relationship was also observed between training and development practices and employee commitment (**rbi = 0.397, p < 0.01**). Training initiatives are critical as they signal the

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organization's investment in the professional growth and long-term employability of its employeees. As suggested by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) and Qiao et al. (2008), training fosters skill enhancement, job security, and career advancement opportunities, which in turn strengthen employees' emotional attachment to their organization.

Schieble and Bastos (2013) further highlighted that training communicates the organization's readiness to support its employees' aspirations, leading to greater engagement and loyalty. Organizations that prioritize employee development through continuous learning and upskilling tend to witness higher levels of organizational commitment, as employees perceive these efforts as indicators of job security and potential career progression.

The findings emphasize the importance of strong HRM practices in building and sustaining employee commitment. Hiring practices establish the foundation of the employer-employee relationship, while remuneration reinforces the value placed on employees' contributions. Performance appraisal and training and development, on the other hand, serve as mechanisms for continuous engagement, growth, and alignment with organizational goals.

Collectively, these practices create a reinforcing cycle of trust, appreciation, and loyalty, enabling organizations to achieve sustained commitment from their workforce. By strengthening these HRM practices, organizations can cultivate a committed workforce that contributes to long-term success and competitive advantage.

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Relationship between demographic characteristics and implementation of human resource management practices

The findings in Table 33 reveal significant relationships between employee demographic characteristics and the perceived implementation of HRM practices, namely remuneration, performance appraisal, and training and development (T&D).

These results provide insight into how employees' educational levels and years of service influence their perceptions of HRM practices implementation, with implications for addressing diverse workforce needs.

Table 33: Correlation Coefficients of Employees' Demographic Characteristics and Implementation of HRM practices

HRM practices		r	ρ value	Type of Correlation
Sex	Hiring	.092	.091	Phi (r_φ)
	Remuneration	.017	.761	Phi (r_φ)
	Performance appraisal	.031	.572	Phi (r_φ)
	Training and Development	.024	.665	Phi (r_φ)
Age as at last birthday	Hiring	.080	.141	Biserial (r_{bi})
	Remuneration	-.005	.927	Biserial (r_{bi})
	Performance appraisal	-.001	.992	Biserial (r_{bi})
	Training and Development	-.001	.989	Biserial (r_{bi})
Marital status	Hiring	.019	.725	Phi (r_φ)
	Remuneration	.039	.477	Phi (r_φ)
	Performance appraisal	-.085	.123	Phi (r_φ)
	Training and Development	.054	.323	Phi (r_φ)
Highest level of education	Hiring	-.077	.157	Rank Biserial (r_{rbi})
	Remuneration	-.141*	.010	Rank Biserial (r_{rbi})
	Performance appraisal	-.078	.156	Rank Biserial (r_{rbi})
	Training and Development	-.163**	.003	Rank Biserial (r_{rbi})
Years of employment (years)	Hiring	-.044	.426	Biserial (r_{bi})
	Remuneration	-.036	.519	Biserial (r_{bi})
	Performance Appraisal	-.113*	.041	Biserial (r_{bi})
	Training and Development	-.160**	.003	Biserial (r_{bi})

n=341 ρ< 0.05*; ρ< 0.01**

Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

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Education Level and HRM Practices

The study found weak negative correlations between employees' level of education and two HRM practices: remuneration (**rrbi = -0.141, p < 0.05**) and T&D practices (**rrbi = -0.163, p < 0.05**). This indicates that as employees' educational attainment increases, their perception of the implementation of these practices tends to decline.

Remuneration Practices:

Employees with higher educational qualifications often have heightened expectations for salary and benefits that align with their qualifications and the added responsibilities they may hold. When these expectations are unmet, perceptions of the adequacy and fairness of remuneration practices diminish.

Balatbat (2010) corroborates this finding, suggesting that financial dissatisfaction is common among highly educated employees when pay structures fail to match their contributions. This dissatisfaction can lead to disengagement, emphasizing the need for organizations to create compensation packages that reflect both educational attainment and role complexity.

Training and Development Practices:

Similarly, employees with higher education levels may expect advanced and targeted training programs to further enhance their skills. A lack of perceived opportunities for skill enhancement or inadequate alignment of training with their career aspirations can result in dissatisfaction.

This aligns with Balatbat's (2010) findings on the positive correlation between education and expectations for training. However, the negative

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correlation in the current study suggests that unmet expectations for skill and capacity development are a likely cause. Employers should ensure that training initiatives are sufficiently robust and tailored to the needs of highly educated employees, as these interventions are essential for retaining top talent.

Years of Service and HRM Practices

There were weak negative correlations between years of service and perceptions of performance appraisal ($rrbi = -0.113, p < 0.05$) and T&D practices ($rrbi = -0.160, p < 0.05$). These findings suggest that employees with longer tenures tend to perceive these practices as less effectively implemented compared to newer employees.

Long-serving employees may develop skepticism toward performance appraisal systems, especially if they perceive the process to be inconsistent or lacking meaningful outcomes such as promotions or salary adjustments. Getnet et al. (2014) observed similar trends, noting that employees with more tenure often harbor unmet expectations about the impact of performance appraisals on their career progression. Organizations must address these perceptions by ensuring transparency, fairness, and tangible outcomes from appraisal processes, particularly for employees with longer years of service.

The negative correlation between tenure and T&D perceptions suggests that long-serving employees may feel overlooked in training initiatives, perceiving them as more focused on new employees. Balatbat (2010) supports this, highlighting an inverse relationship between years of employment and satisfaction with T&D practices. Organizations should recognize the need for continuous professional development for all employees, ensuring that long

service employees are not excluded from opportunities to refresh or enhance their skills. Regular needs assessments and inclusive training programs can help bridge this gap and maintain engagement across all tenure levels.

These findings underscore the importance of tailoring HRM practices to meet the diverse expectations of employees, influenced by their demographic characteristics. By addressing these nuanced correlations, organizations can enhance the effectiveness of their HRM practices, foster greater employee satisfaction, and build a more committed and engaged workforce.

Predictors of employees' commitment from demographic characteristics, employee job status and human resource management practices.

Objective five was to determine the best predictors of employees' commitment from the independent variables; demographic characteristics (sex, age, marital status, level of education, years of employment), employee job status and HRM practices (hiring, remuneration, performance appraisal, training and development). All ten (10) predictor variables were employed in a multiple regression analysis to find the predictive indicators of an employee's commitment.

Multicollinearity Diagnostic Test

The assumption that any two or more predictor variables have a significant association with one another was tested using the multicollinearity diagnostic test. The regression estimates may be skewed if there is a high correlation between two or more predictor variables. To test for multicollinearity, the Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) was utilized. The test determines if a predictor variable has a strong linear association with other predictors.

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There was no significant multicollinearity among the predictor variables, as displayed in the VIF and tolerance values in Table 34. The tolerance values ranged from a low of.430 to a maximum of.927 and are more than 0.10 which implied an absence of significant multicollinearity in the predictor variables.

In addition, the values for the VIF were a minimum and maximum of 1.078 and 2.323 respectively. There are significant concerns for multicollinearity when the values for VIF are more than 10 (Pallant, 2011). The VIF values were less than 10 and implied that there was no significant multicollinearity among the predictor variables.

Table 34: Collinearity Diagnostics Test showing VIF and Tolerance values.

Measure	Minimum value	Maximum value
Tolerance	.430	.927
Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)	1.078	2.323

n=341 $\rho < 0.05$

Source: Field Survey (2021)

Best predictor(s) of employee commitment

The outcomes of the multiple regression analysis are displayed in Table 35. The results of the regression analysis demonstrated that the model was statistically significant (ρ=.000) at 0.05 alpha level. The results meant that the regression model can be used to generate employee commitment by making inputs into the significant predictors as shown in Table 35. From Table 35, the model explains that 33.5 percent of variance in employees' commitment was explained by the predictors collectively, $F_{(10, 306)}$ = 15.395, ρ = .000 and the prediction was significant.

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Table 35: ANOVA of the Predictor Variables on Commitment

	Sum of squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	30.814	10	3.081	15.395	.000
Residual	61.247	306	.200		
Total	92.061	316			

n= 341 $\rho < 0.05$ $R^2 = .335$
Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

Table 36 shows the estimates of the predictor variables; demographic characteristics, employee job status, and HRM practices. Out of the ten (10) predictor variables, six (6) made a statistically significant influence on the regression model at an alpha level of 0.05. The best predictors of employees' commitment were level of education, years of employment, employee job status, hiring, remuneration and performance appraisal practices.

Table 36: Predictor's Employees' Commitment Coefficient Estimates

Predictors	Beta	S.E	T	Sig.	95% CI
Const	1.754	.211	8.314	.000	
Sex	.045	.059	.930	.353	.927 - 1.078
Age	-.024	.032	-.387	.699	.579 - 1.729
Marital status	.081	.063	1.502	.134	.746 -1.340
Level of education	-.147	.038*	-2.707	.007	.742 - 1.348
Years of employment	.161	.060*	2.996	.003	.754 - 1.327
Employee job status	.195	.033*	3.585	.000	.737 - 1.357
Hiring	.237	.050*	4.262	.000	.705 - 1.418
Remuneration	.172	.036*	3.156	.002	.729 - 1.371
Performance Appraisal	.164	.034*	2.392	.017	.463 - 2.159
Training and Development	.068	.041	.963	.336	.430 - 2.323

n= 341$\rho < 0.05$ CI = Confidence Interval
Source: Field Survey, Annan (2021)

From Table 36, the regression equation is given as follows.

$$Y = 1.754 - 0.147\ X_4 + 0.161\ X_5 + 0.195\ X_6 + 0.237\ X_{7A} + 0.172\ X_{7B} + 0.164\ X_{7C}$$

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Where Y = employee's commitment

X_4 = highest level of education

X_5 = years of employment

X_6 = employee job status

X_{7A} = hiring practices

X_{7B} = remuneration practices

X_{7C} = performance appraisal practices

Demographic characteristic predictors of employee commitment

Two of the employees' demographic characteristics, level of education and years of employment contributed significantly to the outcome of employee commitment.

Employees' level of education contribution was negative and significant ($F_{(10,306)}$ =15.395, ρ=.007, β = -.147). This meant that employees with higher levels of education were likely to have a corresponding lower commitment level and vice versa. The beta value of -.147 also suggested that workers were, for each additional unit or level of education attained 0.15 times less likely to demonstrate commitment to the company.

Employees' years of employment's contribution was positive and significant ($F_{(10,306)}$ =15.395, ρ=.003, β = .161). This meant that workers who had worked for the company for a longer time were more likely to be committed to it than those who had only worked there for a short time. The beta value of .161 implied that for every additional year of employment with the organization, employees were 0.16 times more likely to show commitment to the organization.

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The results are similar with other studies that found that job tenure or employees who had stayed longer in their organization had more commitment than younger employees. Salami (2008) revealed that demographic factors, education level and job tenure (or years of employment) significantly predicted organizational commitment and suggested from the finding that employees with longer years of service were more committed to the organization. Mannheim et al. (1997), Dodd-MCCue and Wright (1996), also found that job tenure and level of education were significant predictors of employee's commitment.

Employees with higher educational qualifications were more likely to get jobs elsewhere than those with lower educational qualifications, and therefore generates a negative commitment to the organization. According to Jafri (2011) people with a higher level of education have many options of employment opportunities and therefore seem to show less commitment. Additionally, employees with higher qualifications showed low commitment compared to those with certificates and below first-degree qualifications.

A positive significant predictor of commitment was the number of years a person has worked for a company. The longer an employee has worked for a company, the more time they have spent evaluating their relationship with the company. Bayona-Sáez et al. (2009) suggested that older staff validate their long tenure in the workplace by their commitment. They also receive other advantages and rewards because of their long job tenure to the organization. Shore et al. (2008) explained that it is costly for employees with long years with the organization to leave since they may lose benefits

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including pension, seniority privileges at their current workplace and non-transferrable training.

Employees' job status as a predictor of employee commitment

Employees' job status contribution was positively significant (F $(10,306)$ =15.395, ρ=.000, β = .195) to employee commitment. As a result, an employee with a higher employment status was probably more committed to the company, and the opposite was also true. The beta value of .195 implied that for every level of employees' job status, employees were 0.20, possible to show commitment to the organization. The findings of this study were supported by Coffie et al.'s (2018) study, which found a substantial relationship between employee commitment and position or job status.

The results suggest that once an employee gets to a higher job or management level, they feel they have travelled a long way in the leadership of the organization and in addition to the benefits they might be receiving in their current role may not be willing to change their current employer. Also, the loss of privileges of leaving the current management level and benefits starting afresh in a new organization is seen as a disincentive.

HRM practices as predictors of employee commitment

Three (3) HRM practices, hiring, remuneration and performance appraisal were found to contribute significantly to employees' commitment.

Hiring practices as a predictor of employee commitment

The findings in Table 36 emphasize the critical role of hiring practices in fostering employee commitment. With hiring practices identified as the highest contributor (F $(10,306)$ = 15.395, ρ = .000, β = .237), the results highlight that when employees perceive hiring processes to be robust and fair,

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their commitment to the organization is significantly enhanced. This suggests that employees value transparency, professionalism, and merit-based hiring, which positively impact their sense of belonging and loyalty.

These findings align with Patrick and Sebastian (2012), who highlighted that HRM practices, particularly hiring practices, significantly affect employee commitment. Employees tend to feel more valued when they believe the organization invests effort in identifying and recruiting the right talent. Such perceptions create a psychological contract, where employees reciprocate the organization's investment by demonstrating higher levels of dedication and engagement.

Additionally, Cho et al. (2006) provided insight into the psychological implications of rigorous hiring processes. They noted that employees selected through thorough procedures often feel a heightened sense of importance, which fosters a sense of obligation to maintain their relationship with the organization. This sense of value and obligation reinforces their commitment, as they perceive their employment as mutually beneficial.

Moreover, effective hiring practices contribute to aligning employees' values with organizational goals. When hiring emphasizes cultural fit and potential for growth, employees are more likely to identify with the organization, further strengthening their commitment. Therefore, organizations must prioritize refining their hiring processes, ensuring they are fair, transparent, and strategic, as these directly influence long-term employee commitment and organizational success.

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Remuneration practices as a predictor of employee

commitment

The results highlight the importance of remuneration practices in promoting employee commitment, as evidenced by their significant contribution (F $(10,306) = 15.395$, $\rho = .000$, $\beta = .115$). This emphasizes that employees' perceptions of well-implemented remuneration practices, including fair pay, bonuses, and benefits, positively influence their commitment to the organization. Remuneration serves not only as a financial reward but also as a form of recognition that reinforces employees' worth within the organization.

This finding aligns with Pasaoglu (2015), who identified a predictive relationship between pay and commitment, and Meyer and Smith (2000), who emphasized the link between reward policies and commitment. Employees perceive fair and competitive remuneration practices as a recognition of their contributions, which encourages their sense of loyalty and motivation.

Gellatly et al. (2009) further supported this view, creating a strong connection between compensation plans and employee commitment. Riveros and Tsai (2011) explained this dynamic through the concept of "side-bets," where employees form a deeper commitment to the organization to protect the tangible and intangible benefits they accrue, such as salaries, bonuses, and other financial rewards. These benefits create a psychological attachment, causing employees to sustain their relationship with the organization.

Moreover, well-implemented remuneration practices can enhance job satisfaction, reduce turnover intentions, and foster organizational trust. Employees who feel adequately compensated are more likely to engage positively with their roles, aligning their goals with organizational objectives.

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Therefore, organizations should design remuneration strategies that are transparent, competitive, and aligned with employees' needs to strengthen long-term commitment and overall performance.

Performance appraisal practices as a predictor of employee commitment

The findings emphasize that performance appraisal practices significantly contribute to employee commitment (F (10,306) = 15.395, ρ = .017, β = .164). This suggests that when employees perceive performance appraisal processes as well-implemented, their sense of commitment to the organization is increased. Such perceptions likely proceed from employees' expectations being met through fair and transparent appraisal systems, which reinforce their trust in and alignment with organizational goals.

This finding is consistent with Farndale et al. (2010), who found that performance appraisal predicted employee commitment, particularly in banking institutions. Employees are likely to value appraisals that fairly assess their contributions, as these evaluations often serve as a basis for decisions related to promotions, rewards, and personal development opportunities. By meeting employees' expectations for fairness and recognition, performance appraisals foster a stronger emotional connection between employees and the employer.

Additionally, Bekele et al. (2014) highlighted that employees' perceptions of objective and transparent appraisal practices significantly correlate with organizational commitment. In this context, fairness becomes a key driver; employees who believe their efforts are objectively acknowledged are more likely to reciprocate through increased commitment and effort.

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On the contrary, studies like Pare et al. (2001) suggested that performance appraisals may not always predict commitment, indicating that their effectiveness may depend on implementation quality. Salleh et al. (2013) also supported the notion that fair and transparent appraisals motivate employees to invest additional energy and effort into organizational goals. Therefore, organizations must ensure that their performance appraisal systems are fair, clear, and aligned with employees' expectations to strengthen their commitment and drive overall success.

Theoretical Contribution of HRM practices and Commitment in Faith-Based NGOs in Ghana.

The Michigan Model in the conceptual framework emphasized four key HRM practices namely selection, rewards, appraisal, and development. The study's findings show that not all four of these practices are essential for promoting the broader aim of making employees feel responsible for remaining with the organization and contributing to its success (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Specifically, only three practices, hiring, remuneration, and performance appraisal were found to significantly contribute to employee commitment. In addition, employee demographic factors, education level and years of employment, as well as job status, emerged as key mediators in this process.

This study proposes a Social Exchange-Based HRM Commitment Model (figure 4), which combines the Michigan Model of HRM with Social Exchange Theory (SET), while considering the moderating role of two employee demographics (education and tenure) and job status. The model suggests that the relationship between HRM practices and employee

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commitment is mediated by the nature of social exchanges within the organization, and the social exchanges are influenced by employees' demographic characteristics and job status. The model therefore consists of four key areas, namely, HRM practices, social exchange theory, the mediating variables and the outcome variable of employee commitment.

HRM Practices:

HRM Practices in the model are hiring, remuneration and performance appraisal. The study highlights that effective hiring practices attract employees who align with the values of the faith-based NGO. These individuals are more likely to develop emotional attachments to the organization, which fosters commitment.

Additionally, regarding remuneration, competitive and fair compensation ensures that employees perceive the organization as meeting their economic needs, which reduces turnover and strengthens commitment. A well-structured compensation system is key to maintaining employee satisfaction and retention.

Regarding performance appraisal, regular performance evaluations help employees understand how their work is valued, fostering commitment. Transparent feedback mechanisms create a sense of recognition and obligation toward the organization.

Social Exchange Theory (SET):

Social Exchange Theory suggests that when an organization provides valuable resources (e.g., fair compensation, professional growth through training, recognition), employees feel a moral obligation to respond with increased commitment (Blau, 1964). In faith-based NGOs, where a sense of

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community and purpose plays a significant role, social exchanges between employees and the organization may be more emotionally charged, making the role of HRM practices particularly influential in shaping commitment.

Mediating Variables:

The study found that employees' demographic characteristics, education level and tenure played significant roles in affecting commitment. For example, employees with higher education may place more value on the alignment of organizational values with their own, contributing to a higher level of commitment. Similarly, employees with longer tenure are likely to develop stronger emotional bonds with the organization.

Regarding job status, employees with higher job status (e.g., ministers and managerial positions) may have different expectations and experiences regarding HRM practices compared to lower-level staff. Their involvement in decision-making and access to organizational resources can influence their perceptions of high-level implementation of hiring, remuneration and appraisal practices in the faith-based organization.

Commitment:

The resultant effect of these interactions fosters commitment of employees towards the faith-based organization.

Justification of the Model:

The study's results suggest that faith-based NGOs can improve HRM practices by focusing on the three critical areas hiring, remuneration, and performance appraisal while considering employee demographics and job status as key moderators. This model is aligned with Social Exchange Theory, as it emphasizes the reciprocal relationship between staff and the company.

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By simplifying the traditional four HRM practices to three, the model makes it clear that faith-based NGOs need not invest in every possible HRM practice. Instead, a focused strategy that addresses employee selection, fair compensation, and transparent performance evaluation can have a significant impact on commitment levels. The mediating role of education, tenure, and job status further refines this model, indicating that HRM strategies should be tailored based on the specific demographic profile and job roles of employees.

Implications:

Faith-based NGOs should focus on refining their hiring processes to attract employees who share organizational values, provide competitive remuneration packages, and implement transparent performance appraisal systems. These HR practices can enhance employee commitment and reduce turnover rates.

This model contributes to the existing literature by integrating the Michigan Model's HRM practices with Social Exchange Theory, while introducing employee demographics and job status as important mediating variables. It expands the understanding of how HRM practices relate with employee characteristics to influence commitment, particularly in faith-based organizations.

Faith-based organizations should recognize the influence of employee demographics on HRM effectiveness and tailor their HR strategies accordingly. These organizations should also monitor employees' tenure and educational background to develop more personalized strategies for boosting commitment.

The Social Exchange-Based HRM Commitment Model offers a robust framework for understanding how HRM practices foster employee

commitment within faith-based NGOs. By focusing on key HRM practices, considering employee demographics, and understanding the mediating role of job status, this model presents an approach to managing commitment in organizations where values, culture, and social bonds are key drivers of employee behavior.
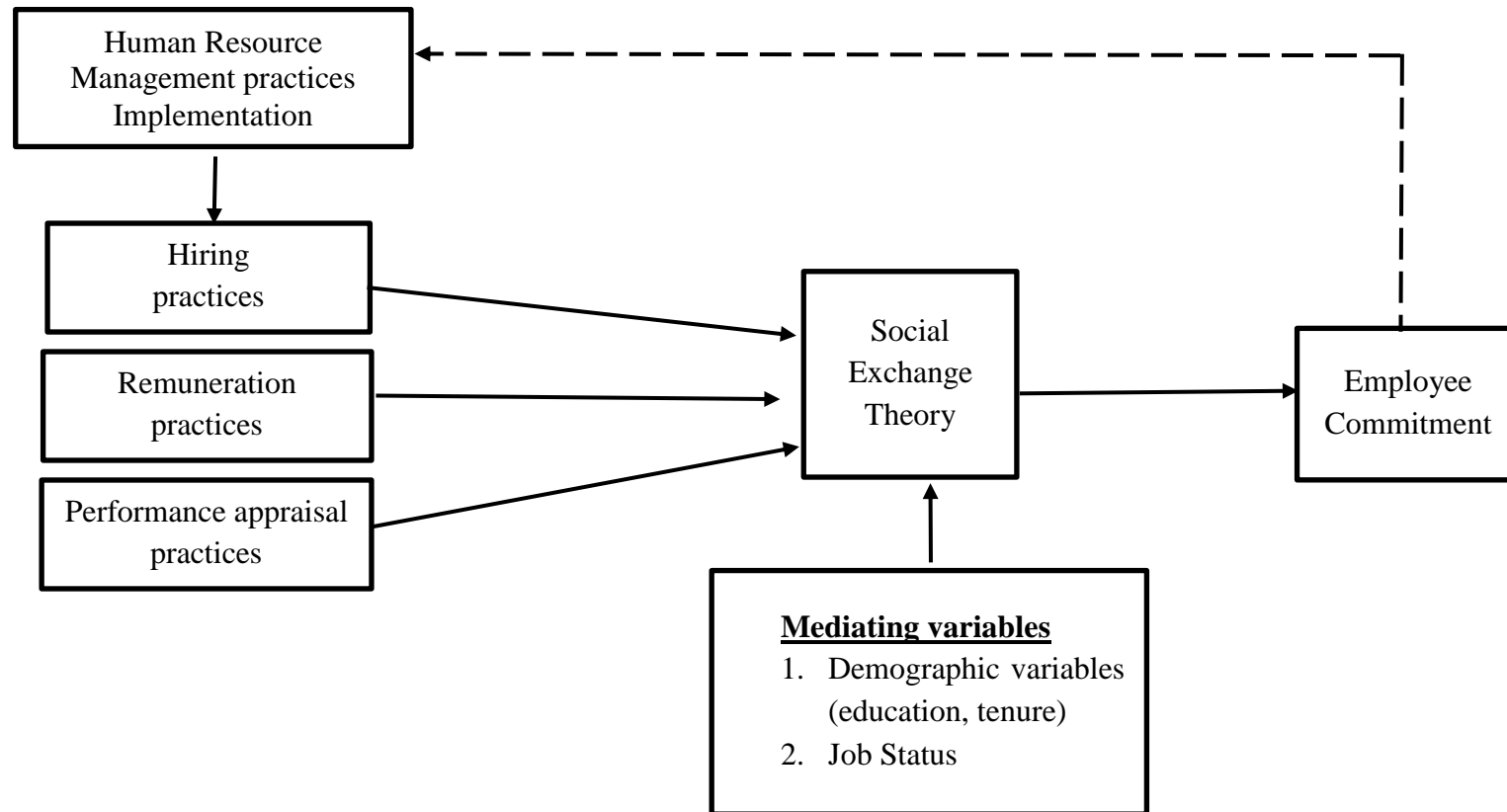
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Figure 4: Proposed Model: Social Exchange-Based HRM Commitment Model

Source: Author's Construct, 2021.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMNEDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the study, its findings, and recommendations. It outlines the key results and conclusions in line with the study's objectives. Furthermore, this chapter provides suggestions for potential areas of further research.

Summary

HRM practices help an organization maintain a competitive advantage by promoting the development of competencies that are company-specific, forging multifaceted social bonds, and generating organizational knowledge. HRM practices are also philosophy, policies, procedures, and practices related to the administration of people within an organization. Organizations need to establish bonds that encourage greater ties and discourage employees from leaving because doing so would mean losing their investments and previous gains. These bonds also help people stay in the organization.

Despite the recognition of the importance of commitment to organizational outcomes in several studies, managers continue to face challenges, particularly in effectively managing employee commitment. Human Resource Management (HRM) practices have been identified as a critical factor influencing employee commitment and play a key role in shaping employees' perceptions of organizational support.

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Research on HRM practices and psychological contracts between organizations and employees has been conducted in both private and public sectors across various countries, including Ghana. Scholars are increasingly focusing on context, which has led to a growing interest in understanding the role of social exchange relationships in explaining employee behavior across different organizational contexts and cultural environments. In Ghana, identifying the HRM practices used in faith-based organizations is crucial, as there is a significant gap in knowledge regarding the application of HRM strategies within faith-based non-governmental organizations

Meyer and Allen (1997) three-component model identify three types of employee commitment: affective, continuance, and normative commitment. However, the use of a composite measurement for commitment is often overlooked, highlighting the need to assess employee commitment, rather than relying solely on the three-component model, especially within the context of faith-based NGOs

Additionally, it is important to explore how different staff categories within faith-based NGOs perceive HRM practices and their commitment to the organization. Employee commitment plays a vital role in the sustainability of any organization, and individual demographic characteristics, along with HRM practices, significantly influence this commitment. To develop effective HRM interventions that enhance employee commitment, it is necessary to understand the relationship between employee commitment, HRM practices, and their demographic characteristics.

Furthermore, identifying the factors within HRM practices, employees' job categories, and their demographic characteristics that contribute to the

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development of commitment is crucial for fostering a committed workforce.

This study adopted a positivist approach, which assumes that reality exists independently of human perception and that there is a cause-and-effect relationship between phenomena in the natural world. This approach aims to understand relationships in the social world in the same way that relationships in the natural world are studied. Reality is considered context-free, meaning that different researchers are likely to reach similar conclusions about a particular phenomenon.

The study utilized a quantitative research method with a cross-sectional strategy for data collection. The target population included employees of a faith-based NGO who had been with the organization for at least two years. This population comprised administrative staff, administrative managers, and ministers. A multi-stage sampling technique was used to select 170 administrative staff, 50 administrative managers, and 117 ministers, ensuring a representative sample for analysis.

Data on employee commitment and human resource management practices were collected using a content-validity questionnaire. The collected data were analyzed using frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, independent sample t-tests, one-way ANOVAs, correlation coefficients, and multiple regression analysis.

The major findings of the study are summarized as follows:

Implementation of HRM practices

Both male and female employees perceived HRM practices as being highly implemented, with females rating the implementation higher than males. However, an independent sample t-test revealed no statistically significant

difference between male and female employees regarding the implementation of HRM practices.

Employees across all age groups perceived HRM practices as being highly implemented, with those aged 60 and above rating the implementation the highest. A one-way ANOVA showed a statistically significant difference based on age. Post-hoc multiple comparisons revealed that employees under 30 perceived HRM practices to be more highly implemented than those aged 30 to 39 and 40 to 49, while employees aged 60 and above also rated the implementation higher than those in the 30-39 and 40-49 age groups.

Both single and married employees perceived HRM practices as being highly implemented, with singles perceiving it more positively than married employees. An independent sample t-test showed no statistically significant difference between marital status and the implementation of HRM practices.

Employees at all education levels perceived HRM practices to be highly implemented, with those holding below a bachelor's degree having the highest perception of HRM practice implementation. One-way ANOVA analysis revealed a significant difference in perceptions based on education level. Post-hoc comparisons showed that employees with below a bachelor's degree perceived HRM practices as being more highly implemented than those with a postgraduate degree.

Employees with less than 10 years and more than 20 years of employment perceived HRM practices as being highly implemented, while those with 11 to 20 years of service viewed them as fairly implemented. A one-way ANOVA revealed a significant difference based on years of employment, with post-hoc comparisons indicating a statistically significant

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difference between employees with less than 10 years and those with 11 to 20 years of employment.

Employees' Level of Commitment

Both male and female employees reported high levels of commitment, with females showing higher commitment than their male counterparts. However, an independent sample t-test revealed no statistically significant difference between genders in terms of commitment levels.

Employees across all age groups exhibited high levels of commitment, with those aged 60 and above demonstrating the highest commitment. A one-way ANOVA revealed no statistically significant difference between age groups and levels of commitment.

Single and married employees both showed high levels of commitment, with married employees displaying higher commitment than single employees. An independent sample t-test revealed a statistically significant difference in commitment levels based on marital status.

Employees at all education levels showed high commitment, with those holding below a bachelor's degree indicating the highest commitment. However, a one-way ANOVA revealed no statistically significant difference between education levels and commitment.

Employees with less than 10 years or 11 to 20 years of employment showed high commitment, with those employed for over 20 years demonstrating the highest level of commitment. A one-way ANOVA indicated a significant difference between employees with 11 to 20 years and those with over 20 years of employment, with post-hoc comparisons confirming this difference.

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Employees' Job Status and HRM Practices Implementation and Commitment

Administrative staff and ministers both perceived HRM practices as being highly implemented, while administrative managers viewed them as fairly implemented. An ANOVA showed a statistically significant difference in perceptions based on job status. Post-hoc multiple comparisons revealed significant differences between administrative managers and ministers in their perceptions of HRM practices.

Commitment levels were high across all employee categories, with ministers exhibiting the highest level of commitment. A one-way ANOVA confirmed statistically significant differences in commitment levels based on job status, with post-hoc comparisons showing significant differences between administrative staff and ministers, as well as between administrative managers and ministers.

Relationships Between Employees' Commitment, Demographic Variables, and HRM Practices

Employee commitment showed significant correlations with age, education, and years of employment. While education had a weakly negative correlation with commitment, age and years of employment had a weakly positive correlation.

Employees' perceptions of the implementation of hiring, remuneration, performance appraisal, and training and development (T&D) practices were positively correlated with commitment. These HRM practices had moderate correlations with employee commitment.

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Education level was negatively correlated with the implementation of remuneration and T&D practices. Additionally, years of employment showed a strong negative correlation with the implementation of T&D practices and performance appraisals.

Predictors of Employees' Commitment

Six predictor variables were found to significantly impact employees' levels of commitment: education, years of employment, job status, hiring practices, remuneration practices, and performance appraisal. A multiple regression analysis revealed that these factors explained 33.5% of the variance in employee commitment.

Among these predictors, education emerged as a negative significant predictor, while years of employment, job status, hiring practices, remuneration practices, and performance appraisal were positive predictors. Hiring practices were identified as the strongest predictor of employee commitment.

Conclusion

The following conclusions were drawn in accordance with the study's objectives and findings:

Perceptions of HRM Practices Implementation:

Female employees, older employees, single employees, those with education levels below a bachelor's degree, and employees with the longest years of service reported the highest perceptions of HRM practices implementation.

Among job categories, ministers perceived the highest implementation of hiring, remuneration, performance appraisal, and training and development compared to administrative staff and managers.

Employee Commitment:

Commitment was highest among female employees, older employees, married employees, those with education levels below a bachelor's degree, and employees with longer years of employment.

Correlations Between Demographics and Commitment:

Employee age, education level, and years of employment were correlated with commitment. Education level had a negative association, while hiring, remuneration, performance appraisal, and training and development practices positively correlated with commitment.

Education level was associated with remuneration and training practices, while years of employment correlated with performance appraisal and training practices.

Predictors of Commitment:

The key predictors of employee commitment were education level, years of employment, job status, hiring practices, remuneration, and performance appraisal. Together, these explained 33.5% of the variation in commitment.

Education level had a negative impact on commitment, while hiring practices emerged as the strongest positive predictor of commitment to the organization.

These findings underscore the significance of tailored HRM practices and the interplay of demographic factors in shaping employee commitment.

Recommendations

Based on the conclusions of the study, the following recommendations are proposed to improve the implementation of HRM practices and enhance employee commitment in organizations, particularly in faith-based NGOs:

1. While the study found no statistically significant differences in the perception of HRM practices between male and female employees, it is recommended that FBOs ensure HRM practices are designed and implemented in a way that is equally perceived by both sexes. FBO's should continue to provide training and ensure equal opportunities for both male and female employees in all HRM practices, such as recruitment, promotion, and professional development.

2. Given that younger employees (under 30) perceived HRM practices to be more highly implemented, FBOs should consider targeting this group with tailored HRM interventions to further enhance their engagement and commitment. Additionally, organizations should work to ensure that employees in the 30-49 age group, who had more moderate perceptions, receive adequate communication and support regarding HRM practices to improve their perceptions and satisfaction.

3. Employees with below a bachelor's degree showed the highest perception of HRM practices. FBOs should take this into consideration when designing HRM interventions, recognizing that employees with higher educational qualifications (postgraduates) may have different expectations and perceptions. Tailored HRM practices may be necessary to align with the needs and expectations of employees at various educational levels.

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4. Employees with 11 to 20 years of service perceived HRM practices less positively compared to those with less than 10 or more than 20 years of service. It is important to understand the specific challenges faced by mid-career employees and design HRM practices that address their unique needs, such as offering leadership development programs or career growth opportunities, to enhance their commitment.

5. Married employees demonstrated higher commitment levels than singles. FBOs should seek to foster stronger commitment among single employees by creating supportive work environments and implementing flexible HRM practices that address the varying needs of single employees, such as work-life balance initiatives and career development opportunities.

6. Administrative managers perceived HRM practices as being less highly implemented compared to ministers and administrative staff. This group should be given special attention to improve their understanding of HRM practices. Tailored interventions such as leadership development programs, clear communication on HRM strategies, and increased involvement in decision-making may improve their perceptions of HRM practices and their commitment.

7. Since hiring practices were identified as the strongest predictor of employee commitment, FBOs should continuously improve their recruitment strategies to ensure that they attract individuals who align with the organization's mission and values. Additionally, the study found significant positive correlations between employee commitment and performance appraisal practices, indicating the importance of a

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transparent and fair performance evaluation system. Regular training on effective performance appraisals and clear communication about career progression can improve employee commitment.

8. Since remuneration and training and development practices were found to be negatively correlated with employee commitment, FBOs should focus on ensuring that their compensation packages are competitive and aligned with employee expectations. Further investment in career development and skills training is essential to improving employees' commitment, particularly for long-term employees.

9. The study found differences in perceptions of HRM practices across job statuses. It is recommended that FBOs ensure alignment of HRM practices with the expectations and needs of different job categories. Regular feedback from employees in various roles can help fine-tune HRM practices, making them more inclusive and tailored to all levels of staff.

10. The study identified significant relationships between demographic variables (such as age, education, and years of employment) and employee commitment. FBOs should consider these factors when developing HRM practices, offering custom-made interventions that reflect the needs of employees at different life and career stages. For example, mentoring programs may benefit younger employees, while career transitions and retirement planning may support older employees.

By considering these recommendations, FBOs can improve the implementation of HRM practices, foster higher levels of employee

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commitment, and ultimately enhance employee retention and organizational performance

Suggestions for further research

Based on the recommendations outlined for improving HRM practices and enhancing employee commitment, the following areas are suggested for further research to deepen understanding and explore additional dimensions of HRM in the workplace:

1. Further research could explore the long-term impact of gender-inclusive HRM practices on employee satisfaction, engagement, and commitment. Studies could also investigate how gender-based differences in the perception of HRM practices influence organizational culture and performance, particularly in diverse sectors like faith-based NGOs.

2. Future studies could examine the specific HRM practices that most effectively enhance commitment among younger employees (under 30), such as flexible work arrangements, career development opportunities, and mentorship programs. Additionally, comparative studies could assess how younger employees' expectations of HRM practices differ from those of older employees and identify best practices for designing HRM strategies for younger generations.

3. Research could focus on how employees' educational backgrounds (e.g., below bachelor's degree vs. postgraduate degrees) influence their perception of HRM practices and their commitment to the organization. Further investigation could also identify which HRM practices are most valued by employees with varying levels of

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education and how organizations can adapt HRM strategies to address the distinct needs of employees with different educational qualifications.

4. Given the findings on mid-career employees' (11-20 years of service) perceptions, future research could examine the specific challenges faced by mid-career employees in relation to HRM practices. Research could explore whether tailored leadership development programs, career progression planning, or job enrichment strategies can enhance their engagement and commitment to the organization.

5. The higher commitment levels observed among married employees compared to single employees merit further probe. Research could investigate the unique needs and challenges faced by single employees and explore HRM practices that could better support their work-life balance, job satisfaction, and overall engagement. Studies could also compare how single employees in different cultural or organizational settings perceive their commitment and HRM practices.

6. Research could focus on why administrative managers perceive HRM practices as less highly implemented than other job statuses, such as ministers or administrative staff. Further studies could assess how the role of administrative managers within the organization affects their perceptions of HRM practices and their commitment and explore interventions that might increase their engagement with these practices.

7. Given that hiring practices were found to be the strongest predictor of employee commitment, future research could further explore how

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different recruitment strategies influence employee engagement and retention. Additionally, research could examine how various performance appraisal systems (e.g., traditional vs. continuous feedback) affect employee motivation, development, and commitment.

8. There was a negative relationship involving remuneration, training, and employee commitment, suggesting a need for further research to understand the reasons behind this relationship. Future studies could explore how compensation and career development programs can be designed to improve long-term employee commitment, particularly in faith-based or non-profit organizations where remuneration structures may differ from those in the private sector.

9. Further research could examine how HRM practices vary across job statuses within organizations and how these variations affect employee perceptions and commitment. Specifically, research could explore the impact of tailored HRM practices for different job categories (e.g., administrative staff, ministers, managers) on employee motivation, retention, and overall organizational effectiveness.

10. Since demographic variables such as age, education, and years of employment have been shown to affect employee commitment, further research could examine how HRM practices can be customized to meet the diverse needs of employees at different stages of life and career. Studies could investigate how mentoring programs, retirement planning, and other age-specific HRM practices can improve employee commitment and retention across various employee segments.

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By exploring these areas, future research can contribute to a deeper understanding of how HRM practices impact employee commitment and retention in diverse organizational settings, including faith-based NGOs. Such research will help organizations optimize HRM strategies, tailor interventions to meet employees' needs, and foster a more engaged and committed workforce.

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APPENDICES

EFFECT OF HUMAN RESORUCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES ON EMPLOYEES' COMMITMENT IN A FAITH BASED ORGANIZATION IN GHANA.

QUESTIONNAIRE

INFORMED CONSENT

Dear respondent, this research is an endeavor to identify a list of human resource management (HRM) practices and their effect on employee commitment in the faith-based organization. The information provided by you will be used ONLY for academic research (PhD) and not for any other activity. Please spare a few minutes of your valuable time and share your true feelings. Confidentiality of participants and the information provided will be ensured.

SECTION ONE

1. **Sex**: ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. **Age at last birthday**:
   below 25 ☐ 25-29 ☐ 30-34 ☐ 35-39 ☐ 40-44 ☐
   45-49 ☐ 50-54 ☐ 55-59 ☐ 60-64 ☐ Above 64 ☐

3. **Marital status:**
   Single ☐ Married ☐ Separated ☐ Divorced ☐ Widowed ☐

4. **Highest Level of education**:
   Pre-secondary ☐   Secondary ☐   Certificate ☐
   Diploma ☐   Bachelor ☐   Postgraduate ☐
   Other(specify) _____

5. **Years of employment with organization**: _____

6. **Employee job status**:
   General staff ☐   Administrative staff ☐
   Administrative Manager ☐ Probationary Minister ☐
   Licensed Minister ☐   Ordained Minister ☐

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SECTION TWO
HUMAN REOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

Please indicate how accurately the following statements describe your perception of HRM practices in the faith-based organization. Rate the extent to which these HRM practices are implemented in the faith-based organization on a five-point scale.

1 = Not at all; 2 = small extent; 3 = moderate extent; 4 = large extent; 5 = very large extent					
HIRING DECISIONS IN MY ORGANIZATION ARE INFLUENCED BY:	1	2	3	4	5
1. A person's ability to perform the requirements of the job.					
2. Having the right connections (e.g., family, friends, minister, council members, leaders)					
3. Proven work experience in a similar job.					
4. A person's potential to do a good job, even if the person is not that good when he or she first starts.					
5. An employment test in which the person needs to demonstrate his or her skills					
6 A personal interview.					
7. A person's ability to get along well with others already working here.					
8. The organization's belief that the person will stay with the faith-based organization.					

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	(e.g., for 5 years and longer).					
9.	How well the person will fit in with the organizational values and ways of doing things.					
10.	Future co-workers' opinion about whether the person should be hired.					

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1 = Not at all; 2 = small extent; 3 = moderate extent; 4 = large extent; 5 = very large extent					
THE PURPOSE OF THE ORGANIZATION'S TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT IS TO.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
11. Provide a reward to employees.					
12. Improve employee's job abilities.					
13. Remedy employees past poor performances.					
14. Prepare employees for future job assignments.					
15. Build teamwork within the organization.					
16. Improve employee's interpersonal abilities (e.g., how well they relate to others).					
17. Provide substantial training when employees' first start working in the organization.					
18. Help employees understand the nature of faith-based organization (e.g., knowledge of faith-based management concepts, new technology etc).					
19. Provide employees with skills needed to do several different jobs, not just one job.					
20. Teach employees about the organization's values and ways of doing things.					

1 = Not at all; 2 = small extent; 3 = moderate extent; 4 = large extent; 5 = very large extent					
PERFORMANCE APPRAISALS IN THE ORGANIZATION INCLUDES TO;	1	2	3	4	5
21. Determine appropriate remuneration.					
22. Document employee's performance.					
23. Plan development activities for employees (e.g., training, new duties).					
24. Support for salary administration.					
25. Recognize employees for work done well.					
26. Lay out specific ways in which employees can improve performance.					
27. Discuss employee's views.					
28. Evaluate employee's goals achievements.					
29. Identify employee's strengths and weaknesses.					
30. Allow employees to express feelings.					
31. Determine employee's potential for promotion.					

1 = Not at all; 2 = small extent; 3 = moderate extent; 4 = large extent; 5 = very large extent					
THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS DESCRIBE THE FAITH-BASED ORGANIZATION'S REMUNERATION PRACTICES	1	2	3	4	5
32. Remuneration incentives like bonuses or end of year allowance or benefits are an important part of the compensation strategy in our organization.					
33. Benefits are an important part of the total compensation package.					
34. In the faith-based organization, a portion of an employee's earnings is related to group or organizational performance goals being achieved.					
35. Our Remuneration policies recognize that long-term results are more important than short-term ones.					
36. An employee's seniority does enter remuneration decisions.					
37. Remuneration incentives are designed to provide a significant amount of an employee's total earnings in our organization.					
38. The employee benefit package is very					

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	generous compared to what it could be.					
39.	The remuneration system in our organization has a futuristic orientation. It focuses employees' attention on the long-term (2 or more years).					
40.	In the faith-based organization, pay rises are determined mainly by an employee's job performance. There is a large spread between low performers and high performers in a given job.					

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SECTION 3

EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT

Listed below are series of statements that represent possible feelings that you might have about the organization. with respect to your own feeling please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagree with each statement.

Please rate the statements using the 5-point scale provided below.

1 = strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3 = somehow agree; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree

		1	2	3	4	5
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with the faith-based organization					
2	I enjoy discussing the faith-based organization with people outside it.					
3	I really feel as if the faith-based organization's problems are my own					
4	I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to the faith-based organization.					
5	I do not feel like 'part of the family' at the faith-based organization.					
6	I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to the faith-based organization.					
7.	the faith-based organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.					

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8.	I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to the faith-based organization.					
9.	I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.					
10.	It would be very hard for me to leave the faith-based organization right now, even if I wanted to.					
11.	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave the faith-based organization.					
12.	It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave the faith-based organization now.					
13.	Right now, staying with the faith-based organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.					
14.	I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving the faith-based organization.					
15.	One of the few serious consequences of leaving the faith-based organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.					
16.	One of the major reasons I continue to work for the faith-based organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.					
17.	I think that people these days move from company to company too often.					
18.	I do not believe that a person must always be loyal					

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	to his or her organization					
19.	Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me					
20.	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain					
21.	If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization					
22.	I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization					
23.	Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers					
24.	I do not think that wanting to be a "company man" or "company woman" is sensible anymore					

Thank you very much for your time and effort.

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