

**Institutional Context and the Effects of Human Resource Practices on Employee Attitudes in the Nigerian Public and Private Sector**

**By:**

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# DECLARATION

I, Darius Ngutor Ikyanyon, declare that this thesis titled ‘**Institutional Context and the Effects of Human Resource Practices on Employee Attitudes in the Nigerian Public and Private Sector**’, has never been submitted anywhere for the award of any degree and all sources have been properly acknowledged and referenced.

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# ABSTRACT

*This research examined the nature of HRM, and the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes, in the Nigerian public and private sector from an institutional perspective. The research was divided into 2 studies. Study 1 explored the influence of institutions on HRM in the public and private sector as well as examining the specific HRM techniques adopted in public and private sector organizations in Nigeria. Data for study 1 were collected from HR managers via questionnaires (n=122) and in-depth qualitative interviews (n=13) whilst study 2 data were collected from public and private sector employees (n=521) drawn from organizations participating in study 1. Findings from study 1 indicate that mimetic and normative mechanisms such as the influence of consultants and professional socialization respectively influenced HRM in both sectors in the same way. Nevertheless, due to weak enforcement of labour legislation in the private sector, the influence of coercive mechanisms such as labour laws, trade unions and regulatory bodies had stronger influence in the public sector. This resulted in diversity in specific HRM practices adopted across organizations; with private organizations more likely to adopt practices that were characterised by informality, cost-cutting, low employee voice and neglect of labour legislation. Findings from study 2 indicate significant effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in both sectors. Although it was expected that procedural justice and HR attributions would account for differences in the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes between public and private sector employees, the hypothesized relationships for HR attributions were not supported. However, the effects of HR practices on affective commitment through procedural justice were higher in the public sector. This research highlights the link between the institutional environment and the specific HRM practices adopted by organizations and how this in turn influences employee perceptions of fairness in relation to attitudinal outcomes of HR practices.*

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# DEDICATION

To Fanyam and Ahemen – my angels.

# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AC Affective Commitment

AGFI Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index

AMOS Analysis of Moment Structures

AVE Average Variance Extracted

CC Continuance Commitment

CFA Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CFI Comparative Fit Index

CMEs Co-ordinated Market Economies

CR Composite Reliability

EFA Exploratory Factor Analysis

GFI Goodness of Fit Index

HR Human Resource(s)

HRM Human Resource Management

ITF Industrial Training Fund

JS Job Satisfaction

LMEs Liberal Market Economies

NC Normative Commitment

NECA Nigeria Employers’ Consultative Association

NFI Normed Fit Index

NHS National Health Service

NLC Nigeria Labour Congress

NNPC Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation

RMSEA Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

SPSS Statistical Package for Social Sciences

SRMR Standardized Root Mean Residual

TLI Tucker-Lewis Index

TUC Trade Union Congress

UK United Kingdom

USA United States of America

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# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Research Background

There is a large body of research that has examined the effects of human resource (HR) practices on employee attitudes (e.g. Edgar & Geare, 2005; Chew & Chan, 2008; Gellatly *et al*., 2009; Herrbach *et al*., 2009; Hashim, 2010; Bal *et al*., 2013; Kooij *et al*., 2013; Saridakis *et al*., 2013; Vermeeren *et al*., 2014; Fabi *et al*., 2015; Mostafa & Gould-Williams, 2015; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016; Ollo-López *et al*., 2016). These studies indicate that HR practices contribute to positive employee attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Nevertheless, the significance of the institutional environment in which organizations operate has been widely discounted in studies examining the effect of HR practices on work outcomes (Kim & Wright, 2011).

Organizations are ingrained in their wider institutional environments which indicates that the nature of human resource management (HRM) is influenced by the institutional environment in which organizations operate (Paauwe & Boselie, 2007; Wood *et al*., 2012). Indeed, the institutional environment of organizations comprising of the economic system, regulatory system and employee relations system among others combine to shape the way organizations function, including their relationship with employees (Brewster & Mayrhofer, 2012). Hence, differences in institutional environments among countries present organizations with different approaches to HRM (Jackson & Schuler, 1995; Brewster *et al*., 2008; Brewster & Mayrhofer, 2012). This implies that HRM practices differ from context to context and the success of HRM practices in one country is not a guarantee of success in other countries (Brewster & Mayrhofer, 2012).

Even within particular national contexts, the literature on institutional diversity suggests the existence of heterogeneous practices across industries or sectors due to “the uneven, experimental and contested nature of institutional change; the varying forms of institutional complementarity; and the effects of regional and sectoral dynamics” (Lane & Wood, 2009 p. 533). This suggests that within a particular national context, the forces that shape HRM (Webster & Wood, 2005; Wood *et al*., 2011), as well as the effects of HR practices on work outcomes may differ across industries and sectors (Boselie *et al*., 2003; Kim & Wright, 2011).

For most emerging countries of Africa, the influence of institutions on organizational practices is rather complex due to the external influence from supranational institutions such as the World Bank and IMF whose aim is to impose neo-liberal ideologies on emerging countries (Webster & Wood, 2005; Okpara & Wynn, 2008). This is further complicated by the weak and incoherent nature of local institutions in most emerging countries (Wood *et al*., 2011). It therefore presents an interesting scenario for researchers to find out if organizations in emerging countries, irrespective of industry or sector, have embraced a particular model of HRM as a result of this external influence from neo-liberal ideologists or whether distinct paradigms of HRM exist (cf. Wood *et al*., 2011). This further leads to another question of whether the effects of HRM on employee attitudes will be the same or different across industries and sectors since the attitudinal response of employees to HRM will depend on the nature of HR practices they encounter (Appelbaum *et al*., 2000; Paré & Tremblay, 2007; Herrbach *et al*., 2009; Mendelson *et al*., 2011; Piening *et al*., 2014).

Despite the World Bank and IMF-influenced structural adjustment policies that have led to privatization of previous state owned enterprises in many African contexts (Okpara & Wynn, 2008; Dibben & Wood, 2013), the public sector remains the largest formal employer of labour in most African countries (Aryee, 2004; Stampini *et al*., 2011; Adewumi & Idowu, 2012) since not all public services can be privatized. Unfortunately, most writings on HRM in Africa emphasize commercial firms to the neglect of public sector organizations (e.g Okpara & Wynn, 2008; Azolukwam & Perkins, 2009; Wood *et al*., 2011; Gomes *et al*., 2012; Kamoche *et al*., 2012). If we are to fully understand the nature of HRM in a particular context, it is important to explore the sector that provides much of the employment. Moreover, the differences between public and private sector organizations in terms of ownership and sources of funding indicate that public and private sector organizations operate under different contexts (Boyne, 2002; Rainey, 2014). These differences, and coupled with the importance of HRM in both public and private sector (Burke *et al*., 2013) therefore provide the basis for within-country comparison of HRM in both sectors. Accordingly, this research seeks to examine the nature of HRM vis-à-vis the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in public and private sector in Nigeria from an institutional perspective.

### 1.2 The Research Context: Nigeria

Since this research is conducted in Nigeria, it is important to provide insights about the country. Moreover, the nature of HRM may be influenced by the national context in which organizations operate (Brewster & Mayrhofer, 2012). Nigeria has the highest population among African countries with an estimated population of 182.2 million people (World Bank, 2016), which means that one out of five Africans is a Nigerian. In addition to the high population, Nigeria is one of the largest economies in Africa (World Bank, 2015), making it essential to understand the nature of HRM in the country. As a result of abundant natural and human resources in the country, Nigeria is one of the most attractive investment destinations in Africa (Okpara & Wynn, 2008; Caldwell, 2014).

As a former British colony, most institutions in Nigeria were either modelled against British institutions or designed to serve the interests of colonial masters (Anakwe, 2002). Since gaining independence from Britain in 1960, Nigeria has undergone structural changes (Azolukwam & Perkins, 2009). After experiencing many years of military dictatorship and a civil war, Nigeria has witnessed political stability since the return to democratic rule in 1999. Considering the volatile nature of democracies in Africa (Bogaards, 2008), seventeen years of uninterrupted democratic rule can be viewed as a milestone in the history of the country. Recent general elections in the country saw for the first time, an opposition party defeat an incumbent President in elections that were generally acclaimed as free and fair, thus further indicating the growth of Nigerian democracy (World Bank, 2015).

The country has 36 states with Abuja being the federal capital territory. Politically, Nigeria is divided into six geo-political zones namely, North-East, North-West, North-Central, South-South, South-East and South-West. The country has more than 250 ethnic groupings with each having a unique culture and language (Agbiboa, 2013). The main ethnic groups in the country are Hausa, Yoruba and Igbo whilst English is the official language spoken in Nigeria (Agbiboa, 2013). In terms of religion, the country is split along two major religions of Christianity and Islam which dominate the southern and northern parts of the country respectively. Although Nigeria’s ethnic and religious diversity could be a source of strength for the country, ethnic and religious tensions have impeded the development of the country and its quest for true nationhood (Agbiboa, 2013). Whereas suspicions exist among the main ethnic groups, the fear of marginalization persists among minority ethnic groups. Indeed, Adewale (2011 p.3), suggests that the British colonial system of indirect rule is responsible for “magnifying and nurturing the country’s ethnic differences rather than its similarities’’. Thus, for many Nigerians, the interest of their ethnic group may supersede the national interest.

Economically, Nigeria depends on crude oil as the main source of government revenue (World Bank, 2015). Nevertheless, oil revenues have been historically lost to endemic corruption in the oil and gas sector (Idemudia, 2010; Akanle & Adesina, 2015). Meanwhile, the armed struggle by youths from the Niger Delta region - which is home to Nigeria’s oil infrastructure - due to the neglect by successive governments to provide development infrastructure and social amenities in the region has often resulted in cuts in production output (Idemudia, 2010; Nwajiaku-Dahou, 2012). Indeed, the problem of infrastructure is not limited to the Niger Delta region as the entire country has a huge infrastructure deficit due to many years of neglect (Ogun, 2010). Thus, Nigeria, like many oil producing countries, has suffered what is known as the resource curse (Mähler, 2010). However, the current global drop in oil prices is seen by analysts as an opportunity for the country to explore other revenue sources such as commercial agriculture and mining (Ugwu, 2015).

At the insistence of the World Bank and IMF, Nigeria has adopted neo-liberal policies such as privatization and liberalization which are aimed at embracing a free market economy (Anakwe, 2002). However, the success of these policies has been widely questioned (Okpara & Wynn, 2008; Idowu, 2012; Omar, 2012). For instance, Amuwo (2009) argues that neoliberal policies have rather empowered political elites in Nigeria who wield both political and economic power at the expense of the poor majority who are the receiving end of these harsh policies. Following the adoption of neoliberal policies, the government of President Obasanjo enacted an economic policy known as the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies (NEEDS) which was aimed at stimulating private sector investment thereby generating employment (Amuwo, 2009; Adewale, 2011). Similar policies, along with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have been pursued by successive democratic governments. Nevertheless, policy inconsistencies, lack of access to finance, and poor infrastructure, especially poor energy supply constitute impediments to business operations in Nigeria (World Bank, 2016).

In the case of the latter, whilst the debt forgiveness granted Nigeria by the Paris Club of creditors in 2005 to the tune of $12 Billion was seen as an opportunity to free up funds for investment in development infrastructure, this goal has not been achieved (Nwozor, 2009; Anaeto, 2015). Thus, Nigeria has not reaped the much heralded benefits of neoliberalism. Although China is investing in development infrastructure in Nigeria, the country has in turn become a readily available market for dumping Chinese products, to the detriment of local manufacturing industries (Akinrinade & Ogen, 2008; Oyeranti *et al.*, 2011). The implication on human resources is that factory closures due to stiff foreign competition and the inability of the government to protect local firms have resulted in massive layoffs thereby worsening the unemployment situation in the country.

Nevertheless, the adoption of market-driven economic policies has generated foreign interest in the country (Anakwe, 2002; Azolukwam & Perkins, 2009). Thus, Nigeria was identified in 1999 by the International Finance Corporation (IFC) among 54 countries that were considered as emerging economies (Hoskisson *et al*., 2000). Recently, the country has been classified among N-11 emerging economies (Wood & Horwitz, 2015) whilst other accounts have classified Nigeria among ‘MINT[[1]](#footnote-1)’ emerging countries offering a conducive environment for investment (Caldwell, 2014). This further creates the need to understand the nature of HRM in Nigeria as foreign firms seek to operate in the country.

The Nigerian economy can be broadly divided into formal and informal economy (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001). The focus of this study however is on the formal economy since organizations in the informal economy often do not have organized practices for managing human resources (Fajana, 2008). Within the formal economy, there is a distinction between public and private sector organizations in Nigeria (Nwoye, 2002). Whilst the public sector is comprised of organizations owned by the federal, state and local governments which exist primarily to promote the welfare of citizens, the private sector in Nigeria is comprised of indigenous private firms and subsidiaries of multinational companies whose aim is to maximize profit (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001; Nwoye, 2002). In order to have a uniform level of comparison, the focus of this study is on the indigenous private firms and federal government owned public organizations in Nigeria. Next is a discussion of HRM in Nigeria.

#### 1.2.1 HRM in Nigeria

The practice of HRM in Nigeria is guided by the Labour Act of 1998 and the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria which provide the framework for employment relations in the country (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001). Trade unions which are formed along industry or professional lines are affiliated to the Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC) or the Trade Union Congress (TUC) which are the umbrella trade unions in Nigeria (Fajana, 2007). In addition to the traditional role of seeking to improve the welfare of workers, in Nigeria, trade unions in conjunction with civil society organizations often act as a voice of the masses by mobilising the citizens to resist anti-people neo-liberal policies such the removal of petrol subsidies (Fajana, 2007; Adewumi, 2012).

The tripartite collective bargaining system exists at the national level involving the umbrella trade union bodies, the government and the Nigeria Employers’ Consultative Association (NECA) which usually involves setting the national minimum wage for the country (Fajana, 2007). The national tripartite agreements in turn form the basis for affiliate unions to negotiate specific conditions of work with employers at the industry level (Fajana, 2007). Of course, the agreements reached at the industry level will depend on the nature of the industry and the strength of the union (Adewumi & Adenuga, 2010). However, a high level of unemployment in Nigeria strengthens the hand of employers against employees which weaken the ability of trade unions to demand improved working conditions for workers (Adewumi, 2012).

As observed by Ovadje & Ankomah (2001), HRM practices adopted by organizations in Nigeria may also be influenced by cultural values such as deference for authority, community and kinship ties, paternalism, patriarchal relationships and a sense of mutual obligations. The influence of these cultural values on HRM in Nigeria resonates with the evidence found on the wider African continent (Ellis *et al*., 2015). Nevertheless, due to the cultural diversity in Nigeria, researchers have often questioned the utility of cultural frameworks, especially the popular Hofstede’s cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1980) for understanding organizational practices in Nigeria since such frameworks tend to treat countries as homogenous cultural entities (Adeleye, 2011).

Moreover, other accounts on HRM in Nigeria (e.g. Anakwe, 2002; Okpara & Wynn, 2008; Azolukwam & Perkins, 2009) suggest that standardized HRM practices such as recruitment and selection, training and development, compensation and benefits, performance appraisals among others are implemented in Nigerian organizations. However, whilst these practices may have some semblance with HRM practices in advanced countries such as USA and the UK, the practice of HRM in Nigeria is affected by contextual challenges such as corruption, government regulation, HIV/AIDS, tribalism, favouritism, poverty and low manpower development arising from a reduction in public expenditure in critical areas of the economy such as education and health in line with the dictates of neoliberalism (Okpara & Wynn, 2008; Azolukwam & Perkins, 2009). The present study therefore seeks to extend the body of knowledge on HRM in Nigeria by comparing the practice of HRM in the public and private sector in Nigeria. In addition, the study seeks to examine the effects of HRM practices on employee attitudes in the public and private sector in Nigeria. Accordingly, the discussion of public and private sector organizations will be the focus of the next section.

### 1.3 Public and Private Sector Organizations

A key question in the study of public and private organizations is whether they are similar or different (Wang *et al*., 2012; Bullock *et al*., 2013; Rainey, 2014). This debate has been a fundamental issue to organizational theorists over the years and is perhaps as old as the field of public administration (Hvidman & Andersen, 2014). Consequently, despite numerous studies comparing public and private organizations, there is no consensus on what the definition should be, or how public and private organizations should be classified (Baarspul & Wilderom, 2011; Hvidman & Andersen, 2014). Moreover, the fact that what constitutes public and private sectors differ from one context to the other, further compounds the difficulty in defining both sectors (Bullock *et al*., 2013).

Traditionally, the public sector was associated with the activities of the government or state whilst the private sector comprised of economic activities of individuals (Perry & Rainey, 1988). However, the adoption of neo-liberal policies such as privatization and commercialization in both developed and developing countries has altered what was hitherto known as public organizations (Wood & Wright, 2015). In fact, Wood & Wright (2015) note that although neo-liberal approaches such as privatization were ostensibly meant to relieve the public sector of some functions by transferring ownership of erstwhile public enterprises to private hands for more ‘efficient’ management, neo-liberal approaches have rather made the public sector less active in some areas and more active in others. As a result, in extreme cases, the role of the public sector has changed from catering for the common interest of citizens to being a conduit for furthering private interests (cf. Wood & Wright, 2015). Such systemic changes means that there is an increasing intermingling of public and private sectors, with each sector performing functions that were traditionally performed by the other (Scott & Falcone, 1998; Rainey, 2014; Wood & Wright, 2015). This has further blurred the distinction between public and private sectors since some organizations operate in spheres that are neither public nor private (Baarspul & Wilderom, 2011; Rainey, 2014; cf. Wood & Wright, 2015).

Therefore, in reality, it is challenging to clearly distinguish between public and private sector organizations (Hvidman & Andersen, 2014). Despite these complexities, academics have historically devised ways of defining public and private sector organizations for research purposes (Bozeman, 1987; Perry & Rainey, 1988; Rainey & Bozeman, 2000; Hvidman & Andersen, 2014; Rainey, 2014). Three frameworks have currently emerged in the literature for delineating public and private sector organizations: the generic, core, and dimensional approaches (Scott & Falcone, 1998; Williams & Powell, 2013). These frameworks are discussed below.

#### 1.3.1 Generic Approach

Proponents of the generic approach argue against the classification of organizations on the basis of their formal, legal status (Murray, 1975; Scott & Falcone, 1998; Simon, 1998; Williams & Powell, 2013). They suggest that irrespective of whether an organization is a public or private one, the functions and techniques of management such as defining objectives, planning, directing, organizing, motivating employees and control, among others are the same (Murray, 1975; Simon, 1998). Proponents of this approach also argue that whilst private organizations’ decision making is driven by economic efficiency and profit making, public organizations’ decision making is guided by equity (Murray, 1975; Simon, 1995; Scott & Falcone, 1998). However, they argue further that both organizational forms subject their decisions to cost-benefit analysis of some sort and to diverse competing inputs (Scott & Falcone, 1998). Based on this, they assert that public and private organizations achieve different ends but with the same means (Scott & Falcone, 1998; Williams & Powell, 2013).

Interestingly, scholars who subscribe to the generic approach contend that although profit is necessary for the survival of private organizations, profit making is not the only objective of private organizations, therefore it is simplistic to assume that private organizations differ from public ones based on the profit making motive of the former (Murray, 1975; Fottler, 1981). They point out that there exist other objectives such as employment generation, provision of products and services, customer satisfaction, among others, which private organizations pursue. Consequently, Murray (1975, p. 365) note that the idea that private organizations are different from public ones is stereotypical and “once [these] stereotypes are discarded, similarities [between public and public organizations will] emerge”.

Advocates of generic approach also argue that the similarity in constraints faced by public and private organizations has led to the diffusion of similar management practices in both sectors, thereby eroding whatever differences that would have existed between the two sectors (Murray, 1975; Fottler, 1981). For instance, they argue that private organizations are subject to government or political authority through legislation (Perry & Rainey, 1988). In addition, they state that the idea that private organizations should be accountable to the public and engage in corporate social responsibility is an indication that public and private organizations have converged (Murray, 1975; Fottler, 1981; Perry & Rainey, 1988). Moreover, Murray (1975) argued that some private organizations depend heavily on the government for funding through government contracts such that they possess the characteristics of public organizations. Even at that, it is argued that the provision of public services through private contracts is in itself a point of convergence between these two organizational forms (Scott & Falcone, 1998; Williams & Powell, 2013).

Concomitant to the generic approach are new public management (NPM) approaches (Hood, 1991; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004). Advocates of new public management tend to emphasize the convergence of public and private organizations (Boyne, 2002). The nucleus, and one of the earliest and most enduring aspects of new public management is that management practices that have purportedly proven successful in private organizations should be implemented in public organizations (Hood, 1991; Boyne, 2002; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004; Boyne & Walker, 2010). However, the idea that public sector organizations should be run in a business-like manner has received criticisms (Cunningham *et al*., 2006; Dunleavy *et al*., 2006). Noteworthy is that the adoption of NPM approaches in the area of employment relationship has created ‘tension’ for public sector managers in their quest to meet the needs of employees on one hand, and cost-effectiveness requirements on the other (Cunningham *et al*., 2006). Nevertheless, Boyne (2002) earlier suggested that the transfer of private sector practices to the public sector is an issue that merits serious consideration, albeit with caution. It could be argued that the fact that public managers are encouraged to import practices from private sector organizations is an indication that both sectors may be different.

#### 1.3.2 Core Approach

In sharp contrast to the generic approach, the core approach emphasizes the differences between organizations based on their formal legal status (Scott & Falcone, 1998; Williams & Powell, 2013; Rainey, 2014). Researchers supporting this stream of argument have acknowledged severally that government and non-governmental activities are intermingled (Hvidman & Andersen, 2014; Rainey, 2014). They note however that this has not resulted in a convergence, but rather, a blurring of sectors (Baarspul & Wilderom, 2011; Rainey 2014). Consequently, they acknowledge that though some management processes and tasks may be similar in public and private sectors, fundamental differences still exist between both sectors that should not be ignored (Wright & Davis, 2003; Baarspul & Wilderom, 2011; Bullock *et al*., 2013; Hvidman & Andersen, 2014; Rainey, 2014). Of course, Rainey (2014) notes that the fact that public organizations are still in existence does not only underscore their importance but also the difference between them and private sector organizations.

Hence, the core approach maintains that organizations should be grouped as distinct public or distinct private ones (Scott & Falcone, 1998; Williams & Powell, 2013). Based on this approach, public and private organizations are defined on the basis of their ownership and source of funding (Boyne, 2002; Baarspul & Wilderom, 2011; Hvidman & Andersen, 2014). Whilst public organizations are owned by the government and funded through legislative appropriations, their private sector counterparts are owned by individuals or shareholders and receive funding from owners and revenues from customers (Boyne, 2002). Nonetheless, this simple classification of organizations as distinct public or private ones may exclude many new forms of organizations such as the NHS in the UK or the Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) which is a joint venture between the Nigerian government and foreign multinational companies. It is this shortcoming of the core approach that has given birth to the dimensional approach to defining public and private organizations (Williams & Powell, 2013) which is discussed in the next section.

#### 1.3.3 Dimensional Approach

The dimensional approach provides a way of classifying organizations that incorporate diverse organizational forms (Scott & Falcone, 1998; Williams & Powell, 2013). It distinguishes organizations based on their exposure to political and economic authority (Bozeman, 1987). The approach suggests that organizations exist on a “publicness” continuum, with pure private organizations on one end and pure public organizations on the other (Bozeman & Bretschneider, 1994). In the middle of the continuum lie hybrid organizations that combine the features of both public and private organizations (Nutt & Backoff, 1993). Whilst the pure private organizations are strictly under the control of economic authority, the pure public ones are strictly subject to political authority (Bozeman, 1987; Scott & Falcone, 1998; Williams & Powell, 2013). This means that the more an organization is under the control of economic authority, the more private it is whilst the more an organization is subject to political authority, the more public it is (Bozeman, 1987; Williams & Powell, 2013). As noted by Scott and Falcone (1998), the dimensional approach is useful not only because it accounts for hybrid organizations, but it also takes into cognisance the political behaviour of private organizations as well as the economic behaviour of government ones.

Therefore, public organizations are defined in this research as organizations that are *wholly* owned by the government and funded *mainly* through government appropriations whilst private organizations are defined as organizations that are *wholly* owned by individuals or shareholders and funded *mainly* through revenue from customers or owners’ funds. On the basis of this classification, this research will explore the nature of HRM in public and private sector in Nigeria as well as the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in public and private sector.

### 1.4 The Research Problem

There are two distinct approaches to HRM (Storey, 1995) which may be influenced by the context in which organizations operate (Brewster, 2007; Jenkins & Delbridge, 2013). One approach views the people that work for organizations like any resource that can be deployed to achieve organizational goals (Beardwell & Clark, 2007). Organizations using this approach tend to adopt what Webster & Wood (2005) refer to as “low-value added” HR practices that are characterised by low pay, low investment in training, low employee voice, low job security and an emphasis on individual productivity (Storey, 1995; Webster & Wood, 2005; Crawshaw & Hatch, 2014). A second approach however is focused on engendering the commitment of workers (Crawshaw & Hatch, 2014) through the adoption of “high-value added” HR practices (cf. Webster & Wood, 2005) characterised by high pay, high investment in training, high employee voice, and high job security (Appelbaum *et al*., 2000; Boxall & Purcell, 2003; Crawshaw & Hatch, 2014).

Whilst there is debate as to whether HRM across the world is converging towards the “low-value added” model as a result of competitive pressures arising from globalization (Brewster, 2007), empirical research indicate that whilst pressures of globalization persist, national institutional differences preclude the convergence of HRM towards a single model (Brewster *et al*., 2008; Mayrhofer *et al*., 2011; Goergen *et al*., 2012). Hence, whilst a “low-value added” model of HRM is associated with Anglo-Saxon liberal market economies, “high-value added” model of HRM is associated with co-ordinated market economies (Wood *et al*., 2012). Nevertheless, within specific national contexts, diversity may exist in the way organizations manage human resources (Lane & Wood, 2009).

Although they may not be viewed as a homogeneous entity (Kamoche *et al*., 2015), most emerging countries in Africa have shared historical legacies of colonialism and are currently undergoing another wave of economic imperialism via the instrumentality of Bretton Woods institutions, which has influenced the nature of institutional arrangements and by extension, the management of human resources in African contexts (Okpara & Wynn, 2008; Wood *et al*., 2011; Dibben & Wood, 2016). The adoption of neo-liberal policies that are forced on emerging countries in Africa has facilitated the transfer of HRM practices from Anglo-Saxon developed economies to emerging African countries (Anakwe, 2002; Jackson, 2002; Kamoche, 2002; Azolukwam & Perkins, 2009; Newenham-Kahindi *et al*., 2013). The rationale for this, according to Newenham-Kahindi *et al*. (2013) is that these practices have worked effectively in other emerging markets thus it is assumed that they will automatically prove effective in African contexts.

However, where such practices are not adapted to the socio-cultural, political and economic realities of African countries, they may fail to produce desired outcomes and result in alienation, frustration, confusion and disillusionment on the part of workers (Azolukwam & Perkins, 2009; Kamoche *et al*., 2013). Hence, it has been suggested that the “management of people and organizations in Africa should be informed and driven by locally identifiable practices” (Newenham-Kahindi *et al*., 2013 p. xi). Consequently, as earlier noted by Webster & Wood (2005), a key issue in the study of HRM in African contexts is whether the adoption of neo-liberal approaches has resulted to the predominance of a “low-value added” model or whether organizations in Africa adopt culturally-derived practices that may be described as autocratic, paternalistic, and based on informal networks.

In Nigeria, the adoption of an IMF-driven policy of liberalization has opened indigenous private organizations to intense competition from firms from advanced countries (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001; Anakwe, 2002; Okpara & Wynn, 2008). Of course, Wood and colleagues (Webster & Wood, 2005; Wood *et al*., 2011) note that when firms in emerging countries are confronted with such competitive pressures, cost-cutting becomes the best path to profitability. Hence, labour becomes a major casualty of such cost-cutting measures (Webster & Wood, 2005). The result is often poor employment conditions portrayed by low wages, lack of job security, lack of investment in training, job cuts and other associated harsh measures (cf. Webster & Wood, 2005). Unsurprisingly, words such as ‘downsizing’, ‘layoffs’, ‘retrenchment’, ‘rightsizing’, ‘redundancy’, and related terminologies have crept into the Nigerian lexicon of employment.

The public sector in Nigeria is also not immune to the negative effects of the IMF’s structural adjustment policies (Adewumi & Idowu, 2012; Omar, 2012). The obsession with ‘efficiency’ of public organizations arising from the policies of neo-liberalism has posed challenges to HRM in the public sector (Adewumi, 2012*b*). Wholesale privatization of public enterprises has led to massive job losses whilst budget cuts for public sector organizations has created additional challenges for managing existing employees in the public sector (Adewumi, 2012*b*; Idowu, 2012). However, despite the pressures of neo-liberalism, the public sector in Nigeria provides a platform for promoting national unity (Mustapha, 2009), with some practices in the public sector aimed at ‘compensating for systemic failures’ (cf. Lane & Wood, 2009), such as the quota system of employment in the public service (Mustapha, 2009).

Interestingly, whilst the Labour Act of 1998 and the Nigerian Constitution provide the regulatory framework for employment relations in Nigeria (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001) with the latter particularly safeguarding the basic human rights of all citizens, the problem with Nigeria is not in enacting laws but the enforcement of such laws (Adegbite, 2012). A system of endemic corruption, combined with weak institutional capacity, result in poor enforcement of labour legislation (Nwabuzor, 2005; Fajana, 2007; Akanle & Adesina, 2015) whilst massive unemployment and the flagrant abuse of the rule of law inhibit workers from demanding for their basic rights (Fajana, 2007; Adewumi & Adenuga, 2010; Adewumi, 2012). This is further exacerbated in an environment where structures are designed to deliberately weaken the capacity of trade unions in line with the dictates of neo-liberalism (Fajana, 2007; Adewumi, 2012). This results in poor conditions of employment in many organizations in Nigeria, exemplified by low investment in value-added HR practices (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001).

At the same time, it has been suggested that some organizations may adopt culturally-relevant practices in managing human resources (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001; Anakwe, 2002). This may create a dichotomy between the use of formal versus informal techniques of HRM or a combination of both, resulting in hybridized practices (Azolukwam & Perkins, 2009). For example, whilst some organizations may adopt formal techniques of recruitment such as advertisement and the use of recruitment agencies (Arthur *et al*., 1995; Okpara & Wynn, 2008), others may rely on informal networks based on family ties and friendship as a source of recruitment (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001). Nevertheless, there are yet some industries or sectors where “high-value added” practices (cf. Webster & Wood, 2005) may be prevalent (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001), thereby leading to internal diversity on the basis of industry or sector that characterise a segmented business system (Wood & Frynas, 2006; Bischoff & Wood, 2012; Wood & Horwitz, 2015).

Meanwhile, it has been argued that when organizations adopt HR practices that seek to enhance the ability of employees, motivate employees, and provide them with the opportunity to participate, it will engender positive employee attitudes in the form of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Appelbaum *et al*., 2000; Boxall & Purcell, 2003; Katou & Budhwar, 2014). Thus, the effectiveness of HR practices in engendering positive attitudes in the Nigerian context may be sector-dependent. Moreover, since the institutional environment of organizations influences the practices they adopt, it is expected that the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes may be affected by the institutional context. Moreover, differences in ownership and sources of funding between public and private sector organizations mean that organizations in both sectors operate under different institutional environments (Rainey, 2014) which may influence not only their practices but also employee attitudinal responses to such practices.

Nevertheless, most previous studies on the effect of HR practices on employee attitudes have focused on private sector organizations to the neglect of public sector organizations. Of course, just like HRM is important to private sector organizations, it is also important to public sector organizations since the skills, abilities and motivations of employees are necessary for quality service delivery in the public sector (Burke *et al*., 2013). It is based on the foregoing premise that this study seeks to compare the nature of HRM in the public and private sector in Nigeria as well as the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in the public and private sector.

### 1.5 Research Objectives and Questions

The broad objective of this research is to compare the nature of HRM in the public and private sector as well as the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in public and private sector in Nigeria. The specific research objectives are as follows:

1. To explore the influence of institutions on HRM in the public and private sector in Nigeria.
2. To examine the specific techniques of HRM adopted in the public and private sector in Nigeria.
3. To examine the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in the public and private sector in Nigeria.

Arising from these objectives, the research seeks to address the following research questions:

1. How do institutions influence HRM in the public and private sector in Nigeria?
2. What are the specific techniques of HRM adopted in the public and private sector in Nigeria?
3. What are the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in the public and private sector in Nigeria?

### 1.6 Significance of the Research

The aim of this section is to highlight the various ways in which this research is considered important. The analysis of HRM in Nigeria from an institutional perspective is one of the main significance of this research. This is because many researchers (e.g. Wood *et al*., 2011; Cooke *et al*., 2015; Kamoche *et al*., 2015) have noted the dominant use of cultural frameworks in examining HRM in African contexts. Apart from the fact that institutions influence HRM more than culture (Brookes *et al*., 2011), the cultural diversity that exists between and within African countries suggests that cultural frameworks may be inadequate in understanding organizational practices in such contexts (Adeleye, 2011). Importantly, Bischoff & Wood (2012) note that a major limitation of studying HRM from a cultural perspective in diverse cultural contexts of African countries is that some cultures may be unjustly condemned for being liable for poor performance of organizations which may result in prejudice against particular cultures, with its attendant consequences. On the other hand, an understanding of HRM from an institutional perspective in such a context as adopted in this study may help managers of organizations and policy makers in engineering positive transformations in institutional arrangements in order to achieve prosperity (Bischoff & Wood, 2012).

Generally, researchers examining the nature of HRM from an institutional perspective have often conducted their studies at the organizational level of analysis by tapping the views of HR managers who provide information on HR practices on behalf of their organizations (e.g Webster & Wood, 2005; Farndale *et al*., 2008; Johnson *et al*., 2009; Croucher *et al*., 2011; Mayrhofer *et al*., 2011; Wood *et al*., 2011; Brewster *et al*., 2014). This study adopts this approach but extends the analysis to the perceptions of employees about the HR practices they encounter in their organizations. Seeking to understand the perceptions of employees about HR practices is considered significant in this study since it recognizes employees as important stakeholders in the HRM equation (Beer *et al*., 2015) whose views about the practices they encounter should also be heard (Guest, 2011). Moreover, there may be a gap between intended practices based on the views of HR managers and the actual practices employees encounter in their organizations (Piening *et al*., 2014). Therefore, studying HRM from the perspective of both HR managers and employees will present a more balanced perspective about the nature of HRM in organizations.

Similarly, most studies on the HR practices-employee attitudes relationship often neglect the impact of the institutional context in which organizations operate (Kim & Wright, 2011). In this study, the researcher understands that organizations are part of a wider institutional environment which may influence the practices they adopt. As a result, the effect of HR practices in engendering positive attitudes may also be affected by the institutional context. This approach is significant since it will enable researchers and practitioners to understand the institutional conditions within which HR practices may generate positive employee attitudes.

This research is also significant since it will enable researchers and practitioners understand the nature of HRM in Nigeria at a time the country seeks to diversify the economy and attract foreign direct investment. Although there are a handful of writings on HRM in Nigeria (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001; Anakwe, 2002; Okpara & Wynn, 2008; Azolukwam & Perkins, 2009), this research seeks to examine whether the specific HR practices adopted by organizations in Nigeria differ according to the industry, sector and size of the organization. So for example, whilst it is useful to learn the importance of employee benefits and training in Nigerian organizations (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001), it is equally important to understand how organizations are training employees or the types of employee benefits offered. In the same vein, whilst it is interesting to know that HR practices such as recruitment and selection found in advanced countries are also present in Nigeria (cf. Okpara & Wynn, 2008), it is important to find out the techniques of recruitment and selection used, and by which type of organization. This will enable those who are interested in HRM in Nigeria to discover whether or not organizations in Nigeria are converging towards a particular model of HRM.

Moreover, the research seeks to examine employee attitudes- job satisfaction and organizational commitment- that are widely considered as important to employees and organizations. As discussed in chapter 3, these employee attitudes have been found to relate to HRM (albeit mostly in other contexts). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are the most powerful predictors of behaviour (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer *et al*., 2002; Morrow, 2011; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012) and have been found to influence important work outcomes such as job performance (Judge *et al*., 2001; Riketta, 2002; Fried *et al*., 2008; Kuvaas, 2008; Ng *et al*., 2009), organizational citizenship behaviours (Moorman *et al*., 1993; Koys, 2001; Ng & Feldman, 2011; Yang, 2012; Kehoe & Wright, 2013), turnover intentions (Guchait & Cho, 2010; Juhdi *et al*., 2013; Fabi *et al*., 2015; Huang & Su, 2016), and organizational performance (Gong *et al*., 2009; Elorza *et al*., 2011; Choi & Lee, 2013), among others.

Finally, the study is significant since it focuses on comparing HRM in the public and private sector. Despite the importance of HRM to both public and private sector organizations (Burke *et al*., 2013), most writings on HRM focus on private sector organizations to the neglect of public sector organizations (Burke *et al*., 2013; Knies *et al*., 2015). This trend has been followed in HRM studies in African contexts (e.g Okpara & Wynn, 2008; Azolukwam & Perkins, 2009; Wood *et al*., 2011; Gomes *et al*., 2012) where, in most cases, the bulk of the workforce in the formal economy belongs to the public sector (Aryee, 2004; Stampini *et al*., 2011; Adewumi & Idowu, 2012). Similarly, most studies examining the effects of employee attitudes have also concentrated on private sector firms with a few exception of studies that have focused on the public sector (see chapter 3). Meanwhile, as HRM is considered important to private firms, so is it important to public sector organizations in delivering quality services to citizens by harnessing the skills, abilities, motivations and commitment of employees (Burke *et al*., 2013). Moreover, as public sector organizations in both developed (Cunningham *et al*., 2006) and developing countries (Rees, 2013) are under pressure to adopt private sector-driven practices, it is important, especially in an emerging country context, to compare the nature of HRM in the public and private sector and how HR practices contribute toward engendering positive employee attitudes in both sectors.

### 1.7 The Research Model

The research model which is presented in figure 1.1 indicates that HRM is a function of the institutional environment in which organizations operate. It highlights that the techniques of HRM used will depend on the institutional environment of public and private sector organizations which in turn will influence the perceptions employees have about the HR practices they encounter. In turn, the perceptions employees have about HR practices will contribute in developing attitudes in the form of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. However, as the model suggests, the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes may not be direct. The model indicates that this relationship may be mediated by procedural justice as well as HR attributions. Whilst procedural justice entails employees’ perception of fairness in the implementation of HR practices (Paré & Tremblay, 2007), HR attributions refer to employees’ perception of the motivations for why organizations adopt HR practices (Nishii *et al*., 2008).

It has been suggested that procedural justice (Paauwe & Boselie, 2007) and HR attributions (Kim & Wright, 2011) may account for differences in the effects of HR practices on work outcomes in different institutional contexts. Therefore, it is hypothesized in this research that employee perceptions of procedural justice and HR attributions will differ in the public and private sector and consequently, the mediating effect of procedural justice as well as HR attributions on the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes will differ in the public and private sector (see chapter 6).

Public vs Private Sector

Employee Attitudes

* Job Satisfaction
* Organizational commitment
  + Affective
  + Normative
  + Continuance

Institutional Context

Employee Perceptions of HR Practices

HRM

* Specific Techniques

Study 1

Study 2

Figure 1‑1: The Research Model

Methodologically, the research is divided into 2 studies that are labelled *study 1* and *study 2* respectively. Study 1 is conducted at the organizational level of analysis by tapping the views of HR managers on the influence of institutions on HRM and the techniques of HR practices adopted in the public and private sector since HR managers are in a better position to provide information on these issues. The findings from this study were then used for generating context-specific hypotheses on the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes which is the focus of study 2. Certainly, issues involving employee perceptions of HR practices and employee attitudes are within the purview of employees; therefore study 2 is conducted at the individual level of analysis. A mixed methods research strategy which is embedded in a neo-positivist research philosophy (Duberley *et al*., 2012) is adopted for the research which means that efforts were made to objectively conduct the qualitative aspect of the research (Duberley *et al*., 2012; Johnson & Duberley, 2015). This will be further explained in chapter 4.

### 1.8 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is organized into nine chapters, including the present one. In chapter 2, an overview of HRM is presented, together with the institutional frameworks for understanding HRM. The institutional frameworks for understanding HRM covered in the chapter are: the economic perspective, new institutionalism, varieties of capitalism approach, business system theory and a discussion of institutional diversity. An understanding of these institutional frameworks is important to the research since one of the objectives of the research is to explore the influence of institutions on HRM in the public and private sector in Nigeria. Besides, these frameworks are important for providing directions in which to look in the course of qualitative data analysis. In addition, since another objective of the research is to examine the specific techniques of HRM adopted in the public and private sector, the chapter also discusses and explains the selection of four HR practices (recruitment and selection, training, employee benefits and employee participation) that are included in the research.

Chapter 3 focuses on reviewing literature on the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in line with the objective of the study. The chapter begins with an overview of research on HR practices and organizational performance in order to make a case for why it is important to examine the effects of HR practices from the perspective of employees. After defining the concept of employee attitudes, the chapter proceeds by discussing the theoretical link between HR practices and employee attitudes. Thereafter, studies on the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in the shape of job satisfaction and organizational commitment are presented in a bid to show the link between HR practices and these attitudinal variables and to identify some of the research gaps that the current study seeks to fill.

In chapter 4, the methodology used for conducting the present research is discussed. After discussing the philosophical position adopted in this research, the research design is presented. The chapter indicates that the current research is divided into 2 studies labelled as study 1 and study 2. In study 1, the influence of HRM on institutions and the specific techniques of HRM adopted in public and private organizations are covered, with data collected from HR managers. Study 2 deals with the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes. The methods of data analysis for each of these studies is presented whilst the chapter concludes by outlining the ethical issues that were addressed in the research.

Data presentation and findings from study 1 is the focus of chapter 5 of this thesis. In this chapter, the results of both quantitative and qualitative data analysis on the influence of institutions on HRM are presented. This is followed by the presentation of results of the specific techniques of HRM adopted in public and private sector in Nigeria. Chapter 6 deals with theorizing and hypotheses for study 2. The chapter draws on existing theories such as the ability, motivation and opportunity (AMO) framework, social exchange theory, organizational justice theory and attribution theory to develop hypotheses for study 2. In addition, the chapter draws from the findings from study 1 presented in chapter 5 as a basis for developing some context-specific hypotheses for study 2.

The analysis of data and tests of hypotheses for study 2 is the focus of chapter 7. After establishing construct validity and reliability of the measures used in the study, the chapter proceeds with presentation of results from hypotheses testing. The tests of hypotheses begins with the tests of direct relationships for which multiple regression analysis is used as a statistical tool. This is followed by tests of mediation effects and moderated mediation effects with the use of mediation statistics and moderated mediation analysis respectively. The chapter ends with a summary of results from the tests of hypotheses.

Chapter 8 deals with a discussion of findings from study 1 and study 2 in line with the objectives of the research. The chapter begins with a discussion of findings on the influence of institutions on HRM in the public and private sector in Nigeria, followed by a discussion of findings on the specific techniques of HRM adopted by public and private sector organizations in Nigeria. Thereafter, the findings on the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in the public and private sector in Nigeria are discussed whilst the chapter ends with a discussion of the findings on the effect of sector on employee attitudes.

The last chapter of the thesis which is chapter 9 deals with the conclusions drawn from the research. The chapter begins by presenting the conclusions and is followed by the presentation of research contributions. In addition, the chapter presents the practical implications of the research to managers, trade unions and policy makers in Nigeria. The research limitations and directions for future research are presented whilst the chapter, and indeed the thesis, ends with a presentation of some final reflections.

# CHAPTER TWO

## HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AND INSTITUTIONAL APPROACHES

### 2.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the concept of HRM as well as the institutional approaches to understanding HRM. An understanding of the various institutional frameworks is important since one of the objectives of the research is to explore the influence of institutions on HRM in the public and private sector in Nigeria. Thus, a review of institutional approaches can provide directions in which to look whilst analysing qualitative data on the influence of institutions on HRM in Nigeria. In addition, since the research also seeks to examine the specific techniques of HRM used in the public and private sector in Nigeria, it is important to discuss the HR practices covered in this research. Therefore, the chapter also discusses in detail the HR practices namely recruitment and selection, training, employee benefits and employee participation which are the focus of the present research. The chapter begins with a discussion of the concept of HRM, followed by the institutional frameworks for understanding HRM whilst the various HR practices included in this research are discussed.

### 2.2 The Concept of HRM

HRM as an academic discipline originated from USA in the 1980s and has gained popularity around the world in the three decades or so, of its existence (Brewster, 2007; Torrington *et al*., 2011; Brewster & Mayrhofer, 2012; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2012; Redman & Wilkinson, 2013; Beer *et al*., 2015). However, there is no universally accepted definition of HRM in spite of the wide attention the subject has received over the years (Boxall *et al*., 2007; Torrington *et al*., 2011; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2012). Different philosophies and ideologies exist about what is, or what should constitute HRM, resulting in increased difficulty in defining the concept (Beardwell & Clark, 2007; Gilmore, 2009; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2012). In this research, one of the most popular definitions of HRM put forward by Storey (1995 p.5) who conceptualize HRM as “a distinctive approach to employment management which seeks to achieve competitive advantage through strategic deployment of highly committed and capable workforce, using an integrated array of cultural, structural and personnel techniques” is adopted. Despite the considerable uncertainty in the use of the term HRM (Redman & Wilkinson, 2013), the effective management of people is fundamental to the survival of organizations since even the most automated organizations rely on employees to function effectively (Marchington & Wilkinson, 2012; Crawshaw & Hatch, 2014).

Two perspectives on HRM have been distinguished as ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ models[[2]](#footnote-2) of HRM (Storey, 1995). Hard HRM model views the people that work in organizations like any resource that can be deployed for the attainment of organizational goals (Storey, 1995; Beardwell & Clark, 2007). When conceived in this way, HRM involves controlling and coordinating employees in order to maximize their performance (Beardwell & Clark, 2007; Crawshaw & Hatch, 2014). This model of HRM may focus on the use of sophisticated forms of appraisal and the use of contingent pay systems particularly for senior executives. Therefore, the emphasis of hard HRM is to ensure that the workforce of an organization is efficiently utilized (Beardwell & Clark, 2007; Crawshaw & Hatch, 2014). In fact, Brewster (2007) observe that when HRM is conceived in this way, the organization can only treat its people fairly under conducive circumstances such as when labour is in short supply or when labour is critical to the attainment of organizational goals.

On the contrary, a soft model of HRM views workers as human beings with feelings and emotions and whose needs the organization is expected to meet (Beardwell & Clark, 2007). Hence, the objective of soft HRM is to engender the commitment of workers to the goals of the organization. The assumption of this model is that the success of the organization depends on the commitment, satisfaction and motivation of workers (Crawshaw & Hatch, 2014). Nevertheless, the dichotomy between soft and hard HRM is not often clear-cut in reality since employees may encounter both hard and soft versions of HRM at workplace (Wilkinson *et al*., 2014).

A major debate in the field of HRM is whether organizations and indeed countries around the world are converging towards a single model of HRM or whether different models are adopted in the management of people in different national contexts (Brewster, 2007; Brewster & Mayrhofer, 2012). Whilst HRM models originating from the USA assume a universality of HRM (cf. Brewster, 2007), research has indicated that even within the same national context, organizations may adopt different techniques of implementing a particular HR practice (Brewster *et al*., 2008; Wood *et al*., 2011; Brewster *et al*., 2014). For instance, whilst it is common for organizations to have recruitment practices, the specific techniques of recruitment may differ from one organization to the other (Wood *et al*., 2011). At the same time, differences in the institutional architecture of nations means that different approaches are used by organizations in managing human resources across national contexts (Brewster & Mayrhofer, 2012; Wood & Horwitz, 2015). For instance, research on HRM in Europe has pointed towards a divergence of HRM approaches (Mayrhofer *et al*., 2011).

In Africa, the increased interest in HRM has witnessed a surge in HRM-related studies such that Kamoche *et al*. (2012) recently declared that HRM in Africa is no longer an uncharted territory. However, many authors have pointed out that most studies conducted on HRM in African contexts have utilized cultural frameworks that seek to emphasize differences between African and Anglo-Saxon cultural values (Wood *et al*., 2011; Cooke *et al*., 2015; Kamoche *et al*., 2015). Whilst the influence of culture on management practices has been long established, the diversity in cultural values between and within countries in Africa suggests that HRM may not be understood properly in such contexts through cultural lens (Adeleye, 2011; Bischoff & Wood, 2012).

Moreover, research within the socio-economic tradition of comparative institutional analysis has shown that compared to cultural factors, institutional factors have more influence on the adoption of HR practices (Brookes *et al*., 2011). Hence, there are several calls for researchers to adopt institutional frameworks in a bid to provide a better understanding of HRM in African contexts (Adeleye, 2011; Wood *et al*., 2011; Bischoff & Wood, 2012; Cooke *et al*., 2015; Kamoche *et al*., 2015). This research therefore seeks to examine the nature of HRM in public and private sector in Nigeria as well as the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes from an institutional perspective. In the subsequent sections, the various institutional approaches to understanding HRM will be discussed, followed by the nature of HR practices.

### 2.3 Institutions and HRM

Institutions have been studied widely in different fields within the social sciences such as sociology, economics, finance, politics, among others (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; North, 1990; La Porta *et al*., 1999; Whitley, 1999; Hall & Soskice, 2001). However, there is no consensus as to the characteristics of institutions and how they should be defined (Wood *et al*., 2012). For instance, North (1990 p. 3) defines institutions as “the rules of the game in the society”. From a sociological perspective, “institutions comprise regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive elements that, together with associated activities and resources, provide stability and meaning to social life” (Scott 2014, p. 56). From a multidisciplinary standpoint, Wood *et al*. (2014*a*, p. 2) provide an embracing definition of institutions as “structural societal features that mould social and economic conduct in a manner that goes beyond the doings of a single individual or collective”. Institutions are essential in shaping the conduct of individuals and organizations in the society. There are different frameworks for studying institutions and the way they relate to HRM (Wood *et al*., 2012; Wood *et al*., 2014*a*). Whilst each framework obviously has strengths and weaknesses, it has been suggested that a combination of different perspectives is appropriate in order to understand institutions through different lenses and how this affects HRM (Burbach & Royle, 2014). Various institutional approaches to understanding HRM are discussed in the sub-sections below.

#### 2.3.1 Economic Perspective

The economic perspective of institutions which is embedded in private property rights views individuals and firms as rational actors, and assumes that the role of institutions is primarily to protect private property, by providing incentives and disincentives to firms (North, 1990; cf. Wood *et al*., 2014*a*). According to Wood *et al*. (2014*a*), the proponents of this ideology assume that nations with strong property rights will economically outperform those with weak property rights. The economic perspective of institutions is ingrained in neo-liberalism as espoused by Washington-based bodies such as IMF and the World Bank who seek to prescribe the ordering of economies across the world (Peck, 2010; Dardot & Laval, 2013; Wood *et al.,* 2014*a*).

As noted by Wood and colleagues, the implication of property rights on HRM is that, strong property rights favour the rights of owners against those of workers, with the flawed belief that economic efficiency of firms can only be achieved when the rights of workers are subdued (Wood *et al*., 2012; Wood, *et al*., 2014*a*). The assumption is that systems with weak investor protection and strong workers’ rights provide a breeding ground for inefficiency since it is presumed that managers and employees, being rational actors, are more likely to maximize their gains to the detriment of owners (Botero *et al*., 2004; La Porta *et al*., 2008; Wood *et al*., 2014*a*). Thus, in contexts where there is strong property rights and weaker employees’ rights, the emphasis is on maximising the wealth of shareholders, to the detriment of workers’ well-being (Hollinshead, 2010; Wood *et al*., 2014*a*). Employees are therefore considered as resources that can be used and disposed, which is reflected in the adoption of short term, low value-added HRM approaches (Hollinshead 2010; Wood *et al*. 2014*b*).

In providing the institutional basis for property rights, La Porta *et al*. (1999) theorized that the difference between contexts with strong and weak property rights was based on their legal origins (Wood *et al*., 2012). Pointedly, they argue that common law systems support strong property rights as opposed to civil law systems where property rights are weak; suggesting that countries with common law systems will have superior economic performance compared to countries with civil law systems (La Porta *et al*., 1999; 2000; Botero *et al*. 2004; La Porta *et al*., 2008). They further argue that stronger rights of workers will erode the profit maximization potential of firms, and will in turn discourage firms from investing, thereby resulting in lesser employment opportunities (Botero *et al*., 2004; La Porta *et al*., 2008; cf. Wood *et al*., 2014*b*). As Wood *et al* (2014*b*) observe, it is based on this premise that the World Bank and the IMF force developing countries to weaken labour legislation in order to attract foreign direct investment (FDI).

In the particular case of Africa, Acemoglu *et al*. (2012) suggest that the extent to which private property is protected in African economies is influenced by the legacies of colonializtion in Africa (Cooke *et al*., 2015). They argue that due to the high incidence of tropical diseases and unfavourable weather conditions in West Africa, the Europeans were less interested in settling in West Africa compared to Eastern and Southern African regions where favourable weather conditions resulted in high European settlement (Acemoglu *et al*., 2012). As a result, this led to the establishment of strong institutions that were aimed at protecting the rights of European settlers in Eastern and Southern African regions (Acemoglu *et al*., 2012). This is in contrast to the Western African region where less attention was given to the construction of institutions (Acemoglu *et al*., 2012). Thus, this has resulted in stronger protection of private property in East and South Africa after the colonial period (Acemoglu *et al*., 2012; Cooke *et al*., 2015). This would suggest that compared to the Western region, the Eastern and Southern African regions will be more attractive to FDI due to the emphasis on stronger rights of owners and in turn will result in superior economic performance of these regions (Acemoglu *et al*., 2012).

However, in research aiming to assess the determinants of FDI inflows to Africa, Wood *et al*. (2014*b*) found that weaker investor protection and stronger employees’ rights did not discourage MNCs from both emerging and mature markets from investing in any part of Africa. Thus, the claim that the legal system and indeed stronger rights of owners as a basis for economic performance of firms and nations is unfounded (Wood *et al*., 2014a; Wood *et al*., 2014b). Recently, Johnson *et al*. (2015) explored the relationship between legal origins and social solidarity and found that certain types of civil law system were associated with higher levels of social capital and better welfare state provision. However, they concluded that the relationship between legal origins and societal outcomes is more complex than the simplistic approach of La Porta and colleagues and more in line with the literature on varieties of capitalism (Johnson *et al*., 2015). The literature on varieties of capitalism will be discussed in later sections of this chapter.

Apart from the legal origins thesis, differences in electoral systems (Pagano & Volpin, 2005) and political party ideologies (Roe, 2003) have been identified as also providing the basis for national variations in private property rights (Wood *et al*., 2012). Regarding electoral systems, Pagano & Volpin (2005) suggest that employers’ rights are stronger and workers’ rights are weaker in countries with first-past-the-post electoral systems, whilst the reverse is the case in countries with proportional representation systems (cf. Wood *et al*., 2012; 2014a). As with political party ideologies, it has been suggested that the ideology of the ruling political party determines the relationship between workers and owners (Roe, 2003). Whilst right wing political parties are associated with stronger rights of employers and weaker employees’ rights, left-wing political parties are more likely to have stronger employees’ rights and weaker employers’ rights (Roe, 2003; cf. Wood *et al*., 2012). Although Wood *et al*. (2014a) suggest that political party ideology may not affect HRM practice more broadly, they made reference to the research by Goergen *et al*. (2013) to acknowledge that some practices such as downsizing may be more common under right wing governments than left wing governments.

Nevertheless, whilst political party ideology can be easily discerned in advanced democracies, in less developed democracies such as Nigeria, political parties, often, do not have clear-cut ideologies (Kura, 2011). Instead, political parties in Nigeria may only represent platforms to gain control of government. In such a context, the policies of government, including those relating to property rights, may not necessarily be driven by a guiding political ideology, but may be influenced by a few oligarchs that bankroll electioneering campaigns. These oligarchs, in alliance with ‘external vested interests’ (Wood & Frynas, 2006) will favour stronger property rights and weaker workers’ rights. The sociological new institutionalism shall be the focus of the next section.

#### 2.3.2 New Institutionalism

New institutionalism is a sociological approach for understanding organizational behaviour which provides insights into how organizations are embedded in their institutional environments, and how the institutional environment in turn shape the practices of organizations (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Paauwe & Boselie, 2007; Holm, 2014; Scott, 2014). It is a theory for explaining social structure and processes in organizations which emphasize that organizations adapt to their institutional environments in order to gain legitimacy and stand a chance of survival (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Scott, 2014). Since organizations do not operate in a vacuum, they encounter pressures in the form of rules, beliefs, norms and the professions to conform to their wider institutional environments (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991; Scott, 2008). This suggests that some organizational actions and processes are not only influenced by the need to be efficient but also by the need to be legitimate (Scott, 2014).

The need for legitimacy may compel organizations to abandon the most effective and efficient choices in pursuit of least effective and efficient ones (Boon *et al*., 2009). However, legitimacy enhances long term survival of organizations since it enables them to obtain quality resources from key stakeholders such as customers, suppliers, employees, and regulatory agencies (Deephouse, 1999). In fact, it is these stakeholders that determine whether or not an organization is legitimate (Boon *et al*., 2009). Therefore, new institutionalism suggests that organizational practices are not only informed by market forces but also as a result of institutionalization (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Paauwe & Boselie, 2003). Institutionalization has been defined as “the process by which social processes, obligations or actualities come to take on a rule-like status in social thought and action (Meyer & Rowan, 1977, p.341). Consequently, new institutionalism emphasizes the non-rationality of organizational practices as actors conform without thinking to social influences (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Paauwe & Boselie, 2007). Thus, new institutionalism challenges the “optimization assumptions of the rational actor models popular in economics” (Paauwe & Boselie, 2007, p. 173).

Although new institutionalism is distinct from the economic perspective of institutions (North, 1990), both approaches highlight the homogenization and convergence of organizational practices (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, 1991; Scott, 2014). Unsurprisingly, the framework has been widely used in explaining how multinationals transfer practices to different environments in which they operate (Kostova & Roth, 2002; Björkman *et al*., 2007; Kostova *et al*., 2008; Burbach & Royle, 2014). According to DiMaggio and Powell (1983; 1991), as rational actors attempt to change their organizations, they instead become more similar through the process of isomorphism which has been described as “a constraining process that forces one unit in a population to resemble others that face the same set of environmental conditions” (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991, p.66).

Thus, according to DiMaggio and Powell, despite differences in their task environment, organizations operating in the same organizational field are likely to adopt similar strategies and practices (including HRM) since they are likely to face similar constraints (Paauwe & Boselie, 2007). They refer to organizational fields as “those organizations that, in the aggregate, constitute a recognized area of institutional life” (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991, p.64). Organizational fields include consumers, suppliers, regulatory agencies, professional bodies, an industry or sector (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991; Scott, 2014). Two types of isomorphism have been identified as competitive and institutional isomorphism (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; 1991). The former assumes a “system of rationality that emphasizes market competition, niche, change, and fitness measures” and is more appropriate for explaining organizational behaviour in contexts with free and open competition (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991, p.66). Institutional isomorphism, according to DiMaggio and Powell, is more useful for understanding the nature of modern organizations.

DiMaggio & Powell (1983; 1991) identified three institutional isomorphic mechanisms, namely, coercive, mimetic, and normative isomorphic mechanisms. Coercive mechanisms are pressures, both formal and informal, which organizations encounter from other organizations by virtue of their dependence on them, as well as from the wider societal expectation of appropriate organizational behaviour. Essentially, these institutions wield coercive authority over organizations because of their ability to apply sanctions to organizations if they fail to comply with their demands (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). Example of coercive institutions include: government, rules and regulations, as well as legislation (Boselie *et al*., 2003).

On the other hand, DiMaggio and Powell assert that mimetic isomorphism arises from imitation as a result of uncertainty and is common where organizations operate in an uncertain environment; where the goals of the organization are ambiguous; or where technological change is difficult to comprehend (cf. DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; 1991). Finally, DiMaggio and Powell assert that normative mechanisms emanate from professionalization. This type of isomorphism has been identified as having the strongest influence on the homogenization of organizational practices and include academic institutions and professional bodies that develop and reproduce organizational practices (Paauwe, 2004; Scott, 2008).

Paauwe & Boselie (2003) have systematically adapted the framework of DiMaggio and Powell to the field of HRM (see also Boselie *et al*., 2003; Paauwe, 2004; Paauwe & Boselie, 2007). They argue that organizations face institutional constraints in the adoption of HRM strategies and practices (Paauwe & Boselie, 2003). This implies that HRM practices found in organizations reflect the institutional environment in which they operate (Boselie *et al*., 2003). For example, Paauwe & Boselie (2007) note that trade unions play a less significant role in shaping HRM in a liberal market like USA while their role is prominent in a coordinated market like the Netherlands. Whilst institutional pressures limit the leeway organizations have in choosing HRM policies, organizational success is more likely enhanced when there is a balance in HRM policies between internal and institutional demands (cf. Boon *et al*., 2009).

Hence, coercive mechanisms shaping HRM (depending on the context) will include government regulation, labour legislation, and the role of social partners like trade unions and works council (Boselie *et al*. 2003; Paauwe & Boselie, 2003; Boon *et al*., 2009). On the other hand, mimetic mechanisms will stem from imitation of HRM strategies of leading organizations when faced with uncertainty or as a result of fashionable fads in the field of management (Paauwe & Boselie, 2003; Paauwe, 2004) whilst normative mechanisms arise from the influence of professional groupings on HRM strategies and policies (Boselie *et al*., 2003; Paauwe & Boselie, 2007). This indicates the influence of professional networks on HRM practices as highlighted in the development and spread of HRM practices by professional training institutes (Paauwe & Boselie, 2007). The authors found support for their institutional model of HRM while examining the effect of HRM on performance in three organizational fields in the Netherlands (Boselie *et al*., 2003). Specifically, they found that within the same country, institutional pressures influenced HRM practices in hospitals and local government more than they did in hotels (Boselie *et al*., 2003).

Despite the pervasive influence of new institutionalism in explaining organizational behaviour, early writings on the theory were criticised for failing to account for the nature of institutional change (Oliver 1991; Dacin *et al*., 2002). According to Oliver (1991), since organizations are not passive elements of their institutional environments, they adopt different strategies and tactics to respond to institutional pressures, which may include conforming to, or challenging institutional requirements. Although the ability of an organization to challenge institutional requirements would depend on the internal dynamics of the organization as well as the nature of the external environment in which it operates (Oliver, 1991).

As a result of these criticisms, new institutionalists have, over the last decade, begun to acknowledge the dynamics of institutional change (Dacin *et al*., 2002; Greenwood *et al*., 2002; Hinings *et al*., 2004; Scott, 2010). For example, Greenwood *et al.* (2002) examined how organizational fields are changed by professional associations whilst Scott (2010, p.18) notes that “while there are signs for increasing homogenization and convergence, equally strong indicators attest to the preservation and development of diversity”. It is this diversity that is responsible for the emergence of ‘heterodox accounts’ (cf. Lane & Wood, 2009; cf. Wood *et al*., 2012) of institutions in the tradition of political economy which accentuate differences in institutional contexts between nations, thereby resulting in a diversity of organizational practices (Whitley, 1999; Hall & Soskice, 2001; Wood *et al*., 2012). The varieties of capitalism approach shall be discussed in the next section.

#### 2.3.3 Varieties of Capitalism Approach

Varieties of capitalism is a framework for understanding the similarities and dissimilarities between different types of capitalisms (Hall & Soskice 2001). The approach distinguishes between liberal market economies (LMEs) which are characterised by less regulation and the coordinated market economies (CMEs) characterised by high regulation (Hall & Soskice, 2001; Hollinshead, 2010). In LMEs, fierce competition exists whilst there is a system of coordination and cooperation in CMEs (Wood *et al*., 2012).

Whilst LMEs rely on market forces to solve economic problems, CMEs rely on relations among stakeholders to provide solutions to economic problems. Accordingly, the focus in LMEs is on shareholder rights whilst in CMEs, stakeholder rights are on the front burner (Hall & Soskice, 2001; Wood *et al*., 2012). Unlike property rights theorists who advocate for stronger owners’ rights as the basis for economic performance of firms and nations, the varieties of capitalism approach asserts that both LMEs and CMEs can attain economic performance, albeit through different paths (Wood *et al*., 2012).

The presence of complementarities is central in the varieties of capitalism approach since it has been suggested that complementarities support the persistence of institutions (Crouch, 2005; Wood *et al*., 2012). In essence, complementarities enable firms and the economy at large to perform better. Complementarities are conceptualized as the interdependence of institutions where the efficiency of one results in an increase in the efficiency of the other (Wood *et al*., 2012). This means, as the literature suggests, that economies with more complementarities will perform better than those with fewer complementarities. However, it has been argued that not all complementarities are synergistic, rather, some complementarities may exist to ‘compensate for systemic failures’ (cf. Lane & Wood, 2009).

The differences in HRM approaches between LMEs and CMEs is accentuated by the variations in institutional features of these types of capitalism (Brewster *et al*., 2014). For instance, the financial system in LMEs is organized such that firms depend on short term financial performance indices in order to have access to external financing (Vitols, 2001). The reliance on current earnings and share prices in the equity market as a basis for securing financing means that firms adopt a short term approach in the management of human resources (Hall & Soskice, 2001; Vitols, 2001; Wood *et al.,* 2012). In fact, top management of firms in LMEs are handsomely compensated for securing increase in earnings (Le *et al*., 2013). As a result of this focus on the bottom line, investment in human capital is low since employees are considered as costs that should be eliminated (Goergen *et al*., 2012; Wood *et al*., 2012). Thus, firms are more likely to lay off workers during economic downturns.

In contrast, firms in CMEs depend on their reputation as opposed to a favourable balance sheet in order to secure long term finance (Vitols, 2001). This long term focus means that firms are able to invest in long term projects, which enables them to invest in human capital and also keep highly skilled employees, even in periods of economic downturns (Hollinshead, 2010).

In LMEs, managers wield the power to hire and fire since they exert considerable control over the organization (Hall & Soskice 2001; Wood *et al*., 2014a). The volatility of the labour market in LMEs provides managers with the impetus to engage or disengage labour at will, with employment contracts mainly short term in nature (Hall & Soskice 2001; Thelen 2001). Moreover, the high status difference between managers and workers allows managers to make unpopular decisions without considering the feelings of workers (Hall & Soskice 2001; Thelen 2001). Ultimately, organizations are not duty-bound to provide avenues for co-determination in the workplace and trade unions, where they exist, are generally weak (Brewster *et al*., 2015).

On the other hand, in CMEs, the internal structure of organizations are designed to accommodate various stakeholders in decision making (Hollinshead, 2010). Thus, managers have to build consensus among different stakeholders, including employees, in order to arrive at acceptable decisions in the workplace (Hollinshead, 2010; Wood *et al*, 2012). The structures provided for co-determination in the workplace enable employees to have a voice in the organization, with trade unions being very influential (Wood *et al*. 2012; Brewster *et al*., 2015). The influence of trade unions and employee representative groups means that managers do not have the unilateral right to hire and fire as obtained in LMEs (Brewster *et al*., 2015).

In addition, unlike LMEs, the relationship between the organization, managers and workers is not hierarchical but is collaborative such that the rewards for managers and workers are aligned to those of the organization (Brewster *et al*., 2014). This encourages managers and workers to pull their resources together for the organization to succeed since the success of the organization translates to their own success (Wood *et al*., 2012; 2014a). Above all, labour markets in CMEs are stable thereby guaranteeing employment security to employees (Wood *et al*., 2014a).

The education system in LMEs encourages the acquisition of general knowledge and skills (Hall & Soskice, 2001; Grugulis, 2009). This system of acquiring general education enables firms to invest less in workers’ training, with a less-intensive, in-house training, the most preferred method of training provided by organizations (Hall & Soskice, 2001; Grugulis, 2009). Coupled with a volatile labour market, the investment in general skills enables workers to easily move across different firms (Grugulis, 2013). Since cut-throat competition experienced among organizations does not encourage collaboration, high labour mobility, especially if this involves highly skilled science and engineering workers, would facilitate the diffusion of innovation across organizations in LMEs (Hall & Soskice, 2001; Thelen, 2001).

In contrast, firms in CMEs utilize firm-specific or industry-specific skills which vocational training institutions are equipped to provide (Harcourt & Wood, 2007; Goergen *et al*., 2012). Firms are also encouraged to invest in training of workers (Grugulis, 2013). The use of highly-skilled workers, whilst simultaneously allowing them autonomy in workplace decisions, promotes continuous improvement in production strategies of firms in CMEs (Wood *et al*., 2012; Wood *et al*., 2014a).

The varieties of capitalism approach has been criticised for assuming that countries within LMEs or CMEs are homogeneous (Lane & Wood, 2009; Wood *et al*., 2014*c*) and for its over-simplification by assuming that countries can be categorised into either liberal markets or coordinated markets (Wood *et al*., 2012; Wood *et al*., 2014*c*). Similarly, Vaiman & Brewster (2015) note that the varieties of capitalism approach as originally proposed did not take account of many of the developing economies where the bulk of the world population resides. This has led to the development of alternative institutional archetypes within the literature on comparative capitalism (e.g. Amable, 2003; Hancke *et al*., 2007), including the informally dominated market economies that are typical of most African contexts (Dibben & Williams, 2012).

Nonetheless, as Wood *et al.* (2012) rightly note, empirical research mostly using CRANET surveys exist in the field of comparative HRM supporting the distinction between LMEs and CMEs in the management of human resources (e.g. Brewster *et al*., 2007; Johnson *et al*., 2009; Wood *et al*., 2009; Croucher *et al*., 2010; Goergen *et al*., 2012; Brewster *et al*., 2014; Brewster *et al*., 2015). Nevertheless, diversity also exists within particular capitalist contexts in the way people are managed (Lane & Wood, 2009; Goergen *et al*., 2012; Wood *et al*., 2014*c*). This issue of internal diversity shall be addressed later in this chapter. Meanwhile, the next section will focus on the business system theory.

#### 2.3.4 Business System Theory

Business system theory (Whitley, 1999) is an extension of the varieties of capitalism approach (Wood *et al*., 2012). Thus, both varieties of capitalism approach and business system theory highlight differences in institutional contexts of nations thereby resulting in variations in organizational practices as opposed to the sociological new institutionalism which emphasizes the homogenization and convergence of organizational practices (Wood *et al.*, 2012). Business systems are defined as “distinctive patterns of economic organization that vary in their degree and mode of authoritative coordination of economic activities, and in the organization of, and interconnections between, owners, managers, experts, and other employees” (Whitley, 1999 p.33). Thus, a business system is an aggregation of institutions which play an active role in determining the nature of economic transactions, cooperation and control, both within and between organizations in a particular context (Hollinshead, 2010). According to Whitley (1999), the form that a business system takes is determined by the means of ownership, the extent of collaboration or competition between firms, as well as the nature of the relationship between managers and employees (Hollinshead, 2010; Wood *et al*., 2011). As Wood *et al*. (2011) and Wood *et al*. (2012) observe, whilst the primary focus of varieties of capitalism approach is the state, firms are at the heart of business system theory discourse; suggesting that the effect of institutions on firm-level practices is specifically recognized in the business system theory (Wood *et al*., 2011).

According to business system theory, the nature of HRM in any given context is influenced by the extent to which managers have autonomy and the scope of employee voice (Whitley, 1999; Wood *et al*., 2012). The relationship between managers and employees and whether or not employees can have a voice in organizational decisions is determined by the extent to which managers and employees depend on each other (employer-employee interdependence); and the degree to which managers are willing to delegate to employees (Whitley, 1999; Wood *et al*., 2012). In contexts where employer-employee interdependence is high, employees are likely to benefit from employment security (Wood & Wilkinson, 2012). At the same time, employers are more willing to invest resources with the aim of retaining the services of employees (Wood *et al*., 2012; Wood & Wilkinson, 2012). This means that in such contexts, employers are more likely to invest in training employees to acquire skills that will be beneficial to the organization, especially in the long-term (Wood *et al*., 2012). On their part, employees will likely reciprocate this by committing their resources in order to maintain membership of their organizations by acquiring firm- specific skills, with the understanding that their services will still be needed by the organization in future (Wood *et al*., 2012).

Similarly, the nature of HRM is reflected in the amount of delegation to employees (Whitley, 1999; Wood *et al.,* 2012). This may range from employee representation where managers negotiate with employees on decisions relating to the employment contract, to employee consultation where employees’ inputs are sought but the ultimate decision lies with the manager (Wood *et al*., 2012). In extreme cases where managers wield absolute power, there may be no delegation at all (Webster & Wood, 2005; Wood *et al*., 2011). To a large extent, both employer-employee interdependence and delegation go hand-in-hand. Organizations are more likely to invest in human capital development in contexts where employee voice is high whilst in contexts with low employee voice, the attention given to human capital development is also low (Wood & Wilkinson, 2012). Whilst the former is characteristic of CMEs, the latter is characteristic of LMEs (Goergen *et al*., 2012).

Whitley (1999) identify six typologies of business system namely, fragmented, coordinated industrial district, compartmentalised, state organized, collaborative, and highly coordinated business systems. The work of Whitley (1999) has been extended by Wood & Frynas (2006) with the identification of a seventh typology of business system - the segmented business system - which is characteristic of Africa. Table 2.1 highlights the characteristics of these seven business system archetypes.

The identification of the segmented business system is indeed one of the most remarkable developments in the literature on comparative capitalism for two main reasons. First, whilst the literature on comparative capitalism focuses on how institutions improve economic performance (Hall & Soskice, 2001; Whitley, 1999), the segment business system framework highlights the fact that certain institutional arrangements hinder, rather than advance economic progress (Wood & Frynas, 2006). Second, and whilst not discounting later developments in the literature on comparative capitalism such as the identification of informally dominated market economies (Dibben & Williams, 2012), the segmented business system theory signified the first attempt at including Africa – an often neglected territory- in the mainstream literature on comparative capitalism (Wood *et al*., 2011; Bischoff & Wood, 2012).

According to Wood & Frynas (2006), the segmented business system provides opportunities for wealth generation to a few vested interests, mainly indigenous elites and foreign interests, thereby furthering the persistence of inequalities. In a segmented business system, there is a dichotomy in the nature of HRM between the public sector and large private organizations on one hand, and small, indigenous, and mainly family owned organizations that operate mostly based on informality (cf. Bischoff & Wood, 2012). In such systems, employer-employee interdependence is generally low since jobs are characterised by low tenure with employers unlikely to invest in human capital development (Wood & Frynas 2006; Wood *et al*., 2011). This is exacerbated by poorly developed education and vocational training systems, often lacking adequate funding from government (Webster & Wood, 2005; Wood & Frynas, 2006; Wood *et al*., 2011).

Similarly, there is likely to be low level of delegation typified by poor communication and paternalistic authority relations between management and workers (Webster & Wood, 2005; Wood, 2010). Although trade unions may exist in the public sector and in large private organizations, they are generally weak (Wood, 2010). At the same time, the weak enforcement of labour legislation means that labour laws are unlikely to be observed across all organizations, especially those in the informal sphere of the economy (Wood & Frynas, 2006; Bischoff & Wood, 2012; Wood *et al*., 2012). Accordingly, the segmented business system theory ‘highlights uneven nature of institutional coverage and great internal variations according to firm type or sector’ (Wood & Horwitz, 2015 p.23). Empirically, Wood *et al*. (2011) found strong support for the segmented business system while exploring the nature of HRM in Mozambican context. In the next sub-section, the drivers of institutional diversity within national contexts will be discussed.

Table 2.1: Characteristics of Seven National Business System Archetypes

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Characteristics** | **Business System Type** | | | | | | |
|  | Fragmented (typical of Hong Kong) | Co-ordinated  Industrial District (typical of Italy) | Compartmentalized  (typical of Anglo-Saxon countries) | State  Organized (typical of Post-War South Korea) | Collaborative (typical of Sweden, Austria, Norway) | Highly  Co-ordinated (typical of Japan) | Segmented Business System (typical of most African countries) |
| Ownership co-ordination |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Owner control | Direct | Direct | Market | Direct | Alliance | Alliance | Direct/Mixed |
| Ownership  integration of  production chains | Low | Low | High | Some to high | High | Some | Mixed |
| Ownership | Low | Low | High | Some to high | Limited | Limited | Low |
| integration of  sectors |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Non-ownership  Co-ordination |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Alliance | Low | Limited | Low | Low | Limited | High | Marketers and end-users dominate production chains |
| co-ordination of  production chains |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Collaboration  between  competitors | Low | Some | Low | Low | High | High | Highly adversarial competition in informal sector  Tendency to oligopolistic relations in export-oriented sectors |
| Alliance | Low | Low | Low | Low | Low | Some | Deep variations in practices between sectors |
| co-ordination of  sectors |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Employment Relations |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Employer/employee  inter-dependence | Low | Some | Low | Low | Some | High | Some |
| Delegation to  employees | Low | Some | Low | Low | High | Considerable | Low |

Source: Wood *et al*. (2012, p. 43); Bischoff & Wood (2012, p. 497); based on Whitley (1999); Wood & Frynas (2006)

#### 2.3.5 Institutional Diversity

As an extension to the varieties of capitalism and business system theory, the literature on institutional diversity suggests that each country possesses a unique competitive advantage since they undergo peculiar growth trajectories (Boyer, 2005; Lane & Wood, 2009). This suggests that countries belonging to ideal institutional archetypes are not homogeneous (Lane & Wood, 2009; Wood & Wilkinson, 2012). Even within specific national contexts, organizations may adopt different management strategies, thereby resulting in internal diversity (Lane & Wood, 2009; Wilkinson *et al.,* 2014). Hence, institutional diversity exists where there are different “mechanisms of coordination and logics of action” within a particular economy (Lane & Wood, 2009 p. 533). Thus, institutional diversity adds to the literature on comparative capitalism by accounting for the nature of institutional change within national economies (Lane & Wood, 2014).

Whilst the traditional institutional accounts of comparative capitalism suggest that institutional diversity will result to low economic performance (Hall & Soskice, 2001; Hall & Gingerich, 2004), empirical research has shown that economic performance is achievable even in the face of internal diversity within national economies (Trigilia & Burroni, 2009). Moreover, Crouch (2005) argue that diversity and heterogeneity within national systems are more valuable for change and innovation. Consequently, institutional theorists have become interested in identifying the causes and implications of diversity within national economies (Lane & Wood, 2009; Morgan, 2009; Lane & Wood, 2014).

According to Lane & Wood (2009 p. 533), “the uneven, experimental and contested nature of institutional change; the varying forms of institutional complementarity; and the effects of regional and sectoral dynamics” create internal diversity within a particular national context. One of the main drivers of institutional change has been the influence of neo-liberal approaches such as liberalization and deregulation within countries (Jackson, 2009; Lane & Wood, 2009; Morgan, 2009). It is therefore unsurprising that the propensity for internal diversity is higher in LMEs (Morgan, 2009). According to Lane & Wood (2009), as firms face diverse challenges arising from globalization, they are forced to seek innovative solutions to their peculiar challenges. This will mean adopting new practices, including those relating to managing people (Crouch *et al*., 2009; Lane & Wood, 2009). The negative attitude of neo-liberalism toward trade unions, which has placed unions in a disadvantaged position, further provides firms with the leeway to adopt HRM practices that deviate from national and/or industrial norms without being challenged (Lane & Wood 2009; Wilkinson *et al*., 2014).

In addition, it has been argued that as firms access international markets, they are likely to adopt foreign practices that have proved successful elsewhere (Crouch *et al*., 2009; Lane & Wood, 2009). Hence, diversity increases due to uneven adoption of new practices across organizational forms, as a result of varying exposures of firms in different industries to distinct market conditions (cf. Lane & Wood, 2009; Wilkinson *et al*., 2014). Similarly, the different levels of technological change in different sectors require different solutions to sector-specific or firm-specific problems confronting organizations, which in turn provide a fertile ground for diversity to thrive (Crouch *et al*., 2009; Lane & Wood, 2014).

Also driving internal diversity is the actions of multinationals and other supranational institutions such as the World Bank and IMF (Lane & Wood, 2009; Morgan, 2009; Lane & Wood, 2014). As multinationals enter new markets, they try to adapt to existing institutional frameworks whilst at the same time trying to change weak ones (Morgan, 2009). Because of the degree of freedom multinationals have, especially in LMEs (Morgan, 2009), they tend to support institutional structures that boost their competitiveness while altering those they consider less beneficial in dealing with competition (Crouch *et al*., 2009). This creates systemic change, resulting in the proliferation of different practices within a particular national context (Brewster *et al*., 2008; Farndale *et al*., 2008; Wood *et al*., 2014*a*). Not only do multinationals introduce new practices in their host countries, they also transfer HRM practices from subsidiaries to their headquarters, which results in diversity in the home country practices (Edwards & Ferner, 2004). This process of transferring HR practices from subsidiaries to headquarter operations is referred to as ‘reverse diffusion’ and is hypothesized to depend on the types of business system existing in both the home and host countries of multinationals (Edward & Ferner, 2004). The more distinct the national business system of the subsidiary is from that of the parent company, the more unlikely it is for reverse diffusion to occur and vice versa (Edwards & Ferner, 2004).

Supranational institutions also contribute in creating internal diversity especially where the national institutional architecture is weak (Crouch *et al*., 2009; Lane & Wood, 2014). This is relevant in explaining systemic change in developing countries where, for example, the neo-liberal agenda of the World Bank and IMF have been imposed on developing countries, thereby creating a segmented business system within the national economies of many developing countries (Wood & Frynas, 2006; Bischoff & Wood, 2012). The strong influence of IMF on developing countries is facilitated through the insistence of IMF that systems be altered in developing countries as a precondition for accessing loans (Wood *et al*., 2014*b*). In fact, the policies of these Bretton Woods institutions are often at variance with the institutional framework existing in developing countries (Dardot & Laval, 2013). Diversity is therefore increased especially where already existing institutions attempt to resist the drastic changes imposed by these supranational institutions (Crouch *et al*., 2009; cf. Lane & Wood, 2009; Wood & Horwitz, 2015).

The changing nature of finance and corporate governance regimes particularly in CMEs has resulted to a minority of firms toeing the ‘global best practice path’ that emphasize shareholder returns (Deeg, 2009; Jackson, 2009). This creates diversity rather than convergence since majority of firms still follow distinct national models (Deeg, 2009; Jackson, 2009). Accordingly, such diversity, where it exists, is usually bounded; reflecting the emergence and persistence of few alternative paradigms (Wood *et al*., 2009; Brewster *et al*., 2014). Interestingly, the existence of complementarities has also been identified as a cause of diversity within national economies (Crouch, 2005; Lane & Wood, 2009). Complementarity exists where the performance of one institution strengthens the performance of the other (Wood *et al*., 2012). In other words, the efficiency of one institution is driven by how efficient the other is, through the synergy that they share (Wood *et al*., 2014*a*). However, whilst complementarity was initially conceptualized only in terms of synergistic outcomes (Hall & Soskice, 2001; cf. Lane & Wood, 2009), a later conceptualization by Crouch (2005) indicates that complementarity has more than one meaning - some complementarities are not synergistic but compensatory in nature (Crouch, 2005; Lane & Wood, 2009; Wood *et al*., 2012; Brewster *et al*., 2014). This indicates, as Lane & Wood (2009) note, that, it is possible for different sets and types of complementarities to exist within a national economy – some synergistic and others compensatory- thereby creating internal diversity (Brewster *et al*., 2014).

Relatedly, the level of regulation may differ in some sectors and regions in a national context, which increases internal diversity (Lane & Wood, 2009; Trigilia & Burroni, 2009; Dibben *et al*., 2015). There exist subnational institutional frameworks in particular countries that encourage economic activities in specific sectors or regions (Lane & Wood, 2009; Trigilia & Burroni, 2009; Wood *et al*., 2014*a*; Dibben *et al*., 2015). This may reflect the historical legacies in particular contexts such as the regionalized capitalism found in Italy (Trigilia & Burroni, 2009) or systems that address ethnic diversity in most African societies (Mustapha, 2009; Webster & Wood, 2005; Wood *et al*., 2011). This study therefore seeks to explore the nature of internal diversity in HRM between public and private sectors in Nigeria vis-à-vis the effect of HR practices on employee attitudes in both sectors. A discussion of the nature of HR practices and how HR practices are shaped by the institutional context is provided in the next section.

### 2.4 HR Practices

HR practices are specific approaches organizations use in managing people in line with the HR policy of the organization (Armstrong, 2011). On the other hand, an organization’s HR policy provides guidelines on how human resources are managed (Jiang *et al*., 2012b). This means that HR practices are used to implement the HR policy of the organization and hence the choice of HR practices is determined by the HR policy adopted by the organization (Jiang *et al*., 2012b). There are many HR practices such that it would be difficult to cover all of them in a research of this nature (Crawshaw & Hatch, 2014). Consequently, the HR practices covered in *study 1* of this research are: recruitment and selection, training, employee benefits, and employee participation. These four dimensions of HR practices reflect the practices that have been widely considered as being of strategic importance to most organizations (Webster & Wood, 2005; Darwish *et al*., 2016).

However, as I will show in the next chapter, only the later three HR practices are included in *study 2* of this research since the study seeks to examine the perceptions of employees about the HR practices they encounter in their organizations (see chapter three for details). It is worth stating that although pay is equally of strategic importance to most organizations, in the context of Nigeria where the current study is situated, employee benefits are considered the most important aspect of compensation due to the generally low wages in the country (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001). Moreover, there is considerable difference in the pay structure of organizations in the public and private sector in Nigeria and since the aim of the study is to examine the attitudinal response of employees in the public and private sector in Nigeria to similar HR practices, pay is therefore excluded from the study. Nevertheless, as I will show in chapter seven, pay is included among the control variables in the course of data analysis. Each of these HR practices are discussed in the sub-sections below, beginning with recruitment and selection.

#### 2.4.1 Recruitment and Selection

Recruitment and selection are two of the most important aspects of human resource management since they enable both new and existing organizations to meet their staffing needs (Breaugh, 2008; Lievens & Chapman, 2010; García-Izquierdo *et al*., 2013; Derous & de Fruyt, 2016). Hence, the topic of recruitment and selection has generated interest from both practitioners and researchers (Breaugh, 2008; Derous & de Fruyt, 2016). Of course, Searle (2009) observe that although both concepts are often treated as if they were the same, they are different. At the same time, whilst distinct, they represent interrelated elements of the same process- staffing. Recruitment is defined as “the attraction of capable candidates to a vacancy, whilst selection concerns the assessment and identification of the suitability of such applicants from this pool” (Searle, 2009 p.151).

Hence, the aim of recruitment and selection is to attract, identify, and retain employees (Billsberry, 2007; Searle, 2009). As a result, recruitment and selection are one of the first stages of the HR cycle and may affect the effectiveness of other stages of the HR cycle (Billsberry, 2007; Lievens & Chapman, 2010). For example, HR functions such as training, compensation, participation, among others, depend on the calibre of staff attracted and retained by the organization.

Recruitment and selection provide an initial opportunity for formal interaction between would-be employees and the organization and may shape the pre-employment relationship between both parties (Lievens & Chapman, 2010). Therefore, an effective recruitment and selection process is determined by the quality of new hires the organization is able to attract and how well they blend in the organization; the ability of the organization to retain them; their relationship with existing employees and their contribution to the organization as a whole (Searle, 2009; Lievens & Chapman, 2010). Each of these practices are discussed in the subsequent sub-sections, beginning with recruitment.

##### 2.4.1.1 Recruitment

As a result of increased competition and expansion needs, organizations are increasingly adopting ways to attract the best candidates to apply for existing vacancies (Taylor, 2006). This is particularly challenging in contexts where the level of employment is high (Ferris *et al*., 2002). In contrast, where unemployment is high, applicants are more likely to be attracted to the organization. This reflects the situation in most developing countries of Africa (Okpara & Wynn, 2008; Wood *et al*., 2011); although a few exceptions exist on the continent, such as Eritrea where the labour is in short supply (Ghebregiorgis & Karsten, 2006). Whether in contexts of high or low employment, recruitment presents the opportunity for organizations to market themselves to applicants (Lievens & Chapman, 2010).

Recruitment can be internal or external; the former is targeted at current employees while the latter is targeted at individuals that do not currently work for the organization (Breaugh, 2008; Ivancevich, 2010). The typical methods organizations use to attract external applicants to the organization include: advertisement (radio or television, newspaper, or specialist press), e-recruitment and social media, word of mouth, recruitment agencies, special –events recruiting, among others (Searle, 2009; Ivancevich, 2010; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2012). Each method has its merits and demerits (Ivancevich, 2010) and the frequency of use depends on the context (Anakwe, 2002; Webster & Wood, 2005; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2012). As an example, e-recruitment is hailed for its cost effectiveness as it enables organizations incur less expenses to convey substantial volume of information to candidates compared to conventional advertisement media like newspapers (Lievens & Chapman, 2010). In addition, it saves time for both the organization and candidates as it specifies the job requirements and allows only candidates that meet the requirements to apply (Searle, 2009). However, it has been criticised for limiting human interaction and can only be effective in contexts with developed internet infrastructure (Lievens & Chapman, 2010; Holm, 2014).

Based on the foregoing, it is evident that recruitment is context-dependent (Holm, 2014). For instance, in unstable political contexts, employers adopt a ‘coping method’ by attracting only candidates that they trust (Mellahi & Wood, 2003). In such contexts, recruitment is based on the employer’s previous knowledge of the applicant or recommendation from a trusted friend or family member (Mellahi & Wood, 2003; Webster & Wood, 2005). In Mozambique, research has indicated that the use of word of mouth was more common especially in recruiting manual workers whilst other methods such as advertisement and recruitment agencies were sparingly used; although mostly for recruiting management staff (Webster & Wood, 2005). However, research on recruitment in Nigeria indicates that the main method of recruitment is advertisement in national and local newspapers, whilst other methods such as radio and television advertisement, visit to schools, internal referrals/ other employees are also in use (Anakwe, 2002; Okpara & Wynn, 2008; Azolukwam & Perkins, 2009). However, what we are not sure of is whether all organizations in Nigeria use similar recruitment techniques, and if not, which techniques are used by what type of organization and for what category of employees. Next is a discussion of selection practices in organizations.

##### 2.4.1.2 Selection

Selection involves identifying suitably qualified candidates from the pool of applicants to occupy existing vacancies in the organization (Searle, 2009). Organizations use different selection methods which include: interviews, cognitive ability tests, personality tests, integrity tests, qualifications, biodata, references, background tests, assessment centres, among others (Breaugh, 2009; Searle 2009; Ivancevich 2010; Marchington & Wilkinson 2012). In practice, organizations do combine different selection methods such as interviews and tests to enhance the selection of quality candidates. However, interviews remain the most commonly used method of selection (Searle, 2009; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2012) and have been found effective in selecting candidates that improve performance of the organization (Searle, 2009; Lievens & Chapman, 2010).

Interviews allow candidates and the organization to interact and make assessment of each other during the selection process (Billsberry, 2007). On one hand, organizations can interact with candidates on a different range of issues during the interview process, including discussions about candidates’ past behaviours and what they can bring on the job if selected (Roulin *et al*., 2011; Hogue *et al*., 2013). On the other hand, candidates are able assess the fairness of the process which may inform their decisions to accept the job offer (Farago *et al*., 2013; Klotz *et al*., 2013). However, there are concerns about bias from interviewers which may result in overlooking the most qualified candidates (Roulin *et al*., 2011; Martinez *et al*., 2015). Thus, the need for interviewers to be fair and project a positive reputation and image of the organization during the interview process in order to enhance job acceptance from candidates has been well emphasized in the literature (Ferris *et al*., 2002; Lievens & Chapman, 2010; Farago *et al*., 2013).

In fact, the decision of candidates to accept a job offer after undergoing an interview or selection process generally may depend on the context. In many countries of Africa where unemployment levels are high, the concern of candidates may be about the availability of jobs rather than the nature of the selection process. This high level of unemployment, coupled with weak labour legislation in such contexts strengthen employers’ hands against applicants and employees (Anakwe, 2002; Webster & Wood, 2005; Okpara & Wynn, 2008; Wood *et al*., 2011). A discussion of training is the focus of the next section.

#### 2.4.2 Training

There is increased interest in training due to its importance in improving employees’ knowledge and skills to perform the job (Tharenou *et al*., 2007; Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009). This means that as organizations continue to rely on the skills of employees to function effectively, the more training becomes significant (Chen & Klimoski, 2007; Salas *et al*., 2012). Such is the value of training that business firms and non-profit organizations alike have realized the need to invest in training of employees (Carvalho *et al*., 2016). As Kraiger (2003) earlier noted, the investment in training sets apart successful organizations from others. This indicates that organizations and countries require training of its workforce in order to be competitive (Salas *et al*., 2012).

Due to the importance of training to economic growth of nations through improvement in human capital (Moreno-Galbis, 2012), many countries have fashioned out policies to ensure that employers provide training to employees (Grugulis, 2013). According to Tharenou *et al*. (2007 p. 252), training is the “systematic acquisition and development of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes required by employees to adequately perform a task or job or to improve performance in the job environment”. This suggests that training results to the increase in skills and productivity with a potential effect on competitiveness, thereby benefitting different stakeholders such as employees, teams, organizations, and even national economies (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Grugulis, 2009).

More so, training helps in preparing employees for future jobs whilst guarding organizations against skill shortages (Grugulis, 2009). Consequently, where there is need to fill vacancies internally, organizations can easily do so when they have trained employees with the right amount of skills required (Grugulis, 2013). Training also signals to employees that organizations care for their development and well-being which in turn engender positive attitudinal outcomes (Meyer & Smith, 2000; Yang *et al*., 2009). Additionally, in contexts where participation is promoted, training equips employees with the capacity to contribute meaningfully to work processes with a resultant effect on employee motivation and productivity (Tharenou *et al*., 2007; Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Grugulis, 2013). Accordingly, HR practices such as team-working, total quality management, participation and quality improvement initiatives work better in environments where training is prioritized (Grugulis 2009; 2013). On the other hand, where training is not given due attention, employees become less proficient in the performance of their jobs resulting in costly errors, high turnover, a reduction in quality of products and services, and customer complaints (Glaveli & Karassavidou, 2011). This may create additional costs to the organization perhaps more than the cost that would have been incurred to appropriately train employees. Hence, research evidence abound that show a link between training and performance (Arthur *et al*., 2003; Tharenou *et al*., 2007; Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Glaveli & Karassavidou, 2011).

Training can be provided on the job at workplace or through sponsored courses outside the workplace (Webster & Wood, 2005; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2012). The choice of training method will depend on the aim of the training as well as how much employers are willing to invest in training (Grugulis, 2013). Training can be extensive or narrow, with the former aimed at enabling employees acquire a broad spectrum of skills whilst the latter is aimed at furnishing employees with specific skills to perform a particular job (Birdi *et al*., 2008). However, not all training programmes are aimed at improving the skills of employees (Grugulis, 2009). Whilst some training programmes may be provided for social reasons, others may be aimed at meeting regulatory requirements such as the provision of health and safety training (Cadman, 2013; Grugulis, 2013). Nonetheless, as Cadman (2013, p. 34) note, “ensuring employees have the right skills goes beyond meeting regulatory requirements”.

Meanwhile, for organizations to reap the much heralded benefits of training, there has to be a conducive environment for transfer of training (Saks & Burke-Smalley, 2014). Consequently, organizations can reap the benefits of training when employees have the freedom to put into use the knowledge and skills acquired through training (Saks & Burke-Smalley, 2014; Ghosh *et al*., 2015). Research has shown that social support from the organization, especially from supervisors encourage the transfer of training (Chiaburu *et al*., 2010; Ghosh *et al*., 2015). Thus, where the knowledge acquired from training is transferred on the job, there is bound to be improvement in performance (Saks & Burke-Smalley 2014).

Grugulis (2009) observes that despite overwhelming research evidence linking training with important work outcomes, there is a wide gap between research and reality. This means that although employers understand the value of training, in many instances they fail to provide employees with adequate training (Cadman, 2013). The provision of training is dependent on the national regulatory context as well as the nature of the organization (Grugulis, 2009; Shury *et al*., 2010). At the national level, Grugulis (2009) distinguishes two approaches to training as the voluntarist or market-based approach and the regulated or educational approach.

The market-based approach is premised on the assumption that market pressures should determine the appropriate training employees receive; allowing employers to decide on the training areas in which to invest and remain competitive, while in the regulated approach, there is state intervention through legislation and provision of educational infrastructure to enable employees receive training that will serve long-term needs of organizations and the economy at large (Grugulis, 2009; 2013). Whilst both approaches can be successful, regulation of training results to more coverage and better quality training programmes that aim to provide long term skill needs for industries, thereby resulting in job security of employees (Harcourt & Wood, 2007; Grugulis, 2013). On the other hand, in unregulated contexts, some occupations deliberately disregard training even when it is disadvantageous to them (Grugulis, 2013). The market-based approach and regulated approach to training are typical of LMEs and CMEs respectively.

Research evidence suggests that organizations competing on quality may value and invest more in training than those competing on the basis of cost (Shury *et al*., 2010). For those competing on cost, training is seen as an unnecessary expense that should be eliminated (Tharenou *et al*., 2007). As a result of trade liberalization in many countries in Africa and the consequent influx of more quality products from advanced economies, organizations resort to competition on the basis of cost in order to stand a chance of survival (Webster & Wood, 2005; Okpara & Wynn, 2008). This means that whilst employers may recognize the importance of training, they may be unwilling to invest in training due to the cost associated with it (Webster & Wood, 2005). In contexts such as Nigeria, for example, employer-provided training is generally low (Anakwe, 2002) whilst in Mozambique, there is dominance of informal workplace based training often known as ‘sitting with Nellie’ (cf. Webster & Wood, 2005). However, even in environments where employers are reluctant to invest in training, some organizations may prioritize the provision of training (Okpara & Wynn, 2008); reflecting the segmented business system that is typical of many African contexts (Wood & Frynas, 2006). Therefore, in the context of Nigeria, this study seeks to examine the techniques of training in public and private sector. The next section discusses employee benefits.

#### 2.4.3 Employee Benefits

Employee benefits represent a significant part of the total compensation offered by organizations (Dulebohn *et al*., 2009; Giancola, 2012; Lin *et al*., 2014). As such, organizations have increasingly recognised the need to invest in employee benefits in order to attract, motivate and retain talented employees (Dulebohn *et al*., 2009; Adams & Artz, 2015; Blumen, 2015). The significance of benefits means that referring to them as ‘fringe’ benefits as it were, is now a misnomer (Budd, 2004*a*). This would underscore the significant cost employers incur in providing employee benefits (Giancola, 2012). Employee benefits can be defined as inducements and services employers provide to employees aside the pay or wages that they receive for performance of their work for the organization (Dulebohn *et al*., 2009; Yanadori, 2015). Compensation therefore is comprised of ‘’all forms of financial returns and tangible services and benefits employees receive as part of the employment relationship’’ (Milkovich *et al*., 2011 p.10 *cited in* Yanadori, 2015 p.190). Taken together, compensation and non-monetary rewards such as autonomy, career development, and recognition make up an organization’s total reward system (Yanadori, 2015).

Employee benefits can be broadly classified into traditional and non-traditional benefits (Muse & Wadsworth, 2012; Ko & Hur, 2014). The former comprises of conventional benefits such as leave of absence, health care, and retirement benefits that employers provide to workers (Dulebohn *et al*., 2009; Muse & Wadsworth, 2012; Ko & Hur, 2014). Because of their relative popularity, these types of benefits, in many contexts, form part of employees’ psychological contract since employees expect employers to provide them (Muse & Wadsworth, 2012). In many contexts, employers are statutorily required to provide traditional benefits to employees (Dulebohn *et al*., 2009; Yanadori, 2015). Non-traditional benefits on the other hand comprise of benefits whose provision is not required by legislation but determined by employers (Budd, 2004*a*; Muse & Wadsworth, 2012; Ko & Hur, 2014). This would include such benefits as child care, flexible work, job sharing, work-at-home programmes, among others which employers provide to enable employees cope with work and family demands (Budd, 2004*a*; Freitag & Picherit-Duthler, 2004; Dulebohn *et al*., 2009; Blumen, 2015).

Employers can offer high-value benefits packages in order to attract, motivate and retain talented employees (Dulebohn *et al*., 2009). Rational choice approaches suggest that employer-provided benefits are provided in order to improve the efficiency of the organization (Goodstein, 1994; Hillebrink *et al*., 2008). The potential substitutability of wages for benefits may encourage employers that are concerned about cost-cutting to reduce wages once they increase the amount of benefits available to employees (Dale-Olsen, 2006; Artz, 2010). Employers taking this road view benefits as an additional cost that make organizations less competitive (Budd, 2004*a*). This suggests that for the efficiency-driven organization, employer-provided benefits will be offered to employees insofar as it will improve an organization’s bottom-line through productivity increases (Baughman *et al*., 2003; Budd, 2004*a*).

At the same time, efficiency-driven organizations may reduce their investment in employer-provided benefits during economic downturns (Muse & Wadsworth, 2012). However, this may not be the case if employers are genuinely concerned about the welfare of workers (Amuedo-Dorantes & Mach, 2003; Teti & Andriotto, 2013). On the other hand, institutional accounts posit that employer-provided benefits are more likely to be offered if managers find that similar organizations are offering such benefits (Goodstein, 1994; Hillebrink *et al*., 2008). Thus, in DiMaggio & Powell’s (1983) language, mimetic pressures may drive the provision of employer-provided benefits.

Similar to other HR practices, employee benefits are determined by cultural, social, and regulatory influences (Dulebohn, *et al*., 2009; Yanadori, 2015). According to Yanadori (2015), government regulation and the framework of social security system are the main contextual determinants of the amount and type of benefits organizations provide. Whilst traditional benefits are conventionally covered by legislation, differences in national legislation and implementation imply that the nature of traditional benefits and indeed benefits generally differ from context to context (Dulebohn *et al*., 2009; Yanadori, 2015). As an example, whilst employees in the UK are covered by government -provided health care programme through the NHS, employers in USA are expected to provide medical insurance to employees (Yanadori, 2015). This suggests that differences in legislation is at the heart of national differences in HRM even within the so-called liberal markets (Lane & Wood, 2009).

Although most benefits belonging to the traditional variety may be covered by legislation in many African countries, research in the Mozambican context has shown that not all organizations provide statutory-required benefits to employees (Webster & Wood, 2005). In Nigeria, Ovadje & Ankomah (2001) stressed the importance of employee benefits to augment low wages paid by employers. However, there is no research evidence showing the particular benefits provided to employees and by which organizations. The present research seeks to explore this within the context of public and private sector in Nigeria. We now turn our attention to employee participation in the next section.

#### 2.4.4 Employee Participation

Employee participation is an intricate concept that has received wide interest across diverse disciplines within the broad area of social sciences (Budd *et al*., 2010; Knudsen *et al*., 2011; Wilkinson *et al*., 2010). The emergence of new forms of participation, coupled with the interchangeable use, and overlapping of participation, voice, involvement, autonomy, and empowerment have further complicated the meaning of participation (Budd, 2004*b*; Parkes *et al*., 2007; Budd *et al*., 2010; Johnson *et al*., 2009; Wilkinson & Dundon, 2010; Brewster *et al*., 2014). According to Wilkinson *et al.* (2010, p. 11-12), “employee participation encompasses the range of mechanisms used to involve the workforce in decisions at all levels of the organization, whether undertaken directly or indirectly through their representatives”. This definition acknowledges the existence of different forms of participation, which is an important step in understanding the meaning of participation. However, the definition is broad and does not explain why employees are involved in decision making. Moreover, the meaning of employee participation depends on the particular field of study one is interested in, since different perspectives of participation exist in the scholarly literature (Ackers, 2010; Boxall & Purcell, 2010; Mardsen & Cañibano, 2010; Wilkinson *et al*., 2010).

There are two logics of employee participation in organizations (Brewster *et al*., 2007; Wilkinson *et al*., 2010; Wood, 2010). One perspective views employee participation from the need to deepen industrial democracy whilst the other perspective views participation from the need to improve efficiency (Wood, 2010). The industrial democracy perspective which is associated with the field of industrial relations is borne out of the genuine desire to share power between management and employees (Brewster *et al*., 2007; Ackers, 2010). The efficiency perspective which is associated with the human relations school and which dominates modern HRM thinking is aimed at engendering employee commitment, which will in turn improve the bottom line of the organization (Brewster *et al*., 2007; Boxall & Purcell, 2010; Wilkinson & Dundon, 2010). Emerging from these two underlying philosophies of participation are indirect and direct forms of participation respectively (Wood, 2010; Brewster *et al*., 2014). Of course, it is these forms of participation that are referred to collective and individual voice respectively (Budd, 2004*b*; Brewster *et al*., 2007).

When participation is indirect, employees are collectively involved in decision making through their representatives whilst in the direct form of participation, employees are individually involved in workplace decisions (Brewster *et al*., 2007; Budd *et al*., 2010). However, the depth of involvement depends on the particular scheme used as well as the attitude of managers towards participation (Budd *et al*., 2010; Wilkinson *et al*., 2010). Consequently, in order to fully understand the nature of employee participation, Wilkinson *et al.* (2010) and Wilkinson & Dundon (2010) posit that consideration be given to the depth, level, scope, and form of participation. *Depth* refers to the extent to which decisions are influenced by employees. *Level* refers to where decision making takes place; that is, at the task, departmental, plant or corporate level. *Scope* refers to the range of issues employees participate in. This may range from participating in decisions about day to day tasks or about the strategy of the organization. Finally, *form* refers to whether employees are collectively or individually involved in decision making (Wilkinson *et al*, 2010; Wilkinson & Dundon, 2010).

Indirect participation is the oldest form participation and involves schemes such as collective bargaining, trade unions, joint consultation councils, and work councils (Ackers, 2010). The advantage of this form of participation is that it affords workers the liberty to collectively channel their views to management without fear of being punished for airing contrary views (Wood, 2010). Moreover, managers are more likely to consider employees’ views expressed collectively than if such views were expressed individually (Brewster *et al*., 2014). However, the emergence of post-bureaucratic forms of organizational design have led to a surge in direct participation (Johnson *et al*., 2009). These new forms of organizational design, occasioned by intensified competition, seek to replace organizational hierarchies with non-hierarchical elements with the objective of equipping employees and organizations to be more adaptive, flexible, and responsive to change (Johnson *et al*., 2009; Boxall & Purcell, 2010).

The spread of neo-liberal ideologies that seek to suppress trade unionism has further enhanced the case for direct participation (Wood, 2010; Brewster *et al*., 2014). Thus, it has been argued that direct participation allows organizations to take care of diverse needs of workers without ‘undue’ interference from employee representatives (Wood, 2010); this in turn results in increased employee satisfaction and commitment (Boxall & Purcell, 2010). Consequently, direct participation is a key feature of high commitment human resource practices (Farndale *et al*., 2011a; Wood & de Menezes, 2011; Kehoe & Wright, 2013). However, this form of participation may result in work intensification and heightened stress levels (Wilkinson & Dundon, 2010; Boxall & Macky, 2014). In the same vein, since line managers are responsible for interfacing with employees in direct participation schemes, there are concerns that the right information might not reach employees where line managers lack communication skills (Wilkinson *et al*., 2007; Wilkinson & Dundon, 2010).

Direct participation involves approaches ranging from information sharing, consultation, problem solving to task autonomy (Wilkinson *et al*., 2010; Wilkinson & Dundon, 2010; Brewster, *et al*., 2014). This form of participation which is also referred to as employee involvement is defined as “various means by which employees have an opportunity to engage in problem-solving and decision-making with regard to matters that affect their jobs and their working environment” (Brewster *et al*., 2014 p.797). At the basic level of direct participation are schemes used for sharing information between management and employees. This form of communication is downward since it is aimed at merely informing employees of the state of affairs of the organization. In this regard, the inputs of employees are not needed and may involve schemes such as newsletters, memos, notice boards, and electronic communication (Brewster *et al*., 2007; Wilkinson *et al*., 2007).

At a slightly higher level from information sharing is consultation which involves upward communication. The aim here is to tap employees’ views on issues relating to the work environment. Therefore, upward communication takes a bottom-up approach since employees provide suggestions to management through schemes such as meetings, team briefing where feedback is solicited, suggestion boxes and attitude surveys (Webster & Wood, 2005; Wood *et al*., 2011). Next in the hierarchy is task-based problem solving wherein employees are directly involved in providing solutions to problems at the task level and may involve schemes such as quality circles and team working (Wilkinson & Dundon, 2010). Finally, direct participation may take the form of task autonomy where employees are empowered to act without deference to managerial authority (Johnson *et al*., 2009). Specific schemes here include autonomous work groups or self-managed teams. This is the extreme form of direct participation since employees have the freedom to decide on how and when work is done (Johnson, *et al*., 2009).

The practice and scheme used in employee participation is shaped by the legal, political and economic conditions of a country (Wilkinson & Dundon, 2010). For instance, in contexts where employee rights are safeguarded, there is bound to be lower levels of indirect participation compared to contexts like USA and Britain where workers’ rights are suppressed (Brewster *et al*., 2015). Although, there is a reduction in direct participation in European contexts due to the emergence and prominence of new forms of direct participation, research has shown that there is no convergence towards the use of direct participation (Brewster *et al*., 2007). Instead, there is evidence of coexistence of both direct and indirect forms of participation in European workplaces (Brewster *et al*., 2007). In emerging countries of Africa, the adoption of IMF and World Bank policies have resulted in the growth of informal sector and the decline of collective participation (Webster & Wood, 2005; Wood & Frynas, 2006). In addition, the authoritarian style of management encountered in such contexts further creates an unconducive environment for participation to thrive (Wood, 2010). Nevertheless, whilst there is widespread paternalism in workplaces, research in the Mozambican context for instance, has shown evidence of direct participation mainly through both formal and informal meetings (Webster & Wood, 2005; Wood *et al*., 2011). However, since no such research evidence exists in Nigeria, the present study seeks to bridge this research gap by examining the specific techniques of employee participation in public and private sector in Nigeria. Nevertheless, whilst direct participation is covered in the first part of this study by seeking responses from HR managers on the effects of trade unions on HRM, it is the indirect form of participation that is the focus of the second part of this research since some organizations participating in the second part the research have no trade union presence.

### 2.5 Summary

The nature of HRM as well as various institutional approaches to understanding HRM were discussed in this chapter. In addition, the nature of HR practices was also discussed; with the review of literature pointing out how HR practices are influenced by the institutional context in which organizations operate. The focus of the next chapter shall be on the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes. The chapter will show how previous studies examining the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes have largely ignored the significance of the institutional environment of organizations.

# CHAPTER THREE

## THE EFFECTS OF HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES ON EMPLOYEE ATTITUDES

### 3.1 Introduction

Having discussed the various institutional frameworks for understanding HRM as well as the nature of HR practices in the previous chapter, the aim of the current chapter is to review existing literature on the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes. Since one of the objectives of this research is to examine the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in public and private sector in Nigeria, a review of existing literature in this area is necessary in order to identify research gaps that the current research seeks to fill. As a starting point, the chapter presents an overview of research on HR practices and organizational performance in order to make a case for why it is important to examine the effects of HR practices from the perspective of employees. Next is a discussion of employee attitudes which is followed by the discussion of HR practices and employee attitudes by establishing the theoretical link between HR practices and employee attitudes. Finally, studies linking HR practices and employee attitudes are presented with an analysis of these studies in order to show the gaps in existing research and how the present study could fill such research gaps.

### 3.2 Overview of Research on HR Practices and Organizational Performance

One of the key issues that have dominated the literature on HRM is the effect of HRM on organizational performance (Becker & Huselid, 1998; Boselie *et al*., 2005; Wall & Wood, 2005; Guest, 2011; Wright & Mcmahan, 2011; Darwish *et al*., 2016). Several studies have established a positive relationship between HR practices and organizational performance (e.g. Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995; Macduffie, 1995; Patterson *et al*., 1997; Bae & Lawler, 2000; Guthrie, 2001; Combs *et al*., 2006; Sun *et al*., 2007; Birdi *et al*., 2008; Messersmith & Guthrie, 2010; Jiang *et al*., 2012*a*). The consensus appears to be that HR practices result in superior organizational performance when practices are encountered together (Jiang *et al*., 2012*a*). Hence, researchers have developed frameworks examining the effect of bundles of practices on organizational performance that have often come under the banner of ‘high-commitment (Arthur, 1994), ‘innovative’ (Macduffie, 1995), ‘high-performance’(Becker & Huselid, 1998), or ‘high-involvement’ HR practices (Guthrie, 2001). Although, it is also common for researchers to examine the effect of individual practices on organizational performance (Birdi *et al*., 2008). Thus, whether measured collectively or individually, a positive link between HR practices and organizational performance has been established (Combs *et al*., 2006; Birdi *et al*., 2008; Jiang *et al*., 2012*a*).

Notwithstanding this, apart from methodological deficiencies (Boselie *et al*., 2005; Wall & Wood, 2005), questions have been raised about what constitutes an ideal bundle of HR practices and how performance should be defined and measured (Boselie *et al*., 2005; Wall & Wood, 2005; Guest, 2011; Jiang *et al*., 2012*b*). The extant literature is replete with studies measuring bundles of practices containing diverse HR practices as well as diverse performance indices (Boselie *et al*., Wall & Wood, 2005; 2005; Combs *et al*., 2006). Whilst control-focused and commitment-focused bundles of practices can be associated with LMEs and CMEs respectively (Wood *et al*., 2012), for most emerging market contexts, it is highly unlikely to identify a coherent bundle of HR practices that optimize work outcomes due to the weak and loosely coupled nature of institutions which makes it difficult for HR practices to produce synergistic benefits (cf. Darwish *et al*., 2016).

Another concern is whether HR practices will result in improved organizational performance in all circumstances (Boselie *et al*., 2003; Paauwe & Boselie, 2007). Here, opinions are polarised between advocates of ‘best practice’ (Arthur, 1994) and ‘best fit’ models (Huselid, 1995). Best practice models suggest that the adoption of a particular set of best practices will result in improved performance and competitive advantage for organizations whilst best fit models suggest that the performance effects of HR practices will depend on the circumstance of the organization, notably the organizational strategy it pursues (Guest, 2011; Redman & Wilkinson, 2013). Again, empirical evidence lend support to both models, thus creating a dilemma for practitioners and researchers (Marchington & Wilkinson, 2012; Redman & Wilkinson, 2013). However, both models focus on the organization without recourse to the wider institutional environment in which organizations operate, thereby implying that organizations in all national contexts have freedom in their choice of HR practices (Paauwe & Boselie, 2003; Paauwe, 2004; Brewster 2007). Perhaps, this explains why the effects of HRM on performance is weak in contexts where there is low managerial autonomy on the choice of HR practices (Boselie *et al*., 2003; Kim & Wright, 2011).

Equally central to the debate on HRM and performance is understanding the mechanism through which HRM results in organizational performance (Guest, 2011). Researchers have conceded that the gap between HRM and organizational performance is wide, resulting in a focus of attention on examining the ‘black box’ between HRM and performance (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Guest & Conway, 2011; Jiang *et al*., 2012a) As a result, it is argued that the relationship between HRM and organizational performance could be mediated by employee attitudes and behaviours which are considered as proximal outcomes of HRM (Sun *et al*., 2007; Gittel *et al*., 2010; Messersmith & Guthrie, 2010; Guest & Conway, 2011). Consequently, there are calls for more HRM studies that focus on employee attitudes in order to tap the views of employees who are not only the target of HRM but are also closer to the implementation of HR practices (Boselie *et al*., 2005; Guest, 2011; Kim & Wright, 2011). It is argued that this will enable researchers to examine work outcomes that are directly affected by HR practices, thereby shedding more light on the mechanisms through which HR practices affect organizational performance (Jiang *et al*., 2012a; Kim & Wright, 2011).

Beyond achieving organizational performance, employees have been identified as key stakeholders whose well-being should also be the main concern of HRM (Beer *et al*., 2015). This means that the effectiveness of HRM can be better evaluated from the perspective of employees since not only are employees the main reason for HRM in the organization, they represent the most prized assets of the organization (Guest, 2011; Beer *et al*., 2015). Moreover, since there may be a gap between intended and implemented HR practices, it is important to examine employees’ perceptions of HR practices since they are at the receiving end of such practices (Piening *et al*., 2014). This study therefore seeks to examine the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in public and private sector in Nigeria. Before showing the link between HR practices and employee attitudes, the next section will focus on the discussion of employee attitudes.

### 3.3 Employee Attitudes

Employee attitudes are “evaluations of one’s job that express one’s feelings toward, beliefs about, and attachment to one’s job’’ (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012 p.344). There are many employee attitudes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job involvement, and employee engagement. However, the employee attitudes considered in this study are job satisfaction and organizational commitment. These two types of employee attitudes are considered in this study instead of job involvement and employee engagement because job satisfaction and organizational commitment are considered as the most important types of job attitudes since these attitudes are the most powerful predictors of behaviour and are therefore more important in understanding work behaviour (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer *et al*., 2002; Morrow, 2011; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Perhaps, this explains why most studies on employees’ perceptions of HR practices focus on individual level outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016). Moreover, whilst job satisfaction an employee attitude toward the job, organizational commitment is an employee attitude toward the employing organization (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Therefore, by including these two forms of employee attitudes, this study adequately covers employee attitudes toward their jobs and the employing organization.

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been found to influence important work outcomes such as job performance (Judge *et al*., 2001; Riketta, 2002; Fried *et al*., 2008; Kuvaas, 2008; Ng *et al*., 2009), organizational citizenship behaviours (Moorman *et al*., 1993; Koys, 2001; Ng & Feldman, 2011; Yang, 2012; Kehoe & Wright, 2013), turnover intentions (Guchait & Cho, 2010; Juhdi *et al*., 2013; Fabi *et al*., 2015; Huang & Su, 2016), organizational performance (Gong *et al*., 2009; Elorza *et al*., 2011; Choi & Lee, 2013), among others. In the subsequent sub-sections, the concepts of job satisfaction and organizational commitment will be defined whilst studies linking HR practices to each of these attitudes will be reviewed.

#### 3.3.1 Job Satisfaction

Perhaps the most researched variable in organizational behaviour research (Wright & Kim, 2004; Judge & Klinger, 2007; Artz, 2010; Costen & Salazar, 2011; Giancola, 2012; Andreassi *et al*., 2014), job satisfaction is the “pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke 1976, p.1300). For Spector (1997, p.2), “job satisfaction is simply how people feel about their jobs. It is the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs”. It has also been viewed as an attitude towards an individual’s job, such that individuals who are satisfied will generally express positive attitudes towards their jobs whilst dissatisfied ones are more likely to express negative attitudes (Brief, 1998). This explains why organizations strive to maintain a satisfied workforce (Saari & Judge, 2004). Thus, the core of job satisfaction is that it enables individuals to demonstrate positive attitudes towards their jobs, which makes them more productive (Saari & Judge, 2004; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012).

Job satisfaction can be conceptualized as either a global construct or as a multidimensional construct (Judge & Klinger, 2007). When construed as a global construct, the overall job satisfaction is measured using scales that seek to obtain an all-encompassing satisfaction level with the job across different aspects of the job. As a global construct, job satisfaction can be measured using single-item measures or multi-item measures (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Judge *et al*., 1994) to get the total job satisfaction levels. The problem with single-item measures however is that such measures are not susceptible to internal consistency analysis therefore reliability is often not performed on single-item measures (cf. Steel & Rentsch, 1997). On the other hand, when viewed as a multidimensional construct, job satisfaction is construed as the sum of facets (Smith *et al*., 1969; Spector, 1997). As a multidimensional construct, Smith *et al.* (1969) identified five facets of job satisfaction namely, work itself, co-workers, supervision, pay, and promotion. Spector (1997) extended these facets to include fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, and communication.

Whilst both the global and facet approaches are valid, Highhouse & Becker (1993) observed that facet measures of job satisfaction do not include all the components employees may consider in arriving at their overall perception of job satisfaction. Similarly, Judge & Klinger (2007) questioned the facet satisfaction approach saying that “the whole is not the same as the sum of the parts” (Judge & Klinger, 2007 p.397). Moreover, when treated as an outcome variable in research, it is more common to view job satisfaction as a global construct (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller 2012). Thus, along with previous research on HR practices and job satisfaction (e.g. Wright & Kim, 2004; Chiang *et al*., 2005; Petrescu & Simmons, 2008; Yamamoto, 2011; Zhu *et al*., 2015; García-Chas *et al*., 2016), the concept of job satisfaction is treated as a global construct in this research. Organizational commitment is discussed in the next section.

#### 3.3.2 Organizational Commitment

Among the constructs of work-related commitment, organizational commitment has been described as the most developed one; due to the wide research attention it has received (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Morrow, 2011). However, organizational commitment has been conceptualized in diverse ways (Buchanan, 1974; Porter *et al*., 1974; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Cohen, 2007; Solinger *et al*., 2008; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). For example, Mowday *et al.* (1979, p. 226) defined organizational commitment as “a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values; a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization”.

For Buchanan (1974 p. 340), organizational commitment is ‘’a sense of identification with the organizational mission, a sense of involvement or psychological immersion in one’s organizational duties, and a sense of loyalty and affection for the organization, indicated by an unwillingness to depart for other opportunities”. On the other hand, Meyer & Allen (1991 p.67) view organizational commitment as ‘’a psychological state that characterizes the employee’s relationship with the organization, and has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization”. A common theme with these definitions of organizational commitment is that committed employees are inclined to continue their employment with their organization.

Traditionally, organizational commitment has been construed as a unidimensional construct which explains one’s relationship with the employing organization that reduces turnover (Porter *et al*, 1974; Steers, 1977). However, this approach does not take into account the mind-sets behind an individual’s commitment to the organization which has important implications for work behaviour (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Thus, researchers have viewed organizational commitment as a multidimensional concept; resulting to the proliferation of multidimensional conceptualizations of organizational commitment (see Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). However, the most popular among multidimensional conceptualizations of organizational commitment is Allen & Meyer's (1990) three-component model of commitment which views organizational commitment as a product of three distinct mind-sets namely, the desire to remain with the organization; the need to remain; and the obligation to remain (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The forms of organizational commitment resulting from these mind-sets are labelled as affective, continuance, and normative commitment respectively (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991).

According to Meyer & Allen (1991), each of these components of organizational commitment is distinct as employees with affective commitment are emotionally ‘attached to’, ‘identify with’, and are ‘involved in the organization’. Therefore, affectively committed employees maintain organizational membership because ‘they want to do so’ (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer *et al*., 2002; Meyer, *et al*., 2012a). On the other hand, when employees remain with the organization as a result of the recognition of the accompanying cost of leaving the organization, such commitment is known as continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). This cost may arise from the perceived loss of benefits associated with discontinuing organizational membership (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer *et al*., 2002). Thus, employees with continuance commitment remain with the organization because ‘they need to do so’ (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer *et al*., 2002; Meyer, *et al*., 2012a). Finally, normatively committed employees are those that feel obligated to remain with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). They consider their continued employment as the right thing to do and continue membership with the organization because ‘they ought to do so’ (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer *et al*., 2002; Meyer, *et al*., 2012*a*).

The three-component model of organizational commitment is so popular that it has been extended to other forms of work commitment (Meyer *et al*., 1993; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). In addition, there is a meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences of affective, continuance, and normative commitment (Meyer *et al*., 2002); as well as meta-analyses of studies using the model across cultures (Fischer & Mansell, 2009; Meyer *et al*., 2012*a*)

Nevertheless, the three-component model of commitment has been criticised due to the usually high correlations between affective and normative commitment, as well as the negative effects of continuance commitment on work outcomes (Cohen, 2007; Solinger *et al*., 2008). As a result, questions have been asked whether affective and normative commitment are distinct forms of commitment and whether continuance commitment is indeed a valid form of organizational commitment (Cohen, 2007; Solinger *et al*., 2008). Based on this, affective commitment has been the most widely validated form of organizational commitment since it has positive effects on work outcomes (Meyer & Maltin, 2010; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010). Unsurprisingly, affective commitment is the dominant form of organizational commitment in research on HR practices and organizational commitment (e.g. Chew & Chan, 2008; Kuvaas, 2008; Sanders *et al*., 2008; Qiao *et al*., 2009; Boselie, 2010; Elorza *et al*., 2011; Kehoe & Wright, 2013).

However, research has shown that the three forms of organizational commitment interact to produce different effects on work outcomes that are different from the individual forms of organizational commitment alone (Wasti, 2005; Markovits *et al*., 2007; Gellatly *et al*., 2009; Meyer *et al*., 2012*b*; Stanley *et al*., 2013). This means that affective commitment alone does not provide a complete profile of employees’ organizational commitment levels (Meyer *et al*., 2012*b*). Hence, the need to treat organizational commitment as a multidimensional construct in HRM research has been emphasized by many researchers (Bartlett, 2001; Wright & Kehoe, 2008; Conway & Monks, 2009; Gellatly *et al*., 2009; Singh & Mohanty, 2011; Takeuchi & Takeuchi, 2013; Bashir & Long, 2015). Consequently, the three-component (affective, continuance, and normative) model of organizational commitment is adopted in this research. The next section will focus on the link between HR practices and employee attitudes.

### 3.4 HR Practices and Employee Attitudes

Due to the arbitrary inclusion of HR practices in previous studies linking HRM to organizational outcomes (Boselie *et al*., 2005; Wall & Wood, 2005), researchers have suggested that the choice of practices in testing such relationships should be guided by appropriate theory (Guest, 2011; Jiang *et al*., 2012*b*). One such influential theory is the AMO (that is, ability, motivation, and opportunity) framework (Boxall & Purcell, 2003) which suggests that HR practices contribute to organizational outcomes when they develop the abilities of employees, motivate employees, and provide employees with the opportunity to make contributions in the workplace (Jiang *et al*., 2012*b*; Katou & Budhwar, 2014). As stated in the previous chapter, whilst four dimensions of HR practices namely; recruitment and selection, training, employee benefits, and employee participation are included in *study 1* of this research, only the later three practices are adopted in *study 2* of the research. These three HR practices (training, employee benefits, and employee participation) reflect ability, motivation and opportunity-promoting HR practices respectively (Katou & Budhwar, 2014).

Whilst recruitment and selection is an example of ability -enhancing practices in the AMO framework (Katou & Budhwar, 2014), questions relating to recruitment and selection are more within the domain of HR managers. Since *study 2* of this research involves examining employees’ perception of HR practices, it is important to focus on post-selection HR practices. Although some researchers have included questions on recruitment and selection in bundles of HR practices when the respondents were employees rather than HR managers (e.g. Gould-Williams, 2004; Kehoe & Wright, 2013), even a cursory glance at the questions asked will suggest that such questions were supposed to be within the domain of HR managers rather than employees. For example, in Kehoe & Wright’s (2013) study, employees were asked questions on selection such as: “applicants for this job take formal tests (pencil and work sample) before being hired; applicants for this job undergo structured interviews (job related questions, same questions asked for all participants) before being hired” (Kehoe & Wright, 2013, p. 387). Except the structured interviews referred to in the study were written ones in which each applicant had access to the questions being asked all the other applicants; or the interview was orally conducted and involved all applicants at the same time and space, it would be extremely difficult for respondents to know whether the ‘same questions were asked for all participants’. This means that HR managers are in a better position to respond to questions on recruitment and selection.

Even when the respondents were HR managers who have a better knowledge of the organization’s recruitment and selection practices (Combs *et al*., 2006; Jiang *et al*., 2012a), experts on recruitment and selection research have often questioned the simplistic nature of such measures (Lievens & Chapman, 2010). As Lievens and Chapman (2010, p. 135-136) note:

“’sound’ selection practice is often equated with whether or not structured interviews were used. Similarly, effective recruitment is associated with the number of qualified applicants for positions most frequently hired by the firm. Although such questions tackle important aspects of selection we also feel such descriptions do not capture the sophisticated level that recruitment and selection research and practice has attained in recent years”.

Nonetheless, other researchers have used what can be considered as sophisticated measures of recruitment and selection albeit, in research involving HR managers (e.g. Bae & Lawler 2000; Darwish *et al*., 2016). Therefore, since the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in this research is conducted at the individual level of analysis with a focus on non-managerial employees, recruitment and selection are justifiably excluded. The focus of the next section is to show the theoretical link between HR practices and employee attitudes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

#### 3.4.1 Theoretical Link between HR Practices and Employee Attitudes

Different theoretical approaches have been used in previous studies to establish the link between HR practices and work outcomes (Wright & McMahan, 1992; Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Guest, 2011). Indeed, Birdi *et al.* (2008) distinguished between the resource-based perspective and the behavioural perspective as two main approaches that have dominated research on the relationship between HR practices and work outcomes. According to the resource based theory, an organization’s competitive advantage can be achieved with tangible or intangible resources that are valuable, rare, inimitable and non-substitutable (Barney, 1991; Wright & McMahan, 1992). Thus, HR practices are a source of competitive advantage through which organization-specific knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) can be developed (Messersmith & Guthrie, 2010; Wright & Mcmahan, 2011). Once these KSAs are non-imitable, the organization can achieve superior performance (Wright & McMahan, 1992; Boselie *et al*., 2005; Katou & Budhwar, 2014). Hence, the resource-based perspective is concerned with establishing a link between HR practices and organizational level outcomes, notably performance (Richard & Johnson, 2001; Combs *et al*., 2006; Messersmith & Guthrie, 2010; Jiang *et al*., 2012).

On the other hand, the organizational behaviour perspective argues that HR practices act as enablers of positive attitudes and behaviours, which in turn influence organizational level outcomes such as firm performance (Appelbaum *et al*., 2000; Birdi *et al*., 2008). In a bid to understand how HR practices contribute to performance, attention has now been focused on the effect of HR practices on individual level outcomes as mediating variables between HR practices and organizational performance (Jiang *et al*., 2012; Choi & Lee, 2013; Ollo-López *et al*., 2016). Researchers have distinguished between proximal and distal outcomes of HR practices (Guest, 2011; Jiang *et al*., 2012). Whilst the former relates to variables that are directly influenced by HR practices such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment, the latter relates to organizational level outcomes such as organizational performance that are indirectly influenced by HR practices through the proximal outcomes (Guest, 2011; Jiang *et al*., 2012). Since the outcome variable in this research is employee attitudes – job satisfaction and organizational commitment – we turn our attention to the behavioural perspective (Appelbaum *et al*., 2000; Birdi *et al*., 2008) in order to establish a link between the HR practices and employee attitudes.

Two theories that are commonly used in the behavioural perspective and which are relevant to this study are the AMO framework (Appelbaum *et al*., 2000; Boxall & Purcell, 2003) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The AMO framework has gained prominence recently in studies examining the effects of HR practices on employee outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Boselie, 2010; Elorza *et al*., 2011; Fabi *et al*., 2015; Vermeeren, 2015; Ollo-López *et al*., 2016). According to the AMO framework, organizational performance can be achieved when employees have the ability to perform; are motivated and given the opportunity to participate in work-related decisions (Boxall & Purcell, 2003; Boselie, 2010). This means that employees are at the key to the performance of the organization, suggesting that performance can be improved when employees exhibit positive attitudes and behaviours at work (Katou & Budhwar, 2014; Vermeeren, 2015). Thus, the aim of HRM should be to instil in workers the right attitudes that will be beneficial to both employees and the organization (Fabi *et al*., 2015).

The framework suggests that HR practices can elicit positive employee attitudes and behaviours when such practices enhance the development of skills and abilities of employees (Appelbaum *et al*., 2000; Boxall & Purcell, 2003; Elorza *et al*., 2011; Ollo-López *et al*., 2016). In addition, HR practices should motivate employees whilst providing employees the opportunity to contribute to work-related decisions (Appelbaum *et al*., 2000; Boxall & Purcell, 2003; Ollo-López *et al*., 2016). Based on the AMO framework, HR practices such as recruitment and selection, training and development are ability-enhancing practices. On the other hand, compensation-related HR practices such as pay and employee benefits are motivation-enhancing practices whilst HR practices such as employee participation and involvement, autonomy, and empowerment fall under the banner of opportunity-enhancing HR practices (Boxall & Purcell, 2003; Katou & Budhwar, 2014).

One of the main strengths of the AMO framework is that it is built on the philosophy that there is no particular set of best practices that may influence performance (Katou & Budhwar, 2014). Rather it suggests that depending on their peculiarities, organizations can select from wide array of HR practices in order to develop, retain, and influence behaviour of employees (Katou & Budhwar, 2014). Hence, whether treated as a bundle, sub-bundle of practices or even as individual practices, research has shown that HR practices that are ability-enhancing, motivation-enhancing, or opportunity-enhancing can result to positive attitudes of employees (e.g. Wright & Kim, 2004; Chew & Chan, 2008; Elele & Fields, 2010; Elorza *et al*., 2011; Farndale *et al.,* 2011*a*; Fabi *et al*., 2015; Hefferman & Dundon, 2016; Ollo-López *et al*., 2016). In the current study, training, employee benefits, and employee participation are ability-enhancing, motivation-enhancing and opportunity-enhancing HR practices respectively. This means that these HR practices should result to positive attitudes of employee in the form of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Equally, the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes can be examined through the lens of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) which assumes that individuals are under obligation to reciprocate the favours they receive (Gong *et al*., 2009; Farndale *et al*., 2011; Newman *et al*., 2011). In work contexts, employment relationships are established on economic and social exchange terms (Agarwala, 2003; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009). On the basis of economic exchange, parties in the employment relationship are expected to perform strictly according to the stipulated terms of the employment contract whilst social exchange relationships are built on the expectation that parties involved will perform above the stipulations of the employment contract (Agarwala, 2003; Kuvaas, 2008; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009; Mostafa & Gould-Williams, 2015). Thus, according to the norm of reciprocity (Goulder, 1960), employees are under obligation to reciprocate favours they receive from the organization (Farndale *et al*., 2011*a*; Yang 2012). HRM represents an important way that managers can build social exchange relationships with employees (Farndale *et al*., 2011*a*; Mostafa & Gould-Williams, 2015). When managers demonstrate through HR practices a caring attitude towards employees, they are bound to respond favourably with positive attitudes in the shape of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Mostafa & Gould-Williams, 2015; García-Chas *et al*., 2016).

When employers invest in training of employees, it sends signals that the employer is concerned about the developmental needs of employees which will encourage them to respond positively with job satisfaction (Bartlett, 2001; Newman *et al*., 2011). Hence, as employees gain skills from training, they become more effective on the job (Bartlett, 2001; Bartlett & Kang, 2004). This feeling of competence, accompanied with the success it brings thereby improves job satisfaction (Costen & Salazar, 2011). Likewise, it is also expected that employees who receive training should have strong affective commitment to the organization (Newman *et al*., 2011; Choi & Yoon, 2015). The basis for this relationship is that by providing employees with training, employees view the organization as caring and dependable, thereby increasing their emotional attachment to the organization (Newman *et al*., 2011).

Since continuance commitment is associated with the cost of leaving the organization (Meyer *et al*., 2002), it is expected that in Nigeria where unemployment levels are high, there will be high continuance commitment as a result of unavailable job alternatives. Thus, employees may feel the need to remain with the organization as a result of the training opportunities they receive in the organization (Ahmad & Bakar, 2003; Bartlett & Kang, 2004; Newman *et al*., 2011). This means that the more training is available to employees, the more they will feel the need to remain thus creating a positive relationship between training and continuance commitment (Newman *et al*., 2011). Moreover, employees may also feel obligated to remain with the organization as a result of the investment the organization has made in training them, suggesting a positive effect of training on normative commitment as well (Bartlett & Kang, 2004; Bashir & Long, 2015).

Research has shown that employee benefits is a major source of motivation and employees value benefits more than pay (Giancola, 2012). Particularly in Nigeria where wages are generally low, employee benefits can be a powerful way to motivate employees and improve their job satisfaction (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001). Providing benefits to employees can be a demonstration that employers care for the well-being of employees (Yamamoto, 2011). Therefore, employee benefits are a form of extrinsic motivation which should increase job satisfaction levels (Artz, 2010; Yamamoto, 2011; Giancola, 2012; Ko & Hur, 2014). Also employee benefits can engender employees’ psychological attachment to the organization since it demonstrates a show of concern for the well-being of employees (Sinclair *et al*., 2005). Hence, it is expected that employee benefits will result to increased affective commitment to the organization.

Equally, we would expect a positive effect of employee benefits on continuance commitment since the loss of employee benefits may compel employees to remain with the organization (Sinclair *et al*., 2005), especially in a context with less available alternative jobs (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer *et al*., 2002). As employers commit resources in providing employee benefits, this may also create in employees a sense of obligation to remain with the organization as a way of repaying the organization for their investment (Meyer *et al*., 2002). Hence, it is expected that employee benefits will result to higher normative commitment to the organization.

Employee participation provides employees the opportunity to make contributions to work-related issues (Wright & Kim, 2004; Wood & de Menezes, 2011). Thus, the relationship between participation and job satisfaction is rooted in theories of job design (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Boon & Kalshoven, 2014). As employees are allowed to participate in work-related decisions, it makes the job more meaningful and interesting to them (Wright & Kim 2004; Boon & Kalshoven, 2014; Boxall & Macky, 2014). As information is shared with employees, it promotes clarity in the work environment whist employee contributions enhance the utilization of their skills and knowledge (Wood & de Menezes 2011; Boon & Kalshoven 2014). This signals that employees’ contributions are valued thereby creating a sense of psychological empowerment and self-esteem in employees (Farndale *et al*., 2011b; Wood & de Menezes, 2011). In turn, this results to increased levels of job satisfaction (Wright & Kim, 2004; Wood & de Menezes, 2011; Boxall & Macky, 2014; Zhu *et al*., 2015).

Employee participation creates a feeling that the organization trusts employees to make sound judgement about task-related decisions (Wood & de Menezes, 2011; Zhu *et al*., 2015) This feeling of trust enables employees to be emotionally attached to, and identify with the organization (Singh & Mohanty, 2011; Boon & Kalshoven, 2014). This means that a positive relationship exists between participation and affective commitment (Elele & Fields, 2010; Singh & Mohanty, 2011; Boon & Kalshoven, 2014). Similarly, as employees enjoy this influence, they will feel compelled to maintain membership with the organization since they may feel that the influence and esteem they presently enjoy might be lost if they went elsewhere, thus resulting to a positive relationship between employee participation and continuance commitment (Singh & Mohanty, 2011). This will be particularly true where there are few job alternatives (Meyer *et al*., 2002), as is the case of Nigeria. Finally, as employees are given some form of influence over work-related decisions, they will feel obligated to reciprocate this gesture by remaining with the organization, resulting to a positive relationship between employee participation and normative commitment (Elele & Fields, 2010).

Based on the foregoing, it is evident that HR practices may contribute to positive employee attitudes in the form of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In the subsequent sections, previous studies linking HR practices and employee attitudes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment will be presented. This will be followed by an analysis of these studies in order to identify the research gaps that the present study seeks to fill. It is worth stating that the studies presented were drawn from a literature search on Web of Science by entering search terms such as ‘HRM and job satisfaction’, ‘HRM and organizational commitment’, ‘training and job satisfaction’, ‘training and organizational commitment’, ‘employee benefits and job satisfaction’, ‘employee benefits and organizational commitment’, ‘employee participation and job satisfaction’, and ‘employee participation and organizational commitment’. After sieving through the search results, studies that were considered relevant to addressing the research question were then reviewed and presented below.

#### 3.4.2 Studies on HR Practices and Job Satisfaction

Several studies have examined the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction (e.g. Appelbaum *et al*., 2000; Edgar & Geare, 2005; Petrescu & Simmons, 2008; Mohr & Zoghi, 2008; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009; Gould-Williams & Mohamed, 2010; Kooij *et al*., 2010; Boon *et al*., 2011; Mendelson *et al*., 2011; Wood & de Menezes, 2011; Zatzick & Iverson, 2011; Ang *et al*., 2013; Choi & Lee, 2013; Den Hartog *et al*., 2013; Andreassi *et al*., 2014; Mostafa & Gould-Williams, 2014; Shamsudin & Ramalu, 2014; Fabi *et al*., 2015; Vermeeren, 2015; García-Chas *et al*., 2016; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016; Ollo-López *et al*., 2016).

Whilst some researchers have examined the relationship between systematic bundles of HR practices and job satisfaction (Boselie & van de Wiele, 2002; Mohr & Zoghi, 2008; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009; Gould-Williams & Mohamed, 2010; Boon *et al*., 2011; Zatzick & Iverson, 2011; Choi & Lee, 2013; Piening *et al*., 2013; García-Chas *et al*., 2016; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016; Ollo-López *et al*., 2016), others have tested this relationship using a subsystem of HR bundles (Kooij *et al*., 2010; Fabi *et al*., 2015). Yet others have examined the relationship between a group of HR practices on job satisfaction (e.g Andreassi *et al*., 2014; Shamsudin & Ramalu, 2014). The evidence from these studies indicate a positive relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction.

In a study of the effect of employees’ perception of HRM and TQM in Netherlands, Boselie & van de Wiele (2002) found a positive relationship between employees’ perception of HRM and job satisfaction. Similarly, Edgar & Geare (2005) reported positive effects of HR practices on job satisfaction. The authors measured HR practices using additive measures of a number of HRM practices, employer and employee perceptions of strength of HRM practice. Pointedly, the results of the study showed that only employees’ perception of the strength of HRM practice was positively related to job satisfaction. This indicates the need to include employees’ perceptions in HRM models.

Mohr & Zoghi (2008) examined the effect of high-involvement work practices on job satisfaction. Using data from the Canadian Workplace and Employee Survey, the study found a positive relationship between high-involvement work practices and job satisfaction. Macky & Boxall (2008) found positive effects of high-involvement work systems (HIWS)[[3]](#footnote-3) on job satisfaction. Although HIWS had negative effects on work-life imbalance, fatigue, and stress, the relationship was weak. Similar findings were reported in a later study by the authors (Boxall & Macky, 2014). Also, Mendelson *et al's*. (2011) research on 317 employees in five organizations in Canada reported positive effects of HIWS on job satisfaction.

Wu & Chaturvedi (2009) investigated the relationship between high performance work system (HPWS)[[4]](#footnote-4) among 1,383 employees drawn from 23 firms in China, Singapore, and Taiwan. They found that HPWS increased job satisfaction levels. In addition, there was indirect effects of HPWS on job satisfaction through procedural justice. In a comparative study of 569 local government employees and 453 local government employees in England and Malaysia respectively, Gould-Williams & Mohamed (2010) found that best practice HRM bundle related positively to job satisfaction in both samples; reflecting the universal thesis of best practice HRM.

A meta-analysis of 83 studies on the effects of high commitment HR practices and job satisfaction conducted by Kooij *et al*. (2010) found that both maintenance HR practices and development HR practices increased job satisfaction levels. However, as employees got older, the relationship between maintenance HR practices increased while the relationship between development HR practices decreased with age. Using longitudinal, multi-informant and multi-source data from public hospitals in England, Piening *et al*. (2013) found a positive association between perceptions of HR system and job satisfaction. However, the study found that job satisfaction levels changed as employees’ perceptions of HR system changed. Similarly, Ang *et al*'s. (2013) multi-level study of a matched sample of 193 employees and 58 managers in a regional hospital in Australia found that HPWS resulted in heightened job satisfaction when the implemented HPWS were accepted by employees. This indicates that the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction is contingent on the nature of HR practices, relative to employees’ needs.

Boon *et al*. (2011) found a positive relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction among Dutch employees. Further, there were indirect effects of HR practices on job satisfaction through person-organization fit and person-job fit. Similarly, Zatzick & Iverson (2011) found positive effects of high-involvement work system on job satisfaction. The study also found that a high-involvement work system moderated the relationship between employee involvement and job satisfaction whilst Den Hartog *et al*. (2013) found an indirect effect of HRM on job satisfaction through employees’ perception of HRM.

A study of 245 Korean firms by Choi & Lee (2013) indicated a positive association between HPWS and job satisfaction. In turn, job satisfaction mediated the relationship between HPWS and firm performance. Further, García-Chas *et al*. (2016) reported a positive association between HPWS and job satisfaction in their study of 180 engineers across 25 organizations in Spain. In the same vein, Ollo-López *et al*. (2016) found a positive effect of high-involvement work system on job satisfaction. Using data from the Spanish Quality of Working Life Survey, the study also found that the relationship between high-involvement work systems was mediated by job interest, effort, and wages. Heffernan & Dundon (2016) examined the effects of HPWS on job satisfaction in Irish companies. Using cross-level analyses, the study found a positive association between HPWS and job satisfaction. There was also indirect effects of HPWS on job satisfaction through employee perceptions of distributive, procedural and interactive justice.

With the use of data from Britain’s Workplace Employment Relations Study, Wood & de Menezes (2011) examined the effects of four dimensions of HPWS (enriched jobs, high involvement management, employee voice and motivational supports) on job satisfaction. They found that only enriched jobs and employee voice were positively related to job satisfaction. Vermeeren (2015) examined the effects of ability-enhancing, motivation-enhancing, and opportunity-enhancing HR practices on job satisfaction in the Dutch public sector. The results of the study indicate that while all three subsystems of HR practices had positive effects on job satisfaction, ability-enhancing HR practices and opportunity-enhancing HR practices significantly influenced job satisfaction more than motivation-enhancing HR practices. Likewise, Fabi *et al*. (2015) examined the effects of ability-enhancing, motivation-enhancing, and opportunity-enhancing HR practices on job satisfaction in their study of 730 employees in eleven Canadian organizations. They found that each HR subsystem had positive effects on job satisfaction. The combined effects of these HR practices produced higher positive effects on job satisfaction, signalling the complementary nature of HR practices.

Among the studies that have examined the effects of a set of HR practices on job satisfaction, Appelbaum (2000) found that fair pay, pay for performance, formal training, family-friendly practices, promotion opportunities, and autonomy heightened job satisfaction levels of US workers. A study of UK employees by Petrescu & Simmons (2008) found that training and learning, and employee involvement had positive effects on job satisfaction. Shamsudin & Ramalu (2014) found that formal job description, employment security, and internal career opportunities had significant and positive effects on job satisfaction among 372 employees of manufacturing companies in Malaysia. Andreassi *et al*. (2014) conducted a large study involving over 70,000 employees in three large multinational companies in forty eight countries across Asia, Europe, North America and Latin America. They found that equal opportunity, teamwork, recognition, communication, accomplishment, training and work-life balance practices were positively related to job satisfaction. However, the relationships among HR practices were moderated by cultural dimensions.

Apart from the studies reported above, other researchers have examined, individually, the effects of employee benefits (Artz, 2010; Yamamoto, 2011; Giancola, 2012; Crowne *et al*., 2014; Ko & Hur, 2014); employee participation (Wright & Kim, 2004; Zhu *et al*., 2015); or training (Chiang *et al*., 2005; Georgellis & Lange, 2007; Costen & Salazar, 2011; Leppel *et al*., 2012; Tabvuma *et al*. ,2015; Huang & Su, 2016) on job satisfaction. For example, Wright &s Kim (2004) found positive effects of employee participation on job satisfaction among public sector workers in USA. The relationship between participation and job satisfaction was also mediated by job characteristics: feedback, task significance, and career development support. Likewise, Zhu *et al*. (2015) found positive and significant effects of employee participation on job satisfaction of manufacturing workers in China. This relationship was however moderated by employees’ willingness to engage in participation.

Using data from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youths in USA, Artz (2010) found that fringe benefits were a significant and positive determinant of job satisfaction. Similarly, Giancola (2012) found significant positive effects of employee benefits on job satisfaction among employees in USA. Still in USA, Crowne *et al*. (2014) found positive effects of older-worker-friendly practices on job satisfaction of older workers while Ko & Hur (2014) examined the effects of employee benefits among public sector workers. The findings of the study indicate that both traditional and family-friendly benefits were positively and significantly related to job satisfaction. Further, the relationship between benefits and job satisfaction was moderated by procedural justice and managerial trustworthiness. In a study of employees in Japan, Yamamoto (2011) found significant positive effects of employee benefits on job satisfaction. In turn, job satisfaction mediated the relationship between employee retention.

As for the effects of training on job satisfaction, Chiang *et al*. (2005) found positive effects of training on job satisfaction in their study of hotels in USA. Also in the hospitality industry in USA, Costen & Salazar (2011) found in their study of four lodging properties that employees’ perceptions of more training opportunities heightened their job satisfaction levels. Georgellis & Lange (2007) analysed data from the German Socio-economic Panel and found positive effects of organization-sponsored training on job satisfaction for men but not for women. Similarly, using data from the British Household Panel Survey, Tabvuma *et al*. (2015) reported that orientation training had significant positive effects on job satisfaction of male newcomers in both public and private sectors, but heightened job satisfaction of newcomer female employees only in the public sector. Findings from Leppel *et al*'s. (2012) study indicate that perceptions of availability and quality of training increased job satisfaction levels of older workers. In their study of employees from different companies in Taiwan, Huang and Su (2016) found that training satisfaction positive effects on job satisfaction. The next section shall focus on studies on HR practices and organizational commitment.

#### 3.4.3 Studies on HR Practices and Organizational Commitment

Research evidence abound linking HR practices to employee commitment to the organization (e.g. Whitener, 2001; Agarwala, 2003; Edgar & Geare, 2005; Benson, 2006; Paré & Tremblay, 2007; Kuvaas, 2008; Conway & Monks, 2009; Gong *et al*., 2009; Herrbach *et al*., 2009; Qiao *et al*., 2009; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009; Boselie, 2010; Guchait & Cho, 2010; Hashim, 2010; Kooij *et al*., 2010; Boon *et al*., 2011; Elorza *et al*., 2011; Farndale *et al*., 2011*a*; Mendelson *et al*., 2011; Juhdi *et al*., 2013; Kooij *et al*., 2013; Saridakis *et al*., 2013; Boon & Kalshoven, 2014; Fabi *et al*., 2015; Mostafa & Gould-Williams, 2015; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016).

Whilst some researchers measure HR practices using systematic bundles of HR practices (Meyer & Smith, 2000; Agarwala, 2003; Gould-Williams, 2003; Edgar & Geare, 2005; Kuvaas, 2008; Conway & Monks, 2009; Qiao *et al*., 2009; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009; Guchait & Cho, 2010; Hashim, 2010; Elorza *et al*., 2011; Farndale *et al*., 2011*a*; Mendelson *et al*., 2011; Yang, 2012; Saridakis *et al*., 2013; Takeuchi & Takeuchi, 2013; Boon & Kalshoven, 2014; Mostafa & Gould-Williams, 2015; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016), others have measured HR practices using subsystems of HR bundles (Gong *et al*., 2009; Boselie, 2010; Kooij *et al*., 2010; Kooij *et al*., 2013; Fabi *et al*., 2015). Yet others have tested the relationship between a set of HR practices and organizational commitment (e.g. Paul & Anantharaman, 2004; Benson, 2006; Paré & Tremblay, 2007; Chew & Chan, 2008; Juhdi *et al*., 2013). The overwhelming evidence from these studies suggest a positive relationship between HR practices and organizational commitment.

For instance, Agarwala (2003) found positive effects of innovative HR practices on organizational commitment. In a sample of employees working in New Zealand, Edgar & Geare (2005) found that different measures of HR practices produced different effects on organizational commitment. They measured HR practices using additive measures of number of HR practices, employer perceptions of HR practices, and employee perceptions of HR practices. The study found that it was only employee perceptions of HR practices that had a positive effect on organizational commitment. This indicates the importance of employees’ perceptions in examining the effectiveness of HR practices since there may be a gap between intended and implemented practices. However, Meyer & Smith (2000) in their study of 281 employees from Canadian organizations found no direct relationship between HR practices and three forms of commitment; affective, normative, and continuance commitment. Instead, they found that HR practices related positively to affective and normative commitment indirectly through procedural justice and perceived organizational support.

Kuvaas (2008) examined the effects of developmental HR practices on affective commitment among 539 employees of sixty-four local savings banks in Norway. The result of the study indicated a positive relationship between developmental HR practices and affective commitment. In turn, affective commitment mediated the relationship between developmental HR practices and work performance. Sanders *et al*. (2008) also found a positive relationship between HRM system and affective commitment in their study of hospital employees. The study also reported that the effect of HRM system on affective commitment was moderated by climate strength. Similarly, Qiao *et al*. (2009) in their study of 1,176 employees in six manufacturing companies across two cities in China found that higher perceptions of the existence of high-performance work systems (HPWS) related positively to organizational commitment. This relationship was however moderated by gender and marital status such that the relationship was higher for male and unmarried employees.

Wu & Chaturvedi (2009) examined the effects of HPWS on affective commitment among 1,383 employees across 23 firms in China, Singapore, and Taiwan. They found a positive relationship between HPWS and affective commitment whilst procedural justice also mediated the relationship. In a study of three Irish organizations, Conway & Monks (2009) found that HR practices significantly and positively influenced affective commitment across the three organizations studied. Whilst the study also found a positive effect of HR practices on continuance commitment, the latter findings were inconsistent across the three organizations. However, HR practices were not found to influence normative commitment levels across the three organizations. Similarly, Mendelson *et al's*. (2011) research on 317 employees in five organizations in Canada reported positive effects of HIWS on affective commitment. The relationship between HIWS and continuance commitment was however negative.

In a novel attempt to link religion to HRM, Hashim (2010) found that HR practices that were consistent with Islamic doctrines accounted for forty-five percent variance in organizational commitment among Muslim employees in Islamic organizations in Malaysia. Guchait & Cho (2010) in their study of 183 employees in a service firm in India found a positive relationship between HR practices and organizational commitment. It was also found in the study that organizational commitment mediated the relationship between organizational commitment and intention to leave. In a study examining the effects of high-commitment performance management (HCPM) practices on organizational commitment in four large organizations in UK, Farndale *et al*. (2011*a*) found a positive relationship between HCPM practices and organizational commitment. The study also found that the relationship between HCPM practices and organizational commitment was mediated by organizational justice perceptions, whilst trust in employer/senior management further moderated the relationship.

Elorza *et al*. (2011) found a positive relationship between ability-enhancing, motivation-enhancing, and opportunity-enhancing (AMO) HR system and organizational commitment among employees in Spanish manufacturing companies. Likewise, Boon *et al*. (2011) reported positive effects of HR practices on organizational commitment among Dutch employees. The study also indicated an indirect effect of HR practices on organizational commitment through person-organization fit and person-job fit. Yang's (2012) study of 172 contact employees of Taiwanese restaurants reported positive effects of high-involvement HR practices on affective commitment. In turn, affective commitment mediated the relationship between high-involvement HR practices and organizational citizenship behaviours.

In their study of fifty-six self-contained business units in a large food service organization in USA, Kehoe & Wright (2013) found a positive relationship between high-performance HR practices and affective commitment. In turn, the effect of high-performance HR practices on outcomes such as absenteeism, intention to quit and organizational citizenship behaviours was mediated by affective commitment. Ang *et al*. (2013) also found a positive relationship between HPWS and affective commitment in their study of 193 employees in a regional hospital in Australia. Takeuchi & Takeuchi (2013) found in their Japanese study that HR practices had positive effects on both affective and continuance commitment. The study also found that person-organization fit mediated the relationship between HR practices and both forms of commitment.

Saridakis *et al*. (2013) in their study of SMEs in UK found that HR practices had positive effects on organizational commitment. Interestingly, the study also found that even in SMEs with low job satisfaction levels, organizational commitment levels were heightened through the use of HR practices. Boon & Kalshoven (2014) also reported positive effects of high-commitment HRM on organizational commitment. Mostafa & Gould-Williams (2015) reported positive effects of high-performance HR practices on affective commitment among Egyptian professionals. Similarly, a positive effect of HPWS on affective commitment was also reported recently by Heffernan & Dundon (2016) in their study of 187 employees in Ireland. In addition, the study found that the relationship between HPWS and affective commitment was mediated by employees’ perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice.

In their study of the relationship between HR subsystems and organizational commitment, Gong *et al*. (2009) found that performance-oriented HR subsystem was positively related to affective commitment while maintenance-oriented HR subsystem had positive effects with continuance commitment but not with affective commitment. Boselie (2010) found that ability-enhancing HPWS had positive effects on affective commitment; whilst both motivation and opportunity- enhancing HPWS did not relate to affective commitment. On the contrary, Fabi *et al*. (2015) in their Canadian study of 730 employees found that each subsystem of ability, motivation, and opportunity-enhancing HR practices related positively to organizational commitment. True to the complementary nature of HR practices, the study found that the synergistic effects of the three subsystems of HR practices yielded higher positive effects on organizational commitment.

In a meta-analysis of eighty-three studies on employees’ perceptions of high commitment practices and work outcomes, Kooij *et al*. (2010) reported positive effects of maintenance and development HRM bundles on affective commitment. However, maintenance HR bundle had stronger effects on affective commitment in older age while the effects of developmental HR practices on affective commitment weakened in older age. Similar findings were reported in a separate study conducted by Kooij *et al*. (2013) in three public hospitals in UK.

Among the studies examining the effects of a set of practices on organizational commitment, Appelbaum *et al*. (2000) in their USA study found that fair pay, pay for performance, opportunity to participate, and autonomy influenced organizational commitment positively. Whitener (2001) found that high-commitment HR practices such as staffing, appraisal, training, and rewards had a positive influence on organizational commitment. HR practices such as employee-friendly work environment, career development, development-oriented appraisal, and comprehensive training were found to significantly influence organizational commitment in Paul & Anantharaman's (2004) study of software professionals in India. Benson (2006) found a positive relationship between on-the-job training and organizational commitment whilst Herrbach *et al*. (2009) in their study of 514 French late-career managers found that provision of opportunities for training related positively to affective commitment and high-sacrifice commitment. However, the provision of opportunities for training related negatively to lack-of-alternatives commitment. Juhdi *et al*. (2013) in their study of 457 employees working in different organizations in a region in Malaysia found that career management, performance appraisal, and compensation were positively related to organizational commitment.

Apart from the studies reported above, other researchers have examined, individually, the effects of employee benefits (e.g. Sinclair *et al*., 2005; Crowne *et al*., 2014); employee participation (e.g. Elele & Fields, 2010; Singh & Mohanty, 2011; Ohana *et al*., 2012); or training (e.g. Bartlett, 2001; Ahmad & Bakar, 2003; Bartlett & Kang, 2004; Owens, 2006; Al-Emadi & Marquardt, 2007; Bulut & Culha, 2010; Erhardt *et al*., 2011; Chambel & Castanheira, 2012; Bashir & Long, 2015; Choi & Yoon, 2015; Ismail, 2016) on organizational commitment.

For example, Sinclair *et al*. (2005) examined the effects of dimensions of employee benefits on affective and continuance commitment components among 974 employees of a Fortune 500 company in USA. They found that benefits communication quality; benefits participation; and benefits use; and traditional benefits importance were positively related to affective commitment. However, benefits knowledge had a negative effect on affective commitment. As for continuance commitment, the study found that benefits communication quality; traditional benefits importance and use had positive effects on continuance commitment whilst alternative benefits use and alternative benefits importance and use had negative effects on continuance commitment. Also in USA, Crowne *et al*. (2014) found positive effects older-worker- friendly practices on job satisfaction among older workers. The relationship between employee benefits and affective commitment was also mediated by job satisfaction.

Elele & Fields (2010) examined the effects of participation in decision making on organizational commitment using a sample of 74 Americans and 109 Nigerians working for a non-governmental organization. Results showed that for the Nigerian sub-sample, actual participation as well as the ratio of actual versus desired participation related positively and significantly to affective commitment. However, participation was not significantly related to continuance commitment. For the American sub-sample, the ratio of actual versus desired participation related positively to affective and normative commitment components. However, actual participation did not relate to affective and normative commitment, but was negatively related to continuance commitment. Singh & Mohanty (2011) found that participation satisfaction was positively related to affective and continuance commitment among Indian employees. However, the relationship between participation satisfaction and normative commitment was negative; although not significant. Ohana *et al*. (2012) in their study of French work integration social enterprises found that participation in decision making increased affective levels of workers.

In a study of 374 nurses, Bartlett (2001) found positive effects of training on affective and normative commitment. Ahmad & Bakar (2003)in their study of white-collar employees found that five dimensions of training: availability of training, support for training, motivation to learn, training environment, and perceived benefits of training were significantly and positively related to affective and normative commitment. However only training environment and perceived benefits of training were positively related to continuance commitment. Similarly, Bartlett & Kang (2004)in a sample of nurses in USA and New Zealand found that five dimensions of training: perceived access to training, supervisory support for training, motivation to learn, and perceived benefits from training were positively and significantly related to affective and normative commitment.

Also, Bulut & Culha (2010)found that four dimensions of training: motivation for training, access to training, benefits from training, and support for training were positively related to organizational commitment of 298 hotel employees in Turkey. In their study of 437 Chinese employees, Newman *et al*. (2011) found that perceived availability of training; motivation to learn; supervisor support for training; and co-worker support for training had positive effects on affective commitment. Whilst availability of training also had positive effects on continuance commitment, the relationship between supervisor support for training and continuance commitment was negative.

Relatedly, Bashir & Long (2015) in their study of academicians in Malaysia found that five training dimensions: perceived availability of training; co-worker support for training; supervisor support for training; motivation to learn; and perceived benefits from training had positive effects on affective and normative components of commitment. Whilst the dimensions of training had no significant effect on continuance commitment. On the other hand, Owens (2006) found that training related positively to organizational commitment; the relationship was also mediated by organizational justice whilst Al-Emadi & Marquardt (2007)reported positive effects of perceived benefits of training on organizational commitment in their study of employees in Qatar.

Yap *et al*. (2010)examined the effect of diversity training and organizational commitment. Using data from nine large organizations in Canada, they found that employees who perceived diversity training to be effective were more committed to the organization. Erhardt *et al*. (2011) also found a positive relationship between employees’ perception of training comprehensiveness and organizational commitment. In the same vein, Chambel & Castanheira (2012)in their study of 393 blue-collar temporary workers in Portugal found a significant positive relationship between training and affective commitment. In addition, the relationship between training and organizational commitment was moderated by goal orientation. Meanwhile, Choi & Yoon's (2015)studyin South Koreafound positive effects of training investment and organizational commitment. In turn organizational commitment mediated the relationship between investment in training and organizational outcomes. Also, a recent study in Lebanon by Ismail (2016) reported positive effects of training on organizational commitment. The next section will focus on an analysis of studies on HR practices and employee attitudes described above.

#### 3.4.4 Analysis of Studies Linking HR Practices and Employee Attitudes

So what have we gleaned from the studies on HR practices - employee attitudes relationship presented in the previous sections? Most of the studies measured HR practices using a systematic bundle of practices that fall under the banner of high-performance HR practices (e.g. Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Mostafa & Gould-Williams, 2015); high-performance work systems (e.g. Qiao *et al*., 2009; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009); high-commitment HR practices (e.g. Conway & Monks, 2009; Boon & Kalshoven, 2014); high-involvement work systems (e.g. Zatzick & Iverson, 2011; Ollo-López *et al*., 2016); high involvement HR practices (e.g. Paré & Tremblay, 2007; Yang, 2012); high involvement work processes (e.g. Macky & Boxall, 2008; Boxall & Macky, 2014); or high commitment performance management (Farndale *et al*., 2011*a*). However there is no unanimity on what should constitute a systematic bundle of HR practices. Although there are others that have examined the effects of individual HR practices on job satisfaction and organizational commitment (e.g. Bulut & Culha, 2010; Elele & Fields, 2010; Bashir & Long, 2015; Crowne *et al*., 2014). Whilst most of the studies were conducted at the individual level, there has also been some interest in cross-level analyses (e.g. Zatzick & Iverson, 2011; Ang *et al*., 2013; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016).

In terms of research setting, most studies were conducted in Western contexts such as UK (Gould-Williams, 2004; Farndale *et al*., 2011*a*; Kooij *et al*., 2013; Saridakis *et al*., 2013), USA (e.g. Appelbaum *et al*., 2000; Sinclair *et al*., 2005; Artz, 2010; Crowne *et al*., 2014); Canada (e.g. Mohr & Zoghi, 2008; Yap *et al*., 2010; Fabi *et al*., 2015); New Zealand (e.g. Edgar & Geare, 2005; Boxall & Macky, 2014), Netherlands (e.g. Boselie, 2010; Den Hartog *et al*., 2013), France (e.g. Herrbach *et al*., 2009; Ohana *et al*., 2012), Ireland (e.g. Conway & Monks, 2009; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016), Portugal (e.g. Chambel & Castanheira, 2012), Spain (e.g. García-Chas *et al*., 2016; Ollo-López *et al*., 2016), whilst some were conducted in Asian contexts: China (e.g. Qiao *et al*., 2009; Newman *et al*., 2011; Zhu *et al*., 2015); India (e.g. Guchait & Cho, 2010; Singh & Mohanty, 2011); South Korea (e.g. Choi & Lee, 2013; Choi & Yoon, 2015); Lebanon (Ismail, 2016); Qatar (Al-Emadi & Marquardt, 2007); Singapore (Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009). Very few were conducted in African contexts: Egypt (Mostafa & Gould-Williams, 2015), and Nigeria (Elele & Fields, 2010). Nonetheless, the studies in Egypt and Nigeria were conducted in the public sector and non-governmental organization respectively, whereas the present study is conducted in both public and private sectors, thereby bridging the research gap.

As with sector, most of the studies were conducted in private organizations (e.g. Appelbaum *et al*., 2000; Sinclair *et al*., 2005; Qiao *et al*., 2009; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009; Elorza *et al*., 2011; Choi & Lee, 2013; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Shamsudin & Ramalu, 2014; García-Chas *et al*., 2016; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016) whilst some were conducted in the public sector (e.g. Piening *et al*., 2013; Ko & Hur, 2014; Mostafa & Gould-Williams, 2015; Vermeeren, 2015). Out of the three studies that collected data from both public and private sector (Edgar & Geare, 2005; Mendelson *et al*., 2011; Tabvuma *et al*., 2015), only Tabvuma *et al*. (2015) were interested in comparing public and private sectors. Even at that, Tabvuma *et al*. (2015) examined the effect of only one HR practice- orientation training - on job satisfaction. This means that none of the studies examined the effects of HR practices on organizational commitment in public and private sector. Thus, not only is the present study the first to examine the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in the public and private sector in an African context, it is *perhaps* the first (but certainly one of the first) to examine the effects of HR practices on organizational commitment whilst comparing public and private sectors.

Despite calls for researchers to treat organizational commitment as a multi-dimensional construct in HRM research (Wright & Kehoe, 2008), most of the studies concentrated on only affective commitment (e.g. Chew & Chan, 2008; Kuvaas, 2008; Sanders *et al*., 2008; Qiao *et al*., 2009; Boselie, 2010; Elorza *et al*., 2011; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Mostafa & Gould-Williams, 2015) whilst some examined the effects of HR practices on affective and continuance components of commitment (e.g. Sinclair *et al*., 2005; Paré & Tremblay, 2007; Gong *et al*., 2009; Mendelson *et al*., 2011; Fabi *et al*., 2015). Relatively few studies however examined the effects of HR practices on all three forms of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative commitment (e.g. Meyer & Smith, 2000; Ahmad & Bakar, 2003; Conway & Monks, 2009; Elele & Fields, 2010). This study seeks to bridge this research gap by examining the effects of HR practices on the three components of commitment.

Further, studies examining the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes have shown that both job satisfaction and organizational commitment are important variables mediating the relationship between HR practices and other work outcomes such as turnover intentions (e.g. Guchait & Cho, 2010), organizational citizenship behaviour (e.g. Yang, 2012), work performance (e.g. Kuvaas, 2008), and firm performance (Choi & Lee, 2013). However, the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes may as well not be a straightforward one as many studies have shown the mediating effects of variables such as organizational justice (e.g. Farndale *et al*., 2011*a*; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016); notably procedural justice (e.g. Meyer & Smith, 2000; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009), person-organization fit (e.g. Boon *et al*., 2011), job characteristics (e.g. Wright & Kim, 2004), among others on HR practices-employee attitudes relationship. Nevertheless, the role of the institutional environment of the organization has been neglected in most of the studies linking HR practices and employee attitudes (Kim & Wright, 2011). The implicit assumption perhaps is that HR practices will produce favourable effects on employee attitudes irrespective of the institutional context in which the organization operates (Kim & Wright, 2011). Nevertheless, the regulatory system and the system of employee relations in a given context may influence the type of HR practices implemented by organizations (Brewster & Mayrhofer, 2012). In turn, this may affect employees’ perceptions of HR practices and their effect on employee attitudes (Kim & Wright, 2011). Thus, it is important for researchers to take into account the role of the institutional environment in studies examining the effect of HR practices on work outcomes. The present study therefore seeks to fill this research gap by examining this relationship in an African context from an institutional perspective.

In the present research, procedural justice and HR attributions are examined as mediating variables in the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes. These variables were considered in this study because researchers have suggested that procedural justice (Paauwe & Boselie, 2007) and HR attributions (Kim & Wright, 2011) may account for variations in the effect of HR practices on employee outcomes in different institutional contexts. Whilst procedural justice entails employees’ perception of fairness in the implementation of HR practices (Paré & Tremblay, 2007), HR attributions refer to employees’ perception of the motivations for why organizations adopt HR practices (Nishii *et al*., 2008). These concepts shall be discussed in detail under the chapter on theorizing and hypotheses for study 2 (chapter 6). Meanwhile, the nature of public and private sector organizations is discussed in the next section.

### 3.5 Summary

The review of existing literature on the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes was the focus of this chapter. The review of existing literature indicates that existing studies on HR practices-employee attitudes relationship have focused largely on private sector organizations, with only a few studies focusing on public sector organizations. The present research therefore seeks to bridge this gap by examining this relationship in both public and private sector organizations. In addition, the chapter highlighted the neglect of the role of the institutional environment of organizations in most previous studies – a gap that the current research seeks to fill. The methodology used in conducting this research will be the focus of the next chapter.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides details of how the research was conducted in order to achieve the objectives of the research. It deals with the methodology that was utilized for collecting and analysing data. The research is comprised of two studies, therefore, details of how each study was conducted and the integration of both studies are outlined in the chapter. Thus, after discussing the overarching research philosophy and research design, the rest of the chapter deals with how each of the 2 studies were conducted. Thereafter, the ethical considerations for the research is discussed. The structure of the methodology is presented in figure 4.1 below.

**Research Philosophy**

**Ontology**

REALISM

**Epistemology**

NEO-POSITIVISM

**Methodology**

MIXED METHODS

**Research Design**

**Study 1**

**Study 2**

**Sampling**

**\*** Stratified

**Participants**

**\*** HR Managers

**Data Analysis**

**\*** Logistic Regression **\***Content Analysis

**\*** Thematic Analysis

**Sampling**

**\*** Simple Random

**Participants**

**\*** Employees

**Data Analysis**

**\*** Multiple Regression **\***Mediation Analysis

**\*** Moderated Mediation

**Findings**

**Findings**

**Methods**

Questionnaires

Interviews

**Methods**

Questionnaires

Ethical Consideration, Planning and Approval

Figure 4‑1 Research Methodology Outline

### 4.2 Research Philosophical Stance

There are philosophical assumptions that underpin every piece of research in the social sciences (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). It is therefore important to understand a researcher’s philosophical stance because whether stated explicitly or not, these philosophical assumptions influence the way research is conducted (Mack, 2010). One concept that captures the philosophical assumptions of research is the research paradigm. According to Guba & Lincoln (1994) research paradigm is a researcher’s belief system or worldview that determines how research is undertaken. Thus, research paradigm determines the factors that a researcher has to take into account whilst conducting research (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; Grix, 2002). This means that researchers who subscribe to a particular research philosophy have shared beliefs about the way research should be conducted (Johnson & Cassell, 2001; Grix, 2002).

Whilst there are different philosophical assumptions underlying research in the social sciences (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Johnson & Duberley 2000; Bryman & Bell 2011; Saunders *et al*., 2012), the aim of this section is not to engage in these paradigmatic debates (Bryman & Bell, 2011) but to state explicitly the philosophical foundations upon which this research is built. This will enable researchers reading this piece of research to understand the factors the researcher considered whilst conducting this research (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; Grix, 2002). By so doing, it will provide the basis for effectively evaluating this piece of research (Grix, 2002; Mack, 2010).

The components of research paradigm are ontology, epistemology and methodology (Grix, 2002). These components are chronologically interrelated such that a researcher’s ontological position determines the epistemological position which in turn results to the choice of methodology adopted (Mack, 2010). As noted by Grix (2002), ontology is the starting point of social science research which reflects the view of an individual about reality and being. It deals with the nature of phenomena and their existence (McAuley *et al*., 2014). Ontology answers the question of “what we mean when we say something exists” (Mack 2010, p.5) According to McAuley *et al*. (2014), the central idea of ontology is in dealing with the issue of whether reality exists independently outside of the worldview of individuals interested in it or whether reality is created as perceived by individuals. Two main ontological positions have been distinguished as realism and subjectivism (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; McAuley *et al*., 2014).

*Realism*, also known as objectivism assumes that what we seek to know already exists and that even if we may be unaware of the way it looks, there is no doubt that it exists; it is real and out there for us to uncover it (Grix, 2002; McAuley *et al*., 2014). On the other hand, *subjectivism* which is also known as constructivism acknowledges the role of social actors in shaping the existence and meaning of social phenomena (Saunders *et al*. 2012; McAuley *et al*. 2014). It holds that what we know as social reality is created as a result of our desire to know its existence (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; McAuley *et al*., 2014). It is on the assumptions of realism that this research is based. This is because the researcher believes that the social phenomena under investigation already exists out there without the interference of the researcher.

Epistemology refers to the way that we seek to gain knowledge about social phenomena (Grix, 2002; Mack, 2010). According to McAuley *et al*. (2014), epistemology is “the study of the criteria we deploy and by which we know and decide what does and does not constitute a warranted claim about the world or what might constitute warranted knowledge” [p.33]. Epistemology answers the question of what constitutes the truth and how we can discern the truth from falsity based on evidence (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). Therefore, at the heart of epistemology is how we know that justification has been provided about claims made about social phenomena (McAuley *et al*., 2014).

Although research in the social sciences has been dominated by two contrasting epistemological positions, namely positivism and interpretivism (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Saunders *et al*., 2012), a third epistemological position known as neo-positivism has also gained popularity in management research in recent years (Duberley *et al*., 2012). Indeed, neo-positivism is the epistemological stance adopted for this research. Nevertheless, before discussing neo-positivism as the epistemological position adopted for this research, there is need to shed light on the other two epistemological positions.

*Positivism* assumes that individuals can objectively or neutrally gain knowledge of social phenomena without influencing it (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; McAuley *et al*., 2014). Positivism is influenced by methods of research in the natural sciences and emphasizes the adoption of scientific method of inquiry in order to test theories (Bryman & Bell, 2011). This it does by utilizing techniques that enable researchers prevent bias in the research process (Mack, 2010; Bryman & Bell, 2011). Positivism aligns with the realist ontological position and quantitative research methodology (Bryman & Bell, 2011). On the other hand, *interpretivism* assumes that what we know as reality is the creation of individuals (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; McAuley *et al*., 2014; Mack, 2010). Therefore, in order to understand social phenomena, the subjective interpretation and perceptions of individuals need to be taken into consideration (Mack, 2010). This epistemological stance aligns with the subjectivist ontological position and qualitative research methodology (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

*Neo-positivism* adopts a realist ontological status of social reality just like positivism in the sense that it is based on the assumption that reality exists out there waiting to be unearthed (Johnson *et al*., 2006; Duberley *et al*., 2012). It however deviates from core positivism in the sense that when it comes to the ontological status of human behaviour and action, neo-positivists believe that human behaviour is subjective and must not be studied through a predetermined methodology (Johnson *et al*., 2006; Duberley *et al*., 2012; Johnson & Duberley, 2015). Thus, there is need for researchers to be reflexive in order to avoid methodological lapses (Johnson & Duberley, 2003; Johnson & Duberley, 2015).

Neo-positivism is anchored on the belief that although human behaviour may be subjective, it is possible to be objective/neutral in order to have access to reality (Alvesson & Ashcraft, 2012; Duberley *et al*., 2012). It argues that whilst some research problems can be understood via quantitative approaches, others are best understood through qualitative methods (Johnson & Duberley, 2015). This entails that within neo-positivism, qualitative approaches are also acceptable as a means of objectively accessing reality to the extent that the researcher attempts to, as much as possible, minimise the bias that is sometimes associated with conducting qualitative research (Johnson *et al*., 2006; Alvesson & Ashcraft, 2012; Duberley *et al*., 2012). Clearly, in the neo-positivist epistemological tradition, the assumptions of positivism are embedded in the use qualitative methods (Johnson *et al*., 2006; Alvesson & Ashcraft, 2012) and can therefore be easily used in a mixed methods research (Sandelowski, 2000; Mott-Stenerson, 2008).

So how does neo-positivism apply to the present research? Whilst quantitative methods were largely used in this research, when it comes to the influence of institutions on HRM, inasmuch as quantitative methods were appropriate to tap the views of many HR managers across different industries and sectors about the research phenomena, the researcher acknowledges that abstract concepts such as institutions which are subject to cultural interpretations can be better understood through qualitative approaches (Boselie *et al*., 2003; Boon *et al*., 2009); but that just like quantitative research, qualitative research can be objectively conducted (Alvesson & Ashcraft, 2012; Duberley *et al*., 2012). Therefore, in order to gain more insights on how institutions influence HRM in public and private sector, the researcher turned to qualitative methods. Nevertheless, the bias that is sometimes associated with qualitative methods was minimised in this research in the sense that computer software (Nvivo 11) was used for qualitative data analysis whilst an audit trail is provided in order to demonstrate credibility, dependability, confirmability and ecological validity (Johnson *et al*., 2006; Alvesson & Ashcraft, 2012; Johnson & Duberley, 2015).

Methodology refers to how researchers go about obtaining knowledge about social reality (Grix, 2002). Three types of methodology have been distinguished as quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods research (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Among these three, *quantitative research* is the most commonly used methodology for conducting research in the field of management and organizational behaviour (Bryman & Bell, 2011). In quantitative research, both data collection and analysis are quantified. Hence, quantitative research adopts a deductive approach by testing hypotheses in order to validate theories that are already formulated (Gill & Johnson, 2002; Hair *et al*., 2007). Moreover, quantitative research seeks to obtain findings from a sample that can be generalized to the entire population. On the other hand, *qualitative research* seeks to understand a complex research phenomena based on the perceptions social actors (Cassell & Symon, 2012). It adopts an inductive approach by identifying patterns within a large amount of data (Gill & Johnson, 2002; Hair *et al*., 2007). Although qualitative research sometimes adopts a subjectivist epistemological orientation, it can also be objectively conducted (Johnson & Duberley, 2015) as is the case in this research.

Whilst there are differences between quantitative and qualitative research, the mixed methods research views both approaches as complementary (Creswell, 2014). Thus, mixed methods research is adopted for this study since the researcher views both methods as complementary in seeking answers to the research problem under investigation. Mixed methods research favours methodological pluralism by giving legitimacy to the use of multiple methodological approaches in scientific inquiry (Morgan, 2014). The rationale for mixed methods research is that whilst some research problems can be tackled via quantitative research, others are better tackled using qualitative research. Therefore, by adopting a mixed methods approach, the strengths of quantitative and qualitative research can be harnessed in a single research project (Creswell, 2014; Morgan, 2014).

Nevertheless, Morgan (2014) cautions researchers to consider the complexities of adopting a mixed methods approach. Indeed, one of the main challenges of mixed methods is how both methods are integrated in a single piece of research (Morgan, 2014). Three main methods for integrating quantitative and qualitative methods have been identified by Creswell (2014) as convergent parallel mixed methods, explanatory sequential mixed methods, and exploratory sequential mixed methods. In *convergent parallel mixed methods,* the researcher combines both quantitative and qualitative data collected at the same time in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem (Creswell, 2014). On the other hand, the *explanatory sequential mixed methods* is used when the researcher collects qualitative data after quantitative research has been conducted in order to provide a clearer understanding of the findings emanating from quantitative research whilst the *exploratory sequential mixed methods* is adopted if the goal is to test the findings emanating from qualitative research in a quantitative research (Creswell, 2014).

In the present research, quantitative methods were used for examining the specific techniques of HRM used in the public and private sector. This is in line with previous studies where a similar research approach has been adopted to examine the techniques of HRM across different organizational or institutional types (e.g Webster & Wood, 2005; Farndale *et al*., 2008; Johnson *et al*., 2009; Croucher *et al*., 2011; Mayrhofer *et al*., 2011; Wood *et al*., 2011; Brewster *et al*., 2014). The essence is to collect data from a large pool of organizations in order to enhance comparison of the HR practices used. Similarly, research on HR practices - employee attitudes relationship is usually quantitative in nature so as to establish a link between the independent and dependent variables (Meyer & Smith, 2000; Edgar & Geare, 2005; Chew & Chan, 2008; Conway & Monks, 2009; Gould-Williams & Mohamed, 2010; Mendelson *et al*., 2011; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Boon & Kalshoven, 2014; Fabi *et al*., 2015; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016); therefore, a similar methodology was adopted in this research.

However, researchers have used quantitative (Budhwar 2001; Boselie *et al*. 2003) and/or qualitative approaches (Budhwar, 2001; Boon *et al*., 2009; Burbach & Royle, 2014; Holm, 2014) to explore the influence of institutions on HRM. Consequently, both quantitative and qualitative methods were used in this research to explore the influence of institutions on HRM in public and private sector. Nevertheless, since this research involves two studies, integrating both methods in this research was by no means straight-forward. First, the convergent parallel mixed methods design (Creswell, 2014) was adopted to integrate quantitative and qualitative data on the influence of institutions on HRM in *study 1.* This was to provide a comprehensive analysis of the influence of institutions on HRM in the public and private sector by utilising quantitative data from many (122) HR managers whilst at the same time rich data from 13 in-depth qualitative interviews were used to provide a deeper insight on how institutions influence HRM in both sectors. Second, the exploratory sequential mixed methods design (Creswell, 2014) was used to integrate the findings from the influence of institutions on HRM with *study 2* since these findings provided directions for context-specific hypotheses for *study 2* (see chapter 6).

In sum, convergent parallel mixed methods design was used to integrate quantitative and qualitative data within *study 1* whilst exploratory sequential mixed methods design was used to integrate quantitative and qualitative data across the two studies.

### 4.3 Research Design

Research design is simply an outline of how a study is conducted. It provides a structure that guides the researcher to collect and analyse data (Bryman & Bell, 2011). It is a plan of the procedures guiding the conduct of research in order to obtain findings that are most genuine (Collis & Hussey, 2003). In selecting a research design for a study, it is important for researchers to determine whether a particular research design will help in providing answers to the research questions at hand (Collis & Hussey, 2003). Therefore, the nature of the research problem or the goal of research is a key factor in selecting a particular research design (Hair *et al*., 2007). Based on the goal of research, three types of research designs can be distinguished as exploratory, descriptive, and causal research designs (Hair *et al*., 2007).

Exploratory research design is appropriate when there is little or no understanding of the research problem at hand (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). This type of research is conducted to provide better knowledge or understanding of the phenomena under investigation. Exploratory research is used especially when the researcher is faced with a research problem that is not properly structured (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The use of exploratory research design suggests the existence of few or no previous studies from which the researcher can seek information to understand the research problem (Collis & Hussey, 2003; Hair *et al*., 2007; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Thus, the goal of exploratory research is not to test hypotheses but to clarify the research problem by revealing insights about the research issue (Hair *et al*., 2007; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). This suggests that exploratory research is a form of preliminary research conducted to provide ideas and insights that will guide the conduct of another study. Although most exploratory studies rely on qualitative approaches, it is also common for quantitative approaches to be adopted in exploratory research to enable the researcher to collect data from a large sample (Hair *et al*., 2007).

Descriptive research on the other hand is appropriate for obtaining data that describes the characteristics of the phenomena of interest to the researcher (Collis & Hussey, 2003; Bryman & Bell, 2011). The focus of this type of research design is on how frequent events occur and whether two or more variables are related (Saunders *et al*., 2012). In descriptive research, the research issue at hand is properly understood and well-structured because of the existence of many previous studies from which the researcher can rely for information (Saunders *et al*., 2012). Hence, through the use of appropriate theory, hypotheses are stated which provide guidance on the variables that need to be measured (Hair *et al*., 2007; Saunders *et al*., 2012). In addition, a structured approach is used for the collection of data on the variables of interest to the researcher. Descriptive research may be either cross-sectional or longitudinal (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

In a *cross-sectional design* (also known as survey design),data is collected at a particular point in time from a sample that is drawn from a large population whilst data collected is then statistically summarised and generalised to the entire population (Hair *et al*., 2007; Bryman & Bell, 2011). It is therefore expected that the sample should be representative of, and comparable to the entire population (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Among the forms of descriptive research, cross-sectional design is commonly adopted by researchers since it enables the researcher to collect data from a large sample only once, which suggests that this type of research can be easily conducted within time and cost constraints (Collis & Hussey, 2003; Hair *et al*., 2007; Bryman & Bell, 2011).

In contrast, a *longitudinal design* seeks to describe events or phenomena over a period of time. Therefore, instead of collecting data from the research elements once, longitudinal studies collect data from the same research elements multiple times (Bryman & Bell, 2011). This type of research design is particularly useful when the variables in the research are affected by time (Hair *et al*., 2007). According to Bryman and Bell (2011), there are two types of longitudinal design known as panel study and cohort study. In a *panel study,* the focus is usually on a sample that is usually nationally drawn for the purposes of data collection on two or more occasions. Thus, in a panel study framework, data may be collected from different elements such as individuals and organizations. In a *cohort study,* the sample is comprised of people with shared characteristics and is rarely used in management research.

Whether a longitudinal study adopts a panel study or cohort study approach, the emphasis of a longitudinal design is that data is collected on the same variables and from the same entities at least twice (Hair *et al*. 2007; Bryman & Bell, 2011). The idea is to keep track of changes in the variables under investigation in the course of time (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Nevertheless, due to time constraints and the cost involved in conducting longitudinal studies, this type of descriptive research design is less frequently used compared to cross-sectional research (Hair *et al*., 2007; Bryman & Bell, 2011).

A third type of research design is causal research design which is appropriate when the researcher is concerned with the issue of causality (Hair *et al*., 2007). Causality entails that a change in one variable results to a corresponding change in another variable. This type of research design usually takes the form of experiments and involves the manipulation of the independent variable in order to establish whether it has effect on the dependent variable (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Similar to descriptive research, causal design is adopted in circumstances where the research issue at hand is clearly understood and well-structured since there exist theories that the researcher can use to determine the direction of the cause and effect of variables (Hair *et al*., 2007). It should be noted that though the three types of research design discussed above are distinct, it does not preclude the use of multiple designs in a single research project.

This research is comprised of two studies that are labelled study 1 and study 2.The aim of study 1 is (a) to explore the influence of institutions on HRM in public and private sector in Nigeria and (b) to examine the specific techniques of HRM used in public and private sector in Nigeria whilst study 2 seeks to examine the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in public and private sector in Nigeria. The underlying nature of the 2 studies required the researcher to approach each of the studies in a different way. Hence different research designs were adopted to guide the conduct of each of these studies. In *study 1,* an exploratory research design was adopted in order to enable the researcher have more understanding of the nature of HRM in public and private sector in Nigeria. Specifically, the issues that were of concern in study 1 were to have a clear understanding of how institutions influence HRM in both sectors as well as the particular techniques used in different HRM domains.

Study 1 is considered exploratory in nature because there is no previous research that has explored the influence of institutions on HRM in the context of the public and private sector in Nigeria. Since the influence of institutions is known to be context-dependent (Brewster & Mayrhofer, 2012), it was necessary to explore this area of research in order to gain more insights for conducting the second study. Again, whilst previous studies have examined the presence of HR practices in organizations in Nigeria (Anakwe, 2002; Okpara & Wynn, 2008; Azolukwam & Perkins, 2009), the specific techniques used in the various domains of HRM based on organizational type remains an unexplored area. Therefore, it was also expedient to examine the techniques of HRM used in public and private sector organizations in Nigeria because the techniques used in managing human resources may determine how employees perceive such practices and the concomitant effects on employee attitudes (Wood & de Menezes, 2011). Therefore, since study 1 was conducted essentially to feed into the second study, it is appropriate to classify it as an exploratory study.

On the other hand, *study 2* of this research can described as descriptive research. This is because the aim was to collect data in order to test the effects of independent variables (HR practices) on dependent variables (employee attitudes) that were of interest to the researcher. Therefore the knowledge from existing research and insights from study 1 enabled the researcher to develop testable hypotheses for this study. As a descriptive research, the cross-sectional research design was considered appropriate for study 2 since it allowed the researcher to collect data from a sample that was drawn from a large population on just one occasion. Moreover, since the aim of this study was not to establish causality whilst at the same time the researcher had no control over the research entities, the cross-sectional research design was deemed appropriate. Indeed, this is the type of research design that is commonly used in previous studies examining the effect of HR practices on employee attitudes (see chapter 3).

As noted by Bryman & Bell (2011), an important aspect of research design relates to the level of analysis. In management research, the principal unit of analysis can be individual, groups, organizations, and societies. In *study 1* of this research, the unit of analysis is the organization and involves the collection of data from the HR manager in each organization studied who provided responses on behalf of their organization. In *study 2* of this research, the unit of analysis is the individual which enabled the researcher to collect data from employees within public and private sector organizations that were considered for this research. The specific details of how each of the two studies were conducted in terms of sampling, methods and data analysis shall form the discussions in the subsequent sections. Meanwhile, the ethical issues that were considered in the course of the research are presented after the research designs for the two studies are discussed.

### 4.4 How I conducted Study 1

In this section, the procedures that were followed to conduct study 1 are presented. This include a discussion on sampling, participants, data collection methods and the analysis of data. Each of these topics shall be covered in the sub-sections below.

#### 4.4.1 The Sample for Study 1

It is usually not possible for researchers to study an entire population in a piece of research. This is especially when the target population of the study is so large that time and cost constraints would not permit the researcher to cover the whole population. As a result, sampling becomes necessary as it allows the researcher to select units of the population that will form part of the research (Hair *et al*., 2007). In this study, a stratified sampling technique based on the size of the organization, location, industry and sector was adopted. The target population in this study comprised of public and private sector organizations in Nigeria. However, since it was not possible to study all public and private organizations in Nigeria, the study was limited to organizations employing at least 50 employees. This criteria was based on the expectation that organizations employing at least 50 employees in Nigeria would have formal HR practices and policies as opposed to smaller ones that operate strictly based on informal practices (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001). In addition, based on the context of the study which is characterised by the dominance of small enterprises (Ogunyomi & Bruning, 2016), sampling organizations with 50 employees was considered appropriate in order to cover medium-sized enterprises.

Once this criteria was set, it was up to the researcher to define another criteria for sampling based on location. This was useful because it was practically impossible for the researcher to include all organizations in Nigeria with up to 50 employees in the study. Therefore, the study was limited to organizations located in 5 geo-political zones in Nigeria and the federal capital territory. Although there are 6 geo-political zones in Nigeria, at the time the research was conducted, there were cases of terrorist attacks in one of the geo-political zones which posed a security threat to researcher. Thus, only 5 geo-political zones and the federal capital territory were considered as research sites for the study. The researcher then selected 2 major cities in each zone to feature in the study. Whilst these cities have a concentration of industries in each zone and by extension in Nigeria, the federal capital (Abuja) has a concentration of government ministries, departments and agencies.

Hence, the cities in Nigeria where the research was conducted include: Lagos and Abeokuta (South-West); Port Harcourt and Asaba (South-South); Enugu and Owerri (South-East); Jos and Makurdi (North-Central); Kano and Gusau (North-West); and Abuja which is the federal capital territory. Therefore, in total, the research was conducted in 11 cities in Nigeria. The cities in each zone are in close proximity to each other and linked with transportation network which helped in reducing the logistical problems associated with conducting research in Nigeria (Okpara & Wynn, 2008). Most importantly, by selecting the major cities in different parts of Nigeria, it was expected that the results generated from the study shall be a truer reflection of the Nigerian context. This sampling procedure has been considered appropriate by other researchers when researching HRM in Nigeria (Okpara & Wynn, 2008).

The next stage in the sampling process was to identify organizations in the 11 cities that met the criteria for participation in the study with a view to inviting them to participate in the research. Consequently, a national directory of organizations containing the telephone numbers of public and private organizations in Nigeria was used to obtain contact details of organizations located in these cities. The focus was on key industries in Nigeria: banking/financial services, education, health, manufacturing, ICT/media, hotels, transport, as well as government ministries, departments and agencies.

Nevertheless, only indigenous private organizations were considered for the study which means that subsidiaries of multinational companies were excluded from the study. This is because the practices of multinational companies are usually a reflection of their parent-company practices and may not be comparable with those of local organizations (Kostova & Roth, 2002; Björkman *et al*., 2007). Moreover, the literature on the segmented business system suggests the existence of diversity in practices between indigenous private firms and public sector organizations in African contexts (Wood & Frynas, 2006; Bischoff & Wood, 2012). Therefore, it was considered important to test this assumption within the context of Nigeria. Meanwhile, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) were not included in the research since the focus of the research was to examine the nature of HRM in the public and private sector. Indeed, NGOs are neither public nor private sector organizations and are usually classified under what is known as the third sector (Courtney, 2013). Thus, based on the working definition of the public and private sector adopted in this research (see section 1.3 in chapter one), NGOs were excluded.

For the public sector organizations, only those owned by the federal government were considered for the study. This is due to the fact that organizations owned by the federal government are more likely to have a national outlook and therefore typical of the public sector in Nigeria. Moreover, states and local governments may have influence on how state and local government owned organizations operate respectively, which may not provide a uniform level of analysis. Accordingly, the public organizations considered for this research were those established by via an Act of the National Assembly of Nigeria and therefore owned by the federal government.

In sum, in order to participate in the study, organizations were expected to meet five main conditions which include: (i) must be either a public organization owned by the federal government or an indigenous-private organization (ii) must have up to 50 employees (iii) be located within the 11 cities selected for the research (iv) the organization should be listed on the directory and with an active telephone number (v) the organization should accept to participate in the study. Thus, organizations that met all five criteria stood an equal chance of participating in the study. Based on these criteria, organizations were invited via telephone to participate in the study. These organizations were informed of the objectives of the research as well as how the research would be conducted in order for them to determine whether or not they were willing to participate in the research. Out of 344 organizations invited to participate in the study, 228 accepted to participate in the study, representing an acceptance rate of 66.3%. This number (228) therefore represents the sample size for the study[[5]](#footnote-5).

#### 4.4.2 Participants for study 1

The participants for the study comprised of HR managers or managers occupying similar positions. In each organization, the HR manager (or their equivalent; hereafter referred to as HR managers) participated in the study on behalf of their organization. This is because the issues under consideration in the study were under the purview of HR managers who were in a better position to provide answers to them. In the field of HRM, it is common for researchers to seek information from HR managers on the influence of institutions on HRM (Budhwar, 2001; Boon *et al*., 2009) or on the specific techniques of HRM adopted in their organizations (Webster & Wood, 2005; Wood *et al*., 2011; Brewster *et al*., 2014). Therefore, it was expedient for this study to adopt the approach used by other researchers in conducting similar studies. Although the researcher was granted access to the various organizations, it was necessary to request the consent of those who were actually participating in the research.

Consequently, after gaining access to the research sites, the next stage was to embark on visits to these research sites in order to meet with the participants. The aim of these visits were to explain to the participants what the research was all about, after which the information sheet with details of the research was handed to them to study and make up their minds about participation in the research. A follow-up visit was undertaken after 2-3 days to find out if the prospective participants had decided to participate in the research. In all the organizations that had accepted to participate in the research, the HR managers in these organizations also accepted to participate in the research on behalf of their organizations.

Since the field work involved much travel throughout the length and breadth of the country, it was impossible for the researcher to personally visit each research site. Consequently, Research Assistants (RA’s) were recruited to assist in the field work. Therefore, as part of the field work, the RA’s assisted the researcher in recruiting the participants for the study. These research assistants were recruited through a reputable research agency in Nigeria. The essence was to recruit RA’s that had prior knowledge about conducting research and who understood the terrain that the research was conducted in order to make it easier for them to identify the organizations. In total, 14 RA’s were recruited to assist in the field work. Although the RA’s recruited were experienced, the researcher provided them training to enable them perform their job effectively. Specifically, the training focused on issues such as the purpose of the research; the contact person in each organization they visited; the potential participants; how to approach participants. Since the RA’s were to also assist in data collection, it was necessary to train them on how to handle data, among other issues. It is worth stating that the RA’s were remunerated by the researcher.

#### 4.4.3 Data Collection for study 1

Two methods of data collection used for this study were questionnaires and interviews. Each of the methods shall be discussed in the next sections; with the discussion focused on the aspect of the study in which each method was used, why it was considered appropriate and how the method was used. I shall begin with the questionnaire method and then the interview method shall follow.

##### 4.4.3.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire method was used for collecting data on the influence of institutions on HRM and on the specific techniques of HRM used in public and private organizations. This method of data collection was considered appropriate because it allowed the researcher to collect data from many participants within a short period of time and in a cost effective manner. This method was very easy to use; especially with the involvement of RA’s in the data collection process. This meant that the researcher was not necessarily required to personally visit all the research sites for the purpose of data collection. This method was also convenient for the respondents as it enabled them to go through the questions at their convenient time before answering them. They could also answer part of the questions and return later to continue with the remaining questions.

###### **4.4.3.1.1 Structure of Questionnaire for Study 1**

The questionnaire used for the study was a self-completion questionnaire which means that respondents were expected to answer the questions in the questionnaire themselves (Bryman & Bell 2011). The cover page of the questionnaire contained the information and instructions on who and how to complete the questionnaire. The various sections of the questionnaire were described together with the information required from the respondents. In order to ensure informed consent from the respondents, it was boldly printed on the questionnaire that participation in the study was voluntary and that by completing and returning the questionnaire, respondents were consenting to participate.

The questionnaire sought information from respondents on 3 main issues. Part 1 required background information on the participating organizations in which the respondents were expected to indicate the industry, sector and size of the participating organization. Industry in this research was defined in terms of the activities performed by the organization such as manufacturing or banking/financial services. In addition, respondents were required to indicate whether their organization was a private sector or public sector organization by selecting one of these options. The size of the organization was measured in terms of the number of employees. The options provided ranged from ‘50-99’ employees to ‘above 500’ employees, from which the respondents were expected to select one option. In line with the objectives of the study, the remaining parts of the questionnaire sought information on the specific techniques of HRM used in their organizations and the institutional influences on HRM policies in their organizations.

*Questions on Specific Techniques of HRM*

In order to examine the specific techniques of HRM used in public and private organizations in Nigeria, the questionnaire required respondents to indicate whether or not their organization used particular techniques in each of the four HRM domains that are of interest in this study. These were recruitment and selection, training, employee benefits and employee participation. In each of these HRM domains, respondents were expected to provide responses to questions regarding the use of specific techniques in their organization. The response options for each question were ‘Yes’, ‘No’ and ‘Don’t know’. Respondents were expected to pick only one response that reflected their response to each question. The questions used in this section were taken from the questionnaire used by Wood and colleagues (Webster & Wood, 2005; Wood *et al*., 2011) to study the specific techniques of HRM in Mozambique[[6]](#footnote-6).

Details of the questions asked in each HRM domain are provided below.

1. *Recruitment and Selection:* In order to examine the techniques of recruitment in public and private organizations, respondents were expected to provide answers to questions on how different categories of staff – management, technical, clerical, and manual staff – were recruited. For instance, questions on the recruitment of management staff include: ‘Are management staff recruited internally?’; ‘Are management staff recruited by word of mouth?’; ‘Are management staff recruited via recruitment agencies?’; ‘Are management staff recruited via advertisement?’ and ‘Are management staff recruited via other systems?’ These questions were repeated for each category staff to enable the researcher obtain information on how recruitment was done for each category of staff. This same approach was used to ask questions on selection for different categories of staff. For instance, the questions on the selection of management staff were: ‘Are management staff selected without interview?’; ‘Are management staff selected by filling in an application form?’; ‘Are management staff selected by filling in an application form and interview?’; ‘Are psychometric tests used in selecting management staff?’ and ‘Are management staff selected via other systems?’ Again, these questions were repeated for the different category of staff to enable the researcher gain information on how staff were selected in different categories.
2. *Training:* The questions on training focused on the types of training the organization offered to employees. These questions include: ‘Do you make use of informal workplace based training?’; ‘Do you make use of formal workplace based training (uncertified)?’; ‘Do you make use of formal workplace based training?’; ‘Do you make use of sponsored courses with outside training body (technical)?’; ‘Do you make use of sponsored courses with outside training body (administrative)?’; ‘Do you make use of sponsored courses with outside training body (managerial)?’ and ‘Do you make use of other system of training?’.
3. *Employee Benefits:* To gain insights on the types of employee benefits offered in public and private organizations in Nigeria, respondents were expected to provide answers to questions on the specific benefits provided. These questions include: ‘Are productivity awards provided in your organization?’; ‘Is overtime paid in your organization?’; ‘Is severance package provided in your organization?’; ‘Are breaks during workday available in your organization?’; ‘Is paid vacation available in your organization?’; ‘Is paid sick leave available in your organization?’; ‘Is health insurance available in your organization?’ and ‘Are there other employee benefits available in your organization?’
4. *Employee Participation:* Questions on employee participation focused on two forms of participation namely, information sharing and employee consultation (Wood *et al*., 2011) that were of interest to this research. To gain insights on the techniques of information sharing in public and private organizations, the following questions were asked: ‘Does your organization make use of notice boards?’; ‘Does your organization make use of team briefing/cascade briefing?’; ‘Does your organization make use of shop steward/representative briefing?’; ‘Does your organization make use of organizational newsletter?’ and ‘Does your organization use other systems of information sharing?’ In order to obtain information on the methods of employee consultation, the following questions were asked: ‘Does your organization make use of suggestion boxes?’; ‘Does your organization make use of workplace surveys?’; ‘Does your organization make use of briefings where feedback is solicited?’ and ‘Does your organization make use of other system of employee consultation?’

*Questions on institutional influences on HRM*

To gain insights on the influence of institutions on HRM, managers were expected to indicate the extent to which each of ‘national labour laws’, ‘trade unions’, ‘professional bodies’, ‘vocational education set-up’, ‘international institutions’ and ‘government policy’ influenced HRM policies and practices in their organizations. These institutional factors were drawn from the literature on institutional influence on HRM in developing countries generally (Budhwar & Debrah, 2001) and Nigeria in particular (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001). The responses to these questions were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1-Not at all influential to 5-Extremely influential. As I shall show in later sections, qualitative interviews were also conducted with managers in order to have a better understanding of the influence of institutions on HRM policies in public and private sector.

###### **4.4.3.1.2 Questionnaire Administration for Study 1**

Prior to administering the questionnaires on the entire sample, the questionnaires were initially piloted on a small sample of HR managers that were part of the larger sample. The essence was to get feedback from them on whether the wording of the questionnaire was appropriate for the Nigerian context. If this was not the case, the researcher would restructure the questionnaire as appropriate. The researcher got feedback from the respondents indicating that the wording and structure of the questionnaire was appropriate. Therefore, the questionnaires were administered to the respondents in its original form as there was no need to alter it. Because there were no changes to the version of the questionnaire piloted and the fact that the sample was drawn from the larger sample of the study, the responses to the piloted questionnaires formed part of the data collected for the study. It is worth stating that the researcher compared these initial responses with the subsequent responses and found nothing to suggest that the questions were answered differently and neither was there anything to suggest that the respondents did not understand the wording of the questionnaire.

There are many ways of administering questionnaires ranging from postal to self-administration where the researcher hands the questionnaire directly to the respondents (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Given the context of the research, particularly the poor postal service in Nigeria (Okpara & Wynn, 2008), the most feasible way to administer the questionnaires was via the drop-off and pick-up method (Steele *et al*., 2001). This method of questionnaire administration is common when conducting research in Nigeria (Anakwe, 2002; Okpara & Wynn, 2008). Questionnaires were administered by RA’s who visited research sites to meet with the participants during breaks or at an appropriate time scheduled with them.

The participants were given a period of one week to complete the questionnaires after which the RA’s returned to the organization to pick them up. In order to enhance a high response rate, the period of completing the questionnaires, where necessary, was extended to two weeks to give the participants more time to complete and return them. Whilst the researcher could not be in every site at the same time, the work of the RA’s was monitored via telephone communication with them in order to be abreast with the progress they were making whilst challenges encountered were identified and tackled promptly. In addition, where it was possible, the researcher undertook random visits to the research sites to monitor the work of the RA’s[[7]](#footnote-7). Further, as part of the job description of the RA’s, they were required to submit a weekly report of their activities to the researcher.

In order to enhance confidentiality of the responses, all completed questionnaires were returned to the RA’s in a sealed envelope that was earlier provided to the participants together with the questionnaire. The returned questionnaires were then initially kept by the RA’s in a box-like bag that was provided to them by the researcher for use during the field work. These bags had locks and a small opening that could only be used to drop the sealed questionnaires. This means that once the sealed questionnaires were dropped in the bag, only the researcher who had keys to the locks could have access to the questionnaires. These questionnaires were in turn handed over to the researcher who kept records of the questionnaires returned and subsequently stored them in a safe place at a base the researcher maintained whilst on field work in Nigeria. The questionnaires were then taken to Sheffield by the researcher for coding into SPSS computer programme for the purpose of data analysis. The computer onto which the questionnaires were coded was password-protected such that only the researcher had access to the data. Meanwhile, the hard copies of the questionnaires were destroyed once the coding of responses was completed (see section 4.6 for a detailed discussion of ethical considerations for the research).

##### 4.4.3.2 Interviews for Study 1

A second method of data collection that was used for study 1 was qualitative interviews. These interviews were aimed at gaining a deeper understanding of how institutional mechanisms influence HRM in public and private sector in Nigeria. Interviews were focused on HR managers in public and private sector banks and hospitals. The HR managers who participated in the interviews were among those who responded to the questionnaires. Banks and hospitals were considered for this part of the research because there was the need to include those industries with both public and private sector organizations so that any differences found between the organizations would not be due to differences in the industry but as a result of the public or private sector status of the organizations. Moreover, the strategic importance of banks and hospitals to the Nigerian economy was another reason for focusing on these two industries. The banking industry is considered as one of the most developed industries in Nigeria (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001) and is at the heart of economic development of the country by mobilising financial resources for industrial development of Nigeria (Nzotta & Okereke, 2009).

The health industry is equally important as it caters for the healthcare needs of the teeming population of Nigeria (Amaghionyeodiwe, 2008) since development cannot take place effectively in the face of ill-health (Asuzu, 2004). The prevalence of disease in many African countries, underscores the need for strong and vibrant health institutions (Asuzu, 2004). Thus, research involving the health industry is especially important in such contexts if the cliché that ‘health is wealth’ is true. Theoretically, banks and hospitals operate in industries that are identified as being highly institutionalized (Deephouse, 1999; Scott, 2008); therefore, it was expected that any differences in the influence of institutions on HRM amongst them should be largely as a result of their public or private status rather than the industry in which they operate.

There are public and private sector banks (Adesoye & Atanda, 2012; Gomes *et al*., 2012) and hospitals (Polsa *et al*., 2011) in Nigeria that can provide the basis for comparison in a research such as the present one. Hence, in selecting the particular banks and hospitals to participate in this part of the research, the underlying criteria was to select in each industry public and private organizations that were comparable in terms of structure and the nature of services provided. For the public sector banks[[8]](#footnote-8), the focus was on those that offered retail banking services to both private and institutional customers as opposed to those whose services were offered to only institutional customers. This is because since HRM is important for achieving customer satisfaction (Chand, 2010), the nature of HRM may reflect the kind of customers organizations serve. Moreover, selecting public sector banks on the basis of this criteria was to ensure that they were comparable to the conventional private commercial banks in Nigeria.

The selection of private sector banks was based on those that provided both retail and investment banking services that served both private and institutional customers just as the public sector ones selected for the research. But beyond the nature of services provided, other criteria for selecting private sector banks were based on stability and longevity in order for them to be comparable with those in the public sector. Based on these criteria, 3 public and private sector banks were each selected to participate in this part of the study; which means that the HR managers in each of these organizations participated in these interviews.

Efforts were also made to ensure that there were commonalities between the public and private sector hospitals that participated in these interviews. There are three classes of federal government-owned public hospitals in Nigeria namely teaching hospitals, specialist hospitals and federal medical centres (Polsa *et al*., 2011). However, it was the latter that was the focus of this research. This is because whilst teaching hospitals combine healthcare, research and teaching in one institution and may not be considered as conventional hospitals that can be comparable to private hospitals in Nigeria, the specialist hospitals operate on a niche-basis by specialising in only a particular area of healthcare such as psychiatry or orthopaedics (Polsa *et al*., 2011). The federal medical centres on the other hand provide services in all major areas of healthcare and can be better comparable to the private sector ones (Amaghionyeodiwe, 2008; Polsa *et al*., 2011). Accordingly, 3 federal medical centres were selected for participation in this part of research. The selection of these 3 was based on degree of the geographical coverage of the services they provide. Because there are no federal medical centres in each state in Nigeria, some of these centres were established to cater for the health needs of multiple states (FMOH, 2014). Therefore, the 3 selected were those whose services serve the healthcare needs of different states in Nigeria.

In terms of the private hospitals, the criteria was to ensure that they were comparable to the public sector ones in terms of structure. Therefore, private hospitals considered for this part of the research were those that operated a divisionalized, compartmentalized and decentralized structure as is the case with the public hospitals and whose staff strength was up to 200 employees. On this basis, 4 private hospitals[[9]](#footnote-9) were selected for participation in the qualitative interviews. Altogether, HR managers in 13 organizations participated in the qualitative interviews comprising of 6 in the public sector and 7 in the private sector. Since HR managers in these organizations also responded to questionnaires in this research, the access negotiated in these organizations covered this aspect of the research as well whilst the information sheet distributed to HR managers in these organizations also requested their participation in interviews in addition to completing the questionnaires. It is worthy to state that it was in these 13 organizations that *study 2* (to be described in later sections) was conducted. The characteristics of these 13 organizations are provided in table 4.1 below.

Table 4. 1 Characteristics of Organizations Participating in Managerial Interviews and Employee Surveys

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **S/No** | **Name** | **Industry**  **(Banks/Hospitals)** | **Sector**  **(Public/Private)** | **Approx. Number of Employees** | **Presence of Unionization** |
| 1 | PRB1 | Bank | Private | 2,061 | None |
| 2 | PRB2 | Bank | Private | 2,974 | None |
| 3 | PRB3 | Bank | Private | 1,886 | None |
| 4 | PUB1 | Bank | Public | 1,107 | Yes |
| 5 | PUB2 | Bank | Public | 210 | Yes |
| 6 | PUB3 | Bank | Public | 914 | Yes |
| 7 | PRH1 | Hospital | Private | 242 | None |
| 8 | PRH2 | Hospital | Private | 305 | None |
| 9 | PRH3 | Hospital | Private | 218 | None |
| 10 | PRH4 | Hospital | Private | 253 | None |
| 11 | PUH1 | Hospital | Public | 1,356 | Yes |
| 12 | PUH2 | Hospital | Public | 863 | Yes |
| 13 | PUH3 | Hospital | Public | 1,473 | Yes |

Source: Based on information from HR managers

The qualitative interviews were semi-structured which provided the researcher an initial template to follow in asking questions to the respondents but at the same time allowed the researcher the flexibility to ask follow-up questions on issues that arose in the course of the interview. At the same time, it allowed the respondents the freedom to digress to other issues they considered important whilst providing answers to the questions asked. The questions for the semi-structured interviews revolved around DiMaggio & Powell’s (1983) coercive, mimetic and normative institutional mechanisms and their influence on HRM (Paauwe & Boselie, 2003). The aim was to find out if HRM in public and private sector organizations in Nigeria was influenced by similar isomorphic pressures and how organizations in these sectors responded to such pressures. Example of interview questions that were reflective of coercive, mimetic and normative institutional mechanisms respectively include: ‘how do labour laws influence HRM policies in your organization?’; ‘does your organization adopt HRM policies and practices because others in the industry have adopted same?’ and ‘does your organization insist on recruiting HRM personnel with specific educational background?’ (Boselie *et al*., 2003; Paauwe & Boselie, 2007).

These interviews were conducted by the researcher mainly on a face-to-face basis with the HR managers in their work environments. However, where it was not possible to use the face-to-face approach due to logistical reasons, the telephone method was used for conducting some of the interviews. Thus, out of the 13 semi-structured interviews conducted, 9 interviews were conducted via the face-to-face method whilst the telephone method was used to conduct the remaining 4 interviews. Nevertheless, the responses to the interviews conducted face-to-face were compared with those conducted via telephone and there was no indication to suggest that the interview method influenced the responses. Thus, the advantages of using both methods were harnessed in this research. Finally, the time for each interview was between 45 minutes to 1 hour. Of course, this time was enough in each case to tap the views of interviewees on the issues of interest in the research.

#### 4.4.4 Data Analysis for Study 1

Due to the objectives of the study and the nature of the data collected for the study, the data analysis was divided into quantitative data analysis and qualitative data analysis (see the next chapter for details). Whilst the quantitative aspect dealt with analysing whether there were differences in the influence of institutions on HRM in the public and private sector and whether there were differences in the specific techniques of HR practices used in the public and private sector, the qualitative bit dealt with gaining a deeper understanding of how institutions influence HRM in public and private sector. Details of the methods of data analysis are presented below.

##### 4.4.4.1 Quantitative Data Analysis for Study 1

In order to examine the influence of institutions on HRM in public and private sector, the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used. This method of analysis is appropriate when the aim is to test for differences between two or more groups when the dependent variable is a continuous variable (Dawson, 2016). In this study, the dependent variables (institutional variables) were measured on a 5-point Likert scale whilst sector, industry and size were categorical variables and the aim was to test for differences in the influence of institutions on HRM in the public and private sector. Therefore, ANCOVA was considered appropriate.

To examine the specific techniques of HRM used in public and private sector organizations, the analysis procedure used by Wood *et al.* (2011) in their Mozambican study was adopted for this research. This involved the use of descriptive statistics to examine the specific techniques used in each domain of HRM across the whole sample and within each industry and sector. Quantitative content analysis (Krippendorff, 2004) was used for analysing the open-ended responses on the techniques of HRM used. Meanwhile, logistic regression was used to examine the effect of industry, sector and size on each technique of HRM.

Logistic regression was found appropriate as a method of analysis since it is used for testing for differences between two or more groups when the dependent variable is a binary variable (Dawson, 2016). In this study, since responses to the questions on the specific techniques of HRM were based on ‘Yes’ or ‘No’ options, and the aim was to test for differences in the use of HRM techniques between the public and private sector, logistic regression was considered appropriate as a method of data analysis. Meanwhile, following the example in Wood *et al*. (2011), only valid responses were included in the data analysis, meaning that missing data and ‘Don’t Know’ responses were excluded. Details of quantitative data analysis for *study 1* are provided in chapter 5.

##### 4.4.4.2 Qualitative Data Analysis for Study 1

The method of data analysis used for analysing qualitative data for *study 1* in this research was thematic analysis. This method of qualitative data analysis entails identifying, examining and recording patterns from the data that describe the issues that are important in answering the research question (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Bryman & Bell, 2011). The method provides the foundation for much of qualitative data analysis and helps in presenting findings from qualitative research in a simplified manner (Miles & Huberman, 1994). It is a transparent procedure of qualitative data analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) that is amenable to the use of computer software in qualitative data analysis. In this research, the six-stage procedure for conducting thematic analysis proposed by Braun & Clarke (2006) was used. This procedure is described below.

1. **Familiarization with the data:** This is the first stage of thematic analysis and requires the researcher to be acquainted with the data they are analysing. The stage involves taking note of the salient issues in the data in order to identify patterns that are likely to emerge from the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Since the interviews were personally conducted by the researcher, it enabled the researcher to gain initial knowledge of the data. Additionally, through the process of transcription, the researcher took note of the patterns that emerged from the data and was followed by another phase where the researcher read the transcripts severally and became immersed with the data.
2. **Generation of codes:** After familiarizing with the data and identifying interesting areas from the data, the next stage was to generate codes in order to enhance data reduction (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Braun & Clarke, 2006). This process can be done manually via colour coding or through the use of software in order to highlight patterns in the data. The latter approach was adopted for this study whereby the transcribed data was uploaded onto Nvivo 11 software in order to aid data analysis. Through open coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2006), the researcher searched for and coded concepts that reflected the phenomena under investigation whilst axial coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2006) enabled the researcher to establish some linkages among the initial codes. Indeed, the process of coding was guided by sensitizing concepts derived from the literature as an initial point of departure, suggesting that the knowledge of a priori theory provided the researcher with the direction in which to look (Johnson & Duberley, 2015).
3. **Identification of themes:** After codes were generated, the next stage was to organize the coded expressions in order to form themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This required the researcher to analyse the link among codes so that themes would be created. Thus, the codes were sorted whilst latent themes (Miles & Huberman, 1994) were created that reflected both existing and emerging themes.
4. **Reviewing themes:** This stage involved reviewing and refining the identified themes in order to come up with more meaningful themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Hence, the themes earlier identified were carefully analysed such that themes without sufficient supporting data were discarded whilst other themes were merged to produce themes that were more meaningful.
5. **Defining and renaming themes:** This stage involved providing meaning to the themes identified and indicating how the themes were relevant to the research question at hand (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The themes were then linked to the theoretical constructs of institutional theory whilst emerging themes were defined based on the context of the study. Since this study involved a comparison of institutional influences on HRM in public and private sector, the defined themes were then grouped into public and private sector whilst industry – banks and hospitals – provided a sub-category for analysis. This enabled the researcher to compare the responses from both sectors using a contrast matrix (Miles & Huberman, 1994) in order to identify areas of convergence and divergence based on views expressed by the interviewees.
6. **Producing final report:** After the themes had been defined, the final stage was to produce the report of the analysis in line with the research objectives. This entailed providing a coherent narrative of the results obtained from the thematic analysis in a manner that would be easy for the reader to comprehend (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Hence, in presenting the results of this analysis in chapter 5, efforts were made to present the views of public and private sector HR managers side by side in order to enhance ease of comparison of their views whilst quotes that were typical of the views expressed by these managers were presented in order to link their responses to the research question.

### 4.5 How I conducted Study 2

In this section, the procedures that were followed to conduct study 2 are presented. This includes a discussion of sampling, participants, data collection methods and the analysis of data. Each of these issues will be covered in the sub-sections below.

#### 4.5.1 The Sample for Study 2

This study was conducted in the 13 organizations comprising of public and private banks and hospitals described in section 4.4.3.2above. Therefore, the population of the study was comprised of employees in these organizations. Since it was not possible to study all employees in these organizations, a sample size of 1000 employees was drawn from these organizations. The idea was to sample 250 employees from each category of public banks, private banks, public hospitals, and private hospitals respectively, in order to ensure that each category had an equal number of employees sampled. The decision to set the sample size at 1000 employees was based on the method of data analysis to be employed in analysing data from the study (Hair *et al*., 2007). Indeed, Bryman & Bell (2011) suggest that researchers should take cognisance of the non-response rate whilst setting the sample size for a study. Therefore, it was expected that a response rate of at least 40% would be achieved thereby resulting in 400 useable responses that would be used for data analysis.

Since this study sought to test the mediation effect of procedural justice and HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes as well as the moderation effect of sector, moderated mediation analysis was considered as the appropriate method of data analysis (Preacher *et al*., 2007; Dawson, 2014). Based on this method of data analysis, a sample size of 400 is suggested in order to detect high statistical power (Dawson, 2014). Through the use of simple random sampling method (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Saunders *et al*., 2012), employees in the participating organizations were selected to participate in the study. This sampling method was feasible in the context of the study through the cooperation of HR managers who were also participants in *study 1* of this research.

#### 4.5.2 Participants for Study 2

The participants for this study consisted of non-managerial employees in 13 organizations in Nigeria comprising of public and private sector banks and hospitals. The participants in banks comprised of employees in banking operations and marketing whilst the participants in hospitals comprised of clinical staff and hospital administration staff. These participants were comprised of non-managerial employees, which means that managers were excluded from this part of the research. Participants in each organization were accessed through the HR managers who also assisted the researcher in identifying the participants. Once access to the participants was granted, the RA’s who conducted field work in *study 1* approached the participants during break on behalf of the researcher. An information sheet with details of the research was given to each participant whilst requesting them to voluntarily participate in the study. The participants were given 2-3 days to make up their minds on whether or not they were willing to participate in the research, after which the RA’s returned to collect data from the participants.

#### 4.5.3 Data Collection for Study 2

The method of data collection for this research was the questionnaire. The cover page of the questionnaire contained instructions on how to complete the questionnaire. It was stated explicitly on the cover page that participation in the study was voluntary and that by completing and returning questionnaires, respondents were consenting to participate in the study. Just like in *study 1,* these questionnaires were printed and administered to the participants in their workplaces via the drop-off and pick-up method (Steele *et al*., 2001). This method of questionnaire administration was considered appropriate based on the context of the study (Okpara & Wynn, 2008). For ease of identification and coding, questionnaires for public banks, private banks, public hospitals and private hospitals were coded as PRB, PUB, PUH and PRH respectively. Since the questionnaires were self-completion in nature, respondents were given at least one week to complete them whilst RA’s returned to collect completed questionnaires from the respondents. Completed questionnaires were returned to the RA’s in sealed envelopes that were distributed alongside the questionnaires whilst the method of handling returned questionnaires was the same as those described in *study 1.*

#### 4.5.4 Measures for Study 2

The constructs for this study were training, employee benefits, employee participation, HR attributions, organizational commitment, job satisfaction and procedural justice. The measures for each construct are described below.

*Training:* Training was measured using an 8-item measure of training taken from Meyer & Smith (2000)[[10]](#footnote-10). This measure of training has high reliability and is aimed at tapping employee perceptions of training offered in their organization. Responses range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Example of items include: “the training I received when I joined the organization was sufficient”; “my further training was sufficient or appropriate for that time”; I think my organization places the right amount of emphasis or importance on training”.

*Employee Benefits:* This was measured using a 7-item measure of employee benefits taken from Meyer & Smith (2000)[[11]](#footnote-11). This measure of employee benefits has high reliability and is aimed at tapping employee perceptions of employee benefits offered by their organization. Responses range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Example of items include: “I am satisfied with the amount or value of the benefits my organization offers”; “the benefits at my organization are much better than those at other similar organizations, in terms of value or amount”; “In general, the benefits at my organization are much better than those at other similar organization”.

*Employee Participation:* Employee participation was measured using a 4-item measure of participation taken from Sun *et al*. (2007). This measures employee perceptions of direct participation in their organization. Responses range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Items include: “employees are often asked by their superiors to participate in decisions affecting their work”; “individuals are often asked to make decisions concerning their work”; “employees are often provided the opportunity to make suggestions about the way work is done”; “superiors often keep open communication with employees”.

*HR Attribution:* This is a measure of employees’ perception of why their organization provides the HR practices that they do. This measure was taken from Nishii *et al*'s. (2008) 5-item measure of HR attribution. These attributions for the ‘’why’’ of HR practices include: (1) “my present organization provides *HR practices* in order to help employees deliver quality services to customers”; (2) “my present organization provides *HR practices* so that employees will feel valued and respected – improve employee well-being”; (3) “my present organization provides *HR practices* in order to try to keep cost down”; (4) “my present organization provides *HR practices* in order to get the most out of workers”; (5) “my present organization provides *HR practices* in order to comply with demands from trade unions”. Because employees may have different attributions for different HR practices (Nishii *et al*., 2008), these five HR attributions were measured against each of training, employee benefits and employee participation. In doing so, the term *HR practices* was replaced with the particular HR practice in question. Whilst attribution 1 & 2 measured “commitment-focused HR attribution”*,* attribution 3 & 4 measured “control-focused HR attribution” whilst attribution 5 measured “union compliance HR attribution” (Nishii *et al*., 2008). It is the aggregation of the various attributions across the 3 HR practices that form each construct of HR attribution (Nishii *et al*., 2008).

*Organizational Commitment:* Organizational commitment was measured using a three-component measure of organizational commitment developed by Meyer *et al*. (1993). The instrument has 6 items measuring each of affective, normative and continuance commitment. Responses range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Example of items reflecting the three forms of commitment respectively include: “I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization”; “this organization deserves my loyalty”; “right now staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire”.

*Job Satisfaction:* Job satisfaction was measured using a short version of Brayfield & Rothe's (1951) measure of job satisfaction. This measure of job satisfaction is short, easy to complete and provides an index of job satisfaction. As noted by Judge & Klinger (2007), it has been widely used in previous research with high reliability and anchored from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Example of items include: “most days I am enthusiastic about my work; “I feel fairly satisfied with my present job”.

*Procedural Justice:* This was measured using a 7-item of procedural justice developed by Moorman (1991). This measure of procedural justice is very easy to understand and has been validated across different contexts (Aryee *et al*., 2004). The responses to this measure range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Example of items include: “my present organization has procedures designed to collect accurate information necessary for decision making”; “my present organization has procedures designed to have all the sides affected by decisions represented”; “my present organization has procedures designed to hear concerns of all those affected by decisions”.

#### 4.5.5 Data Analysis for study 2

In order to test hypotheses for this study, multiple regression analysis was used to test the direct relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes whilst mediation analysis was used to test the mediation effect of procedural justice and HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes. On the other hand, moderated mediation analysis was used to test the moderation effect of sector on the mediation effect of procedural justice and HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes. Details of data analysis for *study 2* are provided in chapter 7. Meanwhile, table 4.2 overleaf presents the summary of data sources, showing the samples and the response rates and how the data sources are linked, followed by a discussion of the ethical considerations for the research in the subsequent section.

Table 4. 2 Summary of Data Sources

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Description** | **Number** |
| **Study 1** | |  |
| 1 | **Number of questionnaires administered** (1 HR managers each from public and private organisations) | 228 |
|  | * Number of questionnaire returned | 126 |
|  | * Number of questionnaire with complete information | 122 |
|  | * Number of firms providing incomplete data | 4 |
| 2 | **Interviews** (sample drawn from firms above)   * Number of HR managers/firms interviewed (banks & hospitals) | 13 |
| **Study 2** | |  |
| 1 | **Number of questionnaires administered to non-managerial employees** (Sample drawn from 13 banks & hospitals that participated in managerial interviews) | 1000 |
|  | * Number of questionnaire returned * Number of firms providing complete information | 539  521 |
|  | * Number of firms providing incomplete data | 18 |

### 4.6 Ethical Considerations

Researchers are confronted with ethical considerations and potential ethical dilemmas in the course of conducting research (Hair *et al*., 2007; Bryman & Bell, 2011). It is incumbent on the researcher to fashion out ways to ensure that research is conducted in an ethical manner. Of course, unethical actions can cause harm to participants and/or undermine the credibility of research findings (Hair *et al*., 2007). In this research, the researcher ensured that the entire research process was carried out ethically. The key ethical considerations that relate to this research were: access; informed consent; anonymity of participants; handling of data; and gaining ethical approval. These are discussed in the paragraphs below.

1. *Access:* The participants in this research do not exist in a vacuum; they exist in organizations by virtue of their employment in those organizations. It is based on their employment and the role they play in these organizations that the researcher was interested in obtaining data from these participants. Therefore, in order to gain access to the participants ethically, the researcher negotiated access with every organization that participated in this research. The various organizations were informed of the aim of the research project and the level of involvement of each organization. Each organization approved that their organization be used as research sites for the study before the participants were approached. This means that the researcher obtained access in the proper manner rather than approaching the participants ‘through the back door’.
2. *Informed Consent:* Even though the organizations participating this research accepted to participate in this study, it did not translate to consent on the part of the participants. The researcher therefore met with the participants to inform them of the purpose of the study and their level of participation. In each case, an information sheet was provided to the participants based on their level of participation. The information sheet described the details about the research and what was expected of the participants by virtue of their participation in the research. The information she*et al*so contained information to the effect that participation was voluntary; that their responses would be treated anonymously; and that they could withdraw from the study at any time without any consequences to them.

Where interviews were involved, the information sheet contained information to the effect that the interviews would be recorded if the participants so wished; and that they could request for the recording to be stopped at any point during the interview. Also, participants were informed that they were at liberty to decline answering any question in the course of the interview. The essence of distributing the information sheet to the participants was to enable them understand every aspect of their participation in the research in order to reach an informed decision on whether or not they were willing to participate in the research. Participants were given time (usually 2-3 days) to go through the information sheet before they could make up their minds about participating in the research.

Moreover, participation in the research was voluntary as no participant was coerced to participate in the research. Thus, it was after each participant had voluntarily accepted to take part in the study that data collection began with each of them. For the participants completing only questionnaires, it was printed boldly on the questionnaire to reiterate that participation was voluntary and that by completing and returning the questionnaires, they were consenting to participate in the study. For those that participated in the interviews, a consent form was provided for them to sign as evidence that they were consenting to participate in the research.

1. *Anonymity of Participants:* Right from the point of negotiating access with the organizations that participated in the research, the researcher made it clear that the identity of the participating organizations would not be disclosed. Equally, the researcher also made it clear to participants that their identity would not be disclosed in the research. Therefore, throughout this thesis, the researcher has not mentioned the name of any of the organizations that participated in this research. At the same time, the respondents’ identity has not being disclosed anywhere in the thesis. Rather, the data collected were analysed collectively and described in a way that the reader would not have any idea of who the participants and their respective organizations were. The essence is to avoid any form of psychological harm to the participants.
2. *Handling of Data:* The data collected for this research was handled in such a way as to guarantee the privacy of the respondents and also to avoid loss of data. Although research assistants (RA’s) assisted in the collection of data for this research, they had no access to the responses of participants. This is because each completed questionnaire was returned to the RA’s in a sealed envelope that was given to the respondents alongside the questionnaires. Equally, whilst the HR managers were instrumental in helping the researcher gain access to, and identify the participants for the employee survey, they had no access to the participants’ responses since completed questionnaires were sealed and returned directly to the RA’s. In turn, the RA’s kept the returned questionnaires safely in a locked bag-like box that had a small opening that allowed completed questionnaires to be dropped in but which enabled the returned questionnaires to be accessed only by the researcher who had keys to the box. Of course, since the researcher was in Nigeria during the field work, the researcher ensured that all returned questionnaires reached him as soon as possible. In addition, the researcher was able to monitor the work of the RA’s through random visits to research sites, communication with them and the HR managers.

The researcher kept all returned questionnaires safely in his research base in Nigeria prior to returning to Sheffield. Once the field work was over, the researcher travelled with all completed questionnaires to Sheffield and coded the responses in a password-protected computer. This means that only the researcher had access to the data. Once the responses were coded onto SPSS computer programme, the researcher destroyed hard copies of the questionnaires. As for interviews, the researcher conducted each interview personally without the involvement of any third party. These interviews were first of all recorded on a password-protected recorder and transferred onto a password-protected computer. Once these interviews were transcribed and loaded onto Nvivo computer programme, all the recordings were deleted.

1. *Ethics Approval:* As a result of the ethical manner the researcher proposed to conduct this research, the research project was given approval on ethics grounds by Sheffield University Management School’s Ethics Review Committee with reference number *001916.*This approval was obtained before the researcher commenced the field work. Even in the course of conducting the research, the researcher did not deviate from the proposed ethical considerations upon which the ethics approval was given.

### 4.7 Summary

In this chapter, the methodology for conducting the research was presented. As I have shown, the research is comprised of 2 studies that were labelled as *study 1* and *study 2* respectively. Whereas *study 1* was aimed at exploring the institutional influence on HRM in public and private sector as well as examining the specific techniques of HRM in both sectors, *study 2* was aimed at examining the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in public and private sector. The underlying nature of these studies means that the participants in *study 1* were HR managers who provided data on behalf of their organizations whilst *study 2* was focused on non-managerial employees who are usually at the receiving end of HR practices. Whilst quantitative and qualitative methods were employed in *study 1*, only quantitative methods were utilised in *study 2*. These two studies however integrate because the findings from *study 1* were used as a basis for providing direction for context-specific hypotheses for *study 2*. Therefore, *study 1* can be described as an exploratory study since the findings from *study 1* informed the hypotheses for *study 2*.

Both studies were conducted in an ethical manner since the researcher ensured that access was officially granted before the participants were approached whilst participation was voluntary and responses anonymised. The data collected was professionally handled in order to guarantee the privacy of respondents and avoid loss of data. Philosophically, a neo-positivist epistemological position was adopted for the research since both quantitative and qualitative approaches were employed objectively in the research. The data analysis and findings from *study 1* are presented in the next chapter whilst the data analysis and findings from *study 2* are presented in chapter 7.

# CHAPTER FIVE

## DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS FROM STUDY 1

### 5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, it was stated that this research was comprised of two studies labelled as study 1 and study 2. The present chapter therefore deals with data analysis and findings from study 1 of the research. The focus is on analysing data collected from HR managers in order to achieve the first two objectives of the research which are (1) to explore the influence institutions on HRM in public and private sector in Nigeria; and (2) to examine the specific techniques of HRM used in public and private sector in Nigeria. Apart from achieving these two objectives, the findings from this study will form the basis for some of the context-specific hypotheses for study 2 whilst also providing the basis for explaining the findings from that study. Thus, study 1 is a precursor of study 2 in this research.

The chapter begins with a discussion of the response rate and characteristics of the sample. Next is data analysis and results of the influence of institutions on HRM in public and private sector whilst the final section deals with analysis and results of the techniques of HRM in public and private sector in Nigeria. The last two sections are organized around the two objectives that this study seeks to achieve. Although the main variable of interest in the analysis is public and private sector, the researcher is aware that the influence of institutions on HRM and the techniques of HRM adopted by organizations may be equally determined by industry and size (Webster & Wood, 2005; Brewster *et al*., 2007; Johnson *et al*., 2009; Wood *et al.*, 2011; Brewster *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, along with sector, industry and size are included in the analysis.

### 5.2 Response Rate and Characteristics of the Sample

A total of 228 questionnaires were administered to HR managers across different industries and sectors in Nigeria who were expected to respond on behalf of their organizations. Out of this number, 126 questionnaires were completed and returned, representing 55.3% response rate. However, in the course of collating the responses, it was discovered that 4 respondents failed to state their sector, which is a main variable in the analysis. Hence, these 4 responses without sector were excluded from the analysis, which means that the analysis of data was based on 122 valid responses.

The characteristics of the sample which is presented in table 5.1 indicates that out of a sample of 122 participants, 13.1% were from the banking/financial services industry while education and health had 11.5% apiece. The table also shows that manufacturing industry had 18.9% of the total participants, 9.0% were from hotels with 20.5% from government ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) while 5.7% belonged to ICT/media industry. A further 9.8% of the sample respondents were from the transport industry. The small number of participating organizations in some industries such as hotels, ICT/media and transport constitutes a limitation to this research. In terms of sector, 58.2% of the sample were from the private sector while 41.8% belonged to the public sector. Finally, as for the size of organizations (measured in terms of number of employees), the table indicates that 31.1% of the organizations in the survey had 50-99 employees, 35.2% had 100-249 employees, 18.0% had 250-500 employees, while 15.6% had above 500 employees. The distribution of size of organizations reflects the predominance of small and medium organizations in Nigeria.

Table 5.1: Characteristics of the Sample

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Frequency (%)** |
| ***Industry*** |  |
| Banking/Financial Services | 16 (13.1%) |
| Education | 14 (11.5%) |
| Health | 14 (11.5%) |
| Manufacturing | 23 (18.9%) |
| Hotels | 11 (9.0%) |
| Government MDAs | 25 (20.5%) |
| ICT/Media | 7 (5.7%) |
| Transport | 12 (9.8%) |
| ***Sector*** |  |
| Private Sector | 71 (58.2%) |
| Public Sector | 51 (41.8%) |
| ***Size (No. of employees)*** |  |
| 50-99 | 38(31.1%) |
| 100-249 | 43 (35.2%) |
| 250-500 | 22 (18.0%) |
| Above 500 | 19 (15.6%) |

N=122

### 5.3 Analysis and Results of the Influence of Institutions on HRM in Public and Private Sector

To examine the influence of institutions on HRM in public and private sector, both quantitative and qualitative analyses methods were employed. The quantitative analysis focused on responses from questionnaires whilst the qualitative analysis which is aimed at supplementing the results from the quantitative data was based in-depth interviews with managers. The result of the quantitative data is first presented followed by the results of the qualitative data.

#### 5.3.1 Quantitative Analysis of the Influence of Institutions on HRM

In order to examine the influence of institutions on HRM, managers were expected to indicate the extent to which national labour laws, trade unions, professional bodies, vocational education set-up, international institutions, and government policy influenced HRM policies in their organizations. These factors were drawn from the literature on institutional influence on HRM in developing countries generally (Budhwar & Debrah, 2001) and Nigeria in particular (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001). The mean and standard deviation of responses on the influence of institutional variables on HRM is presented in table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Mean and Standard Deviation of Institutional Variables

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Institution** | **Mean** | **Standard Deviation** |
| National labour laws | 3.89 | .86 |
| Trade unions | 3.31 | 1.47 |
| Professional bodies | 2.89 | 1.12 |
| Vocational education set-up | 2.57 | 1.07 |
| International institutions | 2.26 | 1.13 |
| Government policy | 3.43 | 1.29 |

N= 122

Meanwhile, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to examine the influence of institutions on HRM, based on industry, sector and size of the organization, with results presented in table 5.3 overleaf.

Table 5.3: ANCOVA predicting the influence of institutions on HRM from industry, sector and size

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Predictor variables | **Dependent variables measuring the influence of institutions** | | | | | |
| National  labour  laws | Trade  unions | Professional  bodies | Vocational education  set-up | International  institutions | Government  policy |
| B | B | B | B | B | B |
| Intercept | 3.219\*\* | 4.601\*\* | 3.545\*\* | 2.569\*\* | 2.165\*\* | 3.087\*\* |
| Industry dummy: Banking/Finance (vs Manufacturing) | 0.295 | -1.831\*\* | -0.085 | 0.198 | 0.327 | 0.733\* |
| Industry dummy: Education (vs Manufacturing) | 0.632 | -1.440\*\* | -0.471 | -0.095 | -0.123 | 0.132 |
| Industry dummy: Hospitals (vs Manufacturing) | 0.166 | -1.195\*\* | 1.093\*\* | 0.040 | 0.032 | 0.324 |
| Industry dummy: Hotels (vs Manufacturing) | 0.229 | -1.152\*\* | -0.193 | -0.475 | -0.266 | -1.202\*\* |
| Industry dummy: Government MDAs (vs Manufacturing) | 0.806\*\* | 1.397\*\* | -0.018 | 0.069 | 0.432 | 0.544 |
| Industry dummy: ICT/Media (vs Manufacturing) | 0.464 | -1.484\*\* | 0.252 | -0.123 | 0.523 | -0.056 |
| Industry dummy: Tport (vs Manufacturing) | 0.053 | -1.009\* | 0.358 | -0.299 | -0.007 | -0.751 |
| Sector: Private (vs Public) | -0.144 | -2.683\*\* | -0.606 | -0.527 | -0.399 | -0.832\* |
| Size (No. of employees) | 0.216\*\* | 0.161 | -0.018 | 0.026 | 0.095 | -0.003 |

N=122 \*\*p<0.01 \*p<0.05. Tport = Transport

Results from table 5.3 indicate that all the factors (national labour laws, trade unions, professional bodies, vocational education set-up, international institutions, and government policy) were likely to influence HRM decisions in organizations in Nigeria based on the views of HR managers. However, managers indicated that trade unions (β=4.601) had the highest influence on HRM in their organizations whilst international institutions (β = 2.165) had the lowest influence. This resonates with the views of Ovadje & Ankomah (2001) who observed that although Nigeria was signatory to statutes of international institutions such as the international labour organization (ILO), such statutes were not adhered to in many organizations. Results in table 5.3 further indicate that the influence of institutions varied across industry, sector and size. For example, managers in MDAs were more likely to indicate that national labour laws influenced HRM in their organizations than managers in the manufacturing industry.

Moreover, national labour laws were more likely to influence HRM in large organizations than in small organizations. Managers in manufacturing industry were more likely to state that trade unions had influence on HRM in their organizations than those in banking/financial services, education, health, hotels, MDAs and ICT/media industries. As for sector, trade unions had higher influence in the public sector than in private sector organizations. Meanwhile, professional bodies had higher influence in the health industry than in manufacturing industry, which is not surprising, due to the existence of many professionalized employee groups in the health industry. Government policy had a higher influence in banks than in manufacturing industry, but the influence was higher in manufacturing industry than in hotel industry.

Whilst these findings provide evidence of the influence of institutions on HRM in organizations in Nigeria based on views of 122 managers, in-depth qualitative interviews were also conducted in order to offer a better understanding of the dynamics of how HRM is influenced by institutions in public and private sector. The analysis and results from these interviews are presented next section.

#### 5.3.2 Qualitative Analysis of the Influence of Institutions on HRM

In addition to the questionnaire responses, the researcher conducted interviews with HR managers in order to have a deeper understanding of how institutional mechanisms influence HRM in public and private sectors. These interviews were semi-structured and focused on HR managers in public and private banks and hospitals (see section 4.4.3.2 in chapter four for sampling and other details). These HR managers were also among those that responded to the questionnaires. Altogether, 13 managers across 13 organizations participated in these interviews with each HR manager responding on behalf their organization. A breakdown of the participants indicate that 3 each were from public banks, private banks, and public hospitals respectively while 4 were from private hospitals. This means that 6 interviewees were from public sector organizations whilst 7 were from private sector organizations.

The interview questions revolved around the literature on institutional isomorphic mechanisms – coercive, mimetic and normative- and their influence on HRM (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Paauwe & Boselie, 2003). For instance, questions such as ‘how do labour laws influence HRM policies in your organization?’; ‘does your organization adopt HRM policies and practices because others in the industry have adopted same?’ and ‘do your organization insist on recruiting HRM personnel with specific educational background?’ were reflective of coercive, mimetic, and normative institutional mechanisms respectively (Boselie *et al*., 2003; Paauwe & Boselie, 2007).

As indicated in section 4.4.4.2 in chapter four, the analysis of data followed the thematic analysis procedure suggested by Braun & Clarke (2006). Thus, in order to familiarize with the data, the researcher took note of salient issues that caught his attention during the interview process. Also, additional notes were taken during the transcription process after which the researcher read through the transcripts several times and became immersed with the data. The second stage required coding the data in order to enhance data reduction. This process was achieved by first of all uploading the transcribed data onto the Nvivo 11 software which was used to aid data analysis.

Through open coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2006), the concepts reflecting the influence of institutional mechanisms such as ‘antagonism to trade unions’, ‘influence of trade unions’, ‘compliance with minimum wage law’; ‘spread of practices through staff transfer’; ‘keeping to guidelines and procedures’; ‘requirements of regulatory bodies’; ‘influence of economic situation’, ‘training received by HR specialists’; ‘maintaining professional norms’, ‘international bodies’ among others were searched and coded, while axial coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2006) enabled the researcher to establish some linkages among the initial codes by relating the concepts of institutional mechanisms and HRM to each other. The process of coding was guided by sensitizing concepts derived from the literature as an initial point of departure; suggesting that the knowledge of a priori theory provided the researcher the direction in which to look (Johnson & Duberley, 2015). This means that the analysis followed a Straussian rather than a Glasserian approach (Johnson & Duberley, 2015).

Thus, the codes were sorted whilst latent themes were created that reflected both existing and emerging themes. These themes were further reviewed and refined such that some of the themes such as ‘international institutions’ without enough supporting data were dropped whilst others merged to produce more logical themes. Thus, nine final themes were derived from an initial ten that were created. These themes were defined in line with the literature on institutional isomorphism (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983) and where necessary, some were renamed in order to produce a final report. For instance, the theme ‘professional bodies’ was renamed ‘professional socialization’ to cover all avenues such professional norms, educational and professional training institutes and trade associations where managers and employee groups interact, thereby resulting in the development and spread of HR practices. The final themes arrived at in this research are: labour laws, trade unions, regulatory bodies, host community, influence of elites, staff transfer/imitation, consultants, professional socialization, and economic pressures.

Based on the literature on institutionalism and HRM (Paauwe, 2004; Paauwe & Boselie, 2007; Boon *et al*., 2009), the themes *labour laws*, *trade unions*, *regulatory bodies, host community* and *influence of elites* were classified as coercive mechanisms; *staff transfer/imitation*, and *consultants* were classified as mimetic mechanisms while *professional socialization* fell under normative mechanisms. However, an emerging theme which was labelled *economic pressures* did not share the characteristics of any the three institutional mechanisms and was therefore not grouped with any of these institutional mechanisms. It is worth noting that whilst the themes *host community and influence of elites* were new themes that emerged from the data, the characteristics of these themes resonated broadly with coercive mechanisms and could be described as context-specific sources of coercive influence on HRM in Nigeria.

Since this study involves a comparison between public and private sectors, the responses emanating from the themes were grouped into public and private sector whilst industry – banks and hospitals – provided a sub-category for analysis. This enabled the researcher to compare the responses from both sectors using a contrast matrix (Miles & Huberman, 1994) in order to identify areas of convergence and divergence based on the views expressed by the interviewees. Therefore, in reporting the results in the next section, efforts are made to present the views of managers from both sectors side by side under each theme in order to identify how each institutional mechanism influences HRM in public and private sector. Finally, the quotes presented in the findings section below are typical of the views expressed by the interviewees. Consequently, the source of each quote is presented in bracket at the end of the quote whilst responses from public banks are labelled for a short as PuB1, PuB2 and PuB3; public hospitals as PuH1, PuH2 and PuH3; private banks as PrB1, PrB2, and PrB3; whilst those from private hospitals are referred to PrH1, PrH2, PrH3 and PrH4 respectively.

##### 5.3.2.1 Findings from Qualitative Interviews

The findings from qualitative interviews are presented below.

*Coercive mechanisms*

These institutional mechanisms emanate from other organizations upon which the organization depends for its resources (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Whilst these institutions form part of the general environment (Deephouse, 1999; Paauwe, 2004) of organizations, it has been suggested that their influence on work practices may vary according to the sector or institutional field of the organization (Boon *et al.*, 2009). The coercive mechanisms identified in this study were labour laws, trade unions, regulatory bodies and influence of ‘stakeholders’. These are discussed below.

*Labour Laws*

There are different labour laws in Nigeria that influence the choice of HRM strategies in organizations. Labour laws in Nigeria can be broadly classified into laws relating to terms and conditions of employment; laws relating to employment and laws dealing with trade unions and dispute resolution (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001). Whilst some of these laws affect a particular category of employees, a prominent law that relates to conditions of employment in Nigeria is the minimum wage law. The national minimum wage law provides a minimum amount an employee should be paid for their labour. The minimum wage provides a benchmark to guide collective bargaining between employers and employees. Presently, the national minimum wage in Nigeria is 18,000 Naira per month. Generally, all interviewees indicated that their organizations abide by labour laws when considering HRM policies and that they were not against labour laws as could be seen from the response below from a HR manager in the public sector:

I’m not sure any government agency would fail to respect laws of employment for whatever reason….. They [labour laws] provide guidelines on how labour disputes can be resolved or even avoided so yes, I consider laws of employment very important [PuB3].

However, when asked particularly about the minimum wage law, it was found that not all organizations abided by the provisions of the minimum wage law. In the public sector, all the interviewees indicate that the minimum wage law significantly influenced the decision of compensation of workers as could be seen from the responses in both public hospitals and banks:

We always make reference to the minimum wage and the agreements we have with different groups of workers in designing our pay structure. Once the minimum wage is increased, we adjust the wages of workers to reflect this increase [PuH 1].

Yes (we abide by the minimum wage law), as a government agency, you cannot be the one disobeying the laws of the country. What message are you passing across if you do that (disobey minimum wage law) as a government agency? I can assure you that no worker in this bank collects less than 18,000 Naira monthly [PuB 2].

In the private sector however, HR managers in the private banks claimed their pay structure was above the minimum wage based on the industry standard as indicated in the response below:

The industry standard is well above the minimum wage and that is what the bank uses to fix the remuneration of workers. So the benchmark the bank uses is even far above the minimum wage [PrB 2].

Nevertheless, in private hospitals, this was not the case as the respondents suggested that their organizations could not afford paying the minimum wage or other benefits due to their cost of operation:

I think the minimum wage is purely the business of government. If we say we must pay all our staff up to the minimum wage, we might fold up because we cannot afford it. We try to review their (workers) pay when the government increases the pay of its workers but that does not mean it has to be up to what the government stipulates as minimum wage [PrH 2].

We try our best to provide the staff here with all their entitlements required by law but sometimes this is not going to be possible because you know that the cost that goes into our daily operations like fuelling alone is very huge. The most important thing is we are very open to our staff and they have always shown great understanding [PrH4].

*Trade Unions*

Trade unions play an important role in influencing HRM policies mainly in the public sector. The informants in both public banks and hospitals alluded to the importance of trade unions and the need to consult unions in workplace decisions in order to maintain industry harmony. Some of their responses are shown below:

Unions are always consulted on major issues affecting workers. (Because of this), there is harmony between management and unions [PuB 2].

We do not undermine staff unions at all. We know what they can do when they feel aggrieved so we try as much as possible to have peace with them [PuH 2].

Surprisingly, in all the private organizations studied, there was a deliberate policy to prevent employees from joining trade unions since the organizations viewed unionism as a tool to antagonise the decisions of management:

The bank does not allow workers to join unions. It is not just this bank but the whole industry is not unionised [PrB 1].

Trade unions can create problems and we cannot afford that here. We want workers who can provide the best service to our clients not those who would antagonise the hospital management [PrH 1].

Well, we inform prospective employees ahead time that the hospital does not permit unionism or activism. Of course, we will always give them (employees) a listening ear if they have genuine grievances [PrH 2].

I completely disagree that workers have to join trade unions before their needs can be met. I can guarantee you that employees of this bank are treated far better than those in companies where employees have strong unions [PrB3].

*Regulatory Bodies*

Unlike trade unionism, the influence of regulatory bodies on HRM appear to be felt in both public and private organizations. As the responses from private hospitals below indicate, this might be as a result of the influence regulatory bodies have in providing operating licences to these organizations:

….. Medical and dental council of Nigeria is interested in the calibre of staff we employ and the training they receive [PrH 1].

The hospital will lose its operating licence if regulatory bodies find out that the workers are not well qualified to work in a hospital [PrH 2].

The same applies to private banks where the central bank of Nigeria (CBN) which is the apex regulatory body in the banking sector provides guidelines to banks including some of their employment relations policies:

We have a policy document known as the practice of banking. It tells the employees everything they have to know about the bank including the conditions of employment and code of conduct. …. We update it (policy document) from time to time in line with CBN guidelines [PrB 2].

In the public sector, however, the amount of regulation appear to be more due to the presence of multiple regulatory agencies, with often conflicting roles, as could be seen in the responses below:

The national assembly is also interested in what we do….. Don’t forget that the federal character commission has to vet our selection procedures to ensure that we employ people from all parts of the country [PuB 1].

Health (regulatory) bodies want the hospital to maintain a very high standard and at the same time there are bodies who are more interested in where the workers come from (referring to the federal character commission whose duty is to ensure that public sector organizations maintain quota system in their employment) [PuH 2].

*Host community and influence of elites*

This results from informal influence on HRM policies from members of the host community in which the organization operates. Due to the shortage of employment opportunities in many African contexts, the host community may prevail on the organization to consider the interests of members of the community when filling job vacancies. This could be seen from the responses below:

They [host community] often have complains but as soon as the hospital employs one of their own, those complains suddenly disappear [PrH4].

We have a deliberate policy of employing members of the community to certain positions so that we can maintain a healthy relationship with our hosts [PrH3].

*Influence of elites*

Influential elites that have direct dealings with the organization may also wield some coercive influence especially in the area of recruitment and selection. This may not be uncommon in environments with high levels of unemployment where social networks are important in securing employment (Mellahi & Wood, 2003; Webster & Wood, 2005). These elites may demand for special consideration of their cronies during recruitment and selection as the responses below suggest:

If a high net worth customer recommends a candidate that is qualified, certainly the bank has to consider such a candidate. It could be a way of making special customers happy to continue business with the bank [PrB3].

That is a normal thing in the public service because every public organization has to lobby some stakeholders in order to function properly. (In response to how ‘stakeholders’ are awarded slots to fill vacancies in public organizations) [PuH3].

*Mimetic mechanisms*

Mimetic mechanisms emanate from the tendency of organizations to copy the practices of other similar organizations when faced with uncertainty (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Boselie *et al*., 2003). The themes identified in this study that relate to mimetic mechanisms were staff transfer/imitation and the use of consultants. These are presented in the subsequent sections.

*Staff transfer/imitation*

Employees or managers who transfer to other organizations are bound to transfer with them certain practices (Paauwe & Boselie, 2003). This is more prevalent in industries where there is high labour turnover like the banking industry in Nigeria. In some cases, organizations may adapt practices of other similar organizations within the same environment, especially when practices have been proven successful or as a result of fashion or fad (Boselie *et al.,* 2003). The responses in both public and private organizations suggest that HRM policies and practices may be influenced through staff transfer or imitation:

The bank prefers to recruit staff who have experience in the industry. The idea is that employees with prior experience will understand better how the industry operates… The bank spends less money for training those who have work experience in the industry because what we do is similar across most banks [PrB 2].

This is a very competitive sector therefore no bank wants to be left behind. Some of our policies are not different from those of other banks because no one wants to lose their well trained staff to rivals in the industry [PrB 1].

We are open to new ideas from every category of staff….. So if we receive new ideas based on workers’ previous work experience, we will gladly accept them, provided we find such ideas useful [PuH3].

*Consultants*

Consultants provide advice to organizations about management practices which results to similarity of practices across organizations (Paauwe, 2004). When faced with uncertainty, it is common for organizations to hire management consultants to provide solutions (Paauwe & Boselie, 2007). For instance, most banks in Nigeria have embarked on massive downsizing in recent times in a bid to reduce cost. In such times of uncertainty, organizations rely on the ‘expert’ advice of consultants. Making reference to why the bank downsized, the HRM manger in private bank 1 had this to say:

I think the bank has regretted losing some of its best staff through downsizing. In hindsight, maybe we should have handled the issue differently but that seemed to be the best advice we got from consultants at that time. Considering that other banks also took that route, we couldn’t do otherwise [PrB 1].

The other organizations studied also reported relying on consultants for advice on HRM practices:

Consultants are involved in the recruitment and selection process of the bank. This is done in order to avoid bias in the process and to get the most talented employees [PuB 1].

I remember there was a time the hospital brought some specialists to recommend strategies that will encourage workers to contribute more on their job… I can say it was successful because we saw a lot of improvements [PuH 1].

We often get them (consultants) to provide the best training to our staff on the latest issues in the health sector [PrH 4].

This means that there is a possibility for practices to spread in both public and private sector hospitals and banks through employee transfers or through the involvement of HRM consultants in decisions affecting the management of people.

*Normative mechanisms*

Normative institutional mechanisms impact HRM through professional training institutes and universities which provide the development and spread of organizational practices (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Paauwe & Boselie, 2007). The theme that captures the influence of normative mechanisms on HRM in this research is professional socialization and is presented below.

*Professional socialization*

HR practices can spread across organizations through the interaction of managers and employees in trade associations, membership of professional bodies, or professional training avenues (Paauwe & Boselie, 2007). The responses below indicate that this is the case in public and private sectors in Nigeria:

There are many workshops organized by CIBN (Chartered Institute of Bankers of Nigeria) that target HRM issues in banks. We make sure that those in HR (department) participate in these workshops [PuB 2].

The central bank provides us with training on particular human resource management topics that are relevant to us [PuB 1].

From time to time HR professionals of the bank attend seminars and workshops that are handled by top academics in the field of HR….. It helps to keep pace with developments in the field [PrB 3]

In some cases, organizations or donor agencies sponsor foreign trainings to enable HRM professionals in public organizations update their knowledge on international best practices as remarked by the interviewee in public hospital 1 below:

The hospital sends staff on local and foreign training to acquire knowledge on trends in human resources. Some of our staff have just returned from a workshop sponsored by WHO abroad. Some of these foreign trainings have made our managers understand that human resource management for health workers is different from conventional human resource management [PuH 1].

Apart from the spread of HRM practices through professional training avenues, there is also an indication that organizations insist on HRM professionals being members of professional bodies related to HRM:

Human resource management is not a job anyone can just perform especially in a big bank like this. That is why the bank insists that those working in human resources must have one or two professional qualifications related to HR…. Membership of professional bodies is beneficial because members have the opportunity to learn new things by attending workshops and seminars run by these professional bodies [PrB 1].

It is also possible for HRM practices to be diffused across private organizations through participation in employers’ associations:

The association of private medical practitioners of Nigeria guides our operations on a number of issues. The association cannot advice on say, the number of employees one can have but we often get advice on the need to maintain high ethical standards when dealing with both employees and clients [PrH 2].

The above responses indicate that HRM is normatively diffused across public and private organizations through professional socialization in a variety ways ranging from professional training institutes to professional and employers’ associations.

*Economic Pressures*

Organizations are not insulated from the economic environment in which they operate and this in turn influences some of their decisions, including those relating to HRM. Forces within the economic environment send signals to organizations to develop policies to enable them and employees cope with economic realities. This is especially true in environment where the economic conditions are unfavourable as could be seen from the responses below:

As a result of the high cost of rent in major cities in the country, we have housing estates where accommodation is provided to staff at a subsidized rate [PuB3].

The hospital goes the extra mile to give support to workers during hard times. Like during the fuel crisis, the hospital took it upon itself to make available buses to transport our staff [PrH3].

Well, the cost of living in a particular place also determines the amount of allowances available to employees… If the allowances are the same, it will create undue advantage to those in places where the cost of living is low, whereas those in places with high cost of living will surely feel short-changed [PrB3].

The responses above suggest that some HRM policies, especially those relating to compensation and benefits may be influenced by the nature of the economic environment in which the organization operates.

### 5.4 Analysis and Results of Techniques of HRM in Public and Private Sector

In order to identify the techniques of HRM used in public and private organizations in Nigeria, responses to questions on the use of specific techniques of HRM to which managers were expected to select from ‘Yes’, ‘No’ or ‘Don’t Know’ options were analysed. The analysis procedure adopted in a similar study by Wood *et al*. (2011) was followed in this research which involves the use of descriptive statistics to identify the specific techniques used in each domain of HRM (recruitment and selection, training, employee benefits, and employee participation) across the whole sample and within each industry and sector. This was followed by the use of logistic regression to examine the effect industry, sector, and size on each technique of HRM. Thus, a general proposition, it is expected that the use of techniques of HRM will vary across industry, sector and size. Meanwhile, in conducting the analysis of data, only valid responses were included, meaning that missing data and ‘Don’t know’ responses were excluded. The results for each HRM domain are presented in the sections below.

#### 5.4.1 Recruitment and Selection

In order to examine the techniques of recruitment and selection, responses to questions on the methods of recruitment ranging from internal sources to external sources such as advertisement were analysed. For selection, responses to questions that ranged from informal methods such as informal walk in, that is selection without interview to more formal methods such as selection using interviews and the use of psychometric tests to supplement interviews were analysed. These responses were based on four employee categories: management, technical, clerical and manual staff as presented in tables 5.4, 5.5, 5.6 and 5.7 respectively. Results from the 4 tables indicate that across the four employee groups, advertisement was the most preferred method of recruitment: management staff (61.2%), technical staff (59.1%), clerical staff (47.0%) and manual staff (39.3%). However, the use of advertisement, though the most preferred method of recruitment, varied across industry groups and sector for all the employee groups. For management staff, advertisement was more likely to be used in health and ICT/media industries (71.4% each) whilst it was less likely to be used in the transport industry (44.4%).

In terms of sector, the use of advertisement for recruiting management staff was more likely in public sector (79.6%) compared to the private sector (47.8%). For technical staff, government ministries, departments, and agencies (MDAs) indicated the highest use of advertisement for recruiting technical staff (77.3%); this was followed by education industry (75.0%) while the manufacturing industry had the lowest use of advertisement (36.4%). Again, the use of advertisement for recruiting technical staff was higher in the public sector (80.4%) compared to the private sector (44.9%). When it comes to the use of advertisement for recruiting clerical staff, again, government MDAs had the highest use (61.9%); followed by banking/financial services (60.0%) whilst manufacturing had the lowest use (34.8%). As for sector, the public sector had the highest use (66.0%) compared to private sector (33.8%). Results were the same for manual staff, with government MDAs having the highest use (58.3%) whilst manufacturing had the least use (26.1%); with a similar pattern for public (55.3%) and private sector (26.7%).

The results from the 4 tables (5.4, 5.5, 5.6 & 5.7) also indicate that employees were more likely to be recruited internally for clerical staff (24.3%), followed by manual staff (23.2%) whilst technical staff were the least likely to be recruited internally (13.9%). However, the recruitment of clerical staff internally varied across industry groups and sector. For instance, management staff were more likely to be recruited internally in the transport industry (33.3%) whilst ICT/media had the highest recruitment of manual staff internally (33.3%). For sector, employees were more likely to be recruited internally in the private sector compared to the public sector across all employee groups. This may reflect a cost-cutting measure in the private sector wherein organizations deploy already existing employees to fill vacancies instead of recruiting externally which would usually be costly in terms of having more personnel on the payroll of the organization.

In terms of recruitment via word of mouth, manual staff were more likely to be recruited via this medium (28.6%) whilst management staff, perhaps, for the strategic role they play to the success of organizations were the least employee group to be recruited via word of mouth (9.5%). Again, this varied across industry groups and sector for each employee group. For instance, across all employee groups, hotels were more likely to recruit via word of mouth whilst banking/financial services, education, MDAs and ICT/media industries claimed they did not recruit management and technical staff via word of mouth. As for sector, employees were more likely to be recruited via word of mouth across all employee groups in the private sector compared to the public sector. In fact, results indicate that there was no recruitment of management and technical staff via word of mouth in the public sector (0.0%).

The use of recruitment agencies was however very low across all the employee groups. The analysis for each employee group indicates that the use of recruitment agencies for management staff was 9.5%; technical staff (9.6%); clerical staff (2.6%); and manual staff (1.8%). However, industries such as banking/financial services and ICT/media that may be considered as developed were more likely to use recruitment agencies to recruit employees. Specifically, banking/financial services had the highest use of recruitment agencies for management staff (31.3%) and technical staff (25.0%). This was followed by ICT/media in the use of recruitment agencies for recruiting management and technical staff (14.3% each).

HR managers were also required to indicate whether they used ‘other’ techniques for recruiting employees across the four employee groups. Results indicate that the use of ‘other’ techniques was very low: management staff (3.4%); technical staff (4.3%); clerical staff (4.3%) and manual staff (7.1%). Again, this varied across industry and sector. For instance, only organizations in banking/financial services, health, MDAs, and manufacturing industries claimed they use other forms of recruitment for management staff. The content analysis of responses indicate that the techniques used were online recruitment via websites (75.4%) and former employees (24.6%). For technical staff, organizations in banking/financial services, education, health and ICT/media industries indicated they used other forms of recruitment with online recruitment via websites (67.1%) and visits to educational institutes (32.9%) being the forms of other recruitment techniques for technical staff. On the other hand, unsolicited applicants (30.5%), employee referrals (27.2%), and outsourcing (43.2%) were the forms of ‘other’ recruitment techniques for clerical and manual staff.

As for selection techniques, results indicate that across all employee groups, interviews were the most preferred method of selecting employees: management staff (70.1%); technical staff (73.7%); clerical staff (64.0%); and manual staff (53.0%). However, the use of interviews varied across industry groups and sector. For instance, organizations in ICT/media were more likely to use interviews for selecting management staff (85.7%) whilst organizations in the transport industry had the lowest use of interviews for selecting management staff (50.0%). As for sector, organizations in the public sector had the highest use of interviews (81.6%) compared to organizations in the private sector (61.8%). For technical and clerical staff, organizations in the health industry had the highest use of interviews (85.7% and 75.0% respectively) whilst organizations in banking/financial services industry had the highest use interviews as a technique for selecting manual staff (68.8%). In minority of cases, psychometric tests were used to supplement interviews and this varied across employee groups, industries and sector. The use of psychometric tests was higher for selecting technical staff (17.5%) and lowest for selecting manual staff (4.3%).

Table 5.4: Techniques of recruitment and selection of management staff across whole sample, industry and sector

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Variable measuring technique of recruitment and selection |  |  | **Industry** | | | | | | | | **Sector** | |
| Category | Whole  Sample | Banking/  Financial  Services | Education | Health | Manufacturing | Hotels | Govt. MDAs | ICT/  Media | Tport | Private | Public |
| Recruitment of management staffa  Are management staff recruited internally? | “Yes” | 16.4% | 12.5% | 23.1% | 14.3% | 8.7% | 20.0% | 16.7% | 14.3% | 33.3% | 19.4% | 12.2% |
| Are management staff recruited by word of mouth? | “Yes” | 9.5% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 7.1% | 21.7% | 30.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 22.2% | 16.4% | 0.0% |
| Are management staff recruited via recruitment agencies? | “Yes” | 9.5% | 31.3% | 7.7% | 0.0% | 8.7% | 0.0% | 8.3% | 14.3% | 0.0% | 11.9% | 6.1% |
| Are management staff recruited via advertisement? | “Yes” | 61.2% | 50.0% | 69.2% | 71.4% | 56.5% | 50.0% | 70.8% | 71.4% | 44.4% | 47.8% | 79.6% |
| Are management staff recruited via other systems? | “Yes” | 3.4% | 6.3% | 0.0% | 7.1% | 4.3% | 0.0% | 4.2% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 4.5% | 2.0% |
| Selection of management staffb  Are management staff selected without interview? | “Yes” | 8.5% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 7.1% | 13.6% | 18.2% | 4.3% | 0.0% | 25.0% | 13.2% | 2.0% |
| Are management staff selected by filling in an application form? | “Yes” | 14.5% | 13.3% | 7.7% | 7.1% | 22.7% | 18.2% | 8.7% | 14.3% | 25.0% | 20.6% | 6.1% |
| Are management staff selected by filling in an application form and interview? | “Yes” | 70.1% | 80.0% | 84.6% | 78.6% | 63.6% | 54.5% | 69.6% | 85.7% | 50.0% | 61.8% | 81.6% |
| Are psychometric tests used in selecting management staff? | “Yes” | 7.7% | 26.7% | 0.0% | 7.1% | 4.5% | 0.0% | 8.7% | 14.3% | 0.0% | 8.8% | 6.6% |
| Are management staff selected via other system? | “Yes” | 6.0% | 6.7% | 7.7% | 7.1% | 0.0% | 9.1% | 13.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 4.2% | 8.2% |

All %s taken use N of valid response as base (i.e. Missing, ‘Not Applicable’ and ‘Don’t Know’ responses are excluded). Tport = Transport.

a116<N<122.

b117<N<122.

Table 5.5: Techniques of recruitment and selection of technical staff across whole sample, industry and sector

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Variable measuring technique of recruitment and selection |  |  | **Industry** | | | | | | | | **Sector** | |
| Category | Whole  Sample | Banking/  Financial  Services | Education | Health | Manufacturing | Hotels | Govt. MDAs | ICT/  Media | Tport | Private | Public |
| Recruitment of technical staffa  Are technical staff recruited internally? | “Yes” | 13.9% | 6.3% | 16.7% | 7.7% | 27.3% | 9.1% | 13.6% | 0.0% | 16.7% | 15.9% | 10.9% |
| Are technical staff recruited by word of mouth? | “Yes” | 13.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 7.7% | 27.3% | 36.4% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 33.3% | 21.7% | 0.0% |
| Are technical staff recruited via recruitment agencies? | “Yes” | 9.6% | 25.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 13.6% | 9.1% | 9.1% | 14.3% | 0.0% | 13.0% | 4.3% |
| Are technical staff recruited via advertisement? | “Yes” | 59.1% | 62.5% | 75.0% | 69.2% | 36.4% | 45.5% | 77.3% | 57.1% | 50.0% | 44.9% | 80.4% |
| Are technical staff recruited via other systems? | “Yes” | 4.3% | 6.3% | 8.3% | 15.4% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 14.3% | 0.0% | 5.8% | 2.2% |
| Selection of technical staffb  Are technical staff selected without interview? | “Yes” | 3.5% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 9.5% | 9.1% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 8.3% | 5.8% | 0.0% |
| Are technical staff selected by filling in an application form? | “Yes” | 14.9% | 12.5% | 10.0% | 7.1% | 19.0% | 18.2% | 12.5% | 16.7% | 25.0% | 18.8% | 8.9% |
| Are technical staff selected by filling in an application form and interview? | “Yes” | 73.7% | 81.3% | 80.0% | 85.7% | 66.7% | 63.6% | 75.0% | 83.3% | 58.3% | 68.1% | 82.2% |
| Are psychometric tests used in selecting technical staff? | “Yes” | 17.5% | 50.0% | 0.0% | 14.3% | 14.3% | 0.0% | 16.7% | 33.3% | 8.3% | 17.4% | 17.8% |
| Are technical staff selected via other system? | “Yes” | 8.8% | 6.3% | 10.0% | 7.1% | 4.8% | 9.1% | 16.7% | 0.0% | 8.3% | 7.2% | 11.1% |

All %s taken use N of valid response as base (i.e. Missing, ‘Not Applicable’ and ‘Don’t Know’ responses are excluded). Tport = Transport.

a115<N<122.

b114<N<122.

Table 5.6: Techniques of recruitment and selection of clerical staff across whole sample, industry and sector

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Variable measuring technique of recruitment and selection |  |  | **Industry** | | | | | | | | **Sector** | |
| Category | Whole  Sample | Banking/  Financial  Services | Education | Health | Manufacturing | Hotels | Govt. MDAs | ICT/  Media | Tport | Private | Public |
| Recruitment of clerical staffa  Are clerical staff recruited internally? | “Yes” | 24.3% | 20.0% | 23.1% | 28.6% | 30.4% | 18.2% | 23.8% | 28.6% | 18.2% | 27.9% | 19.1% |
| Are clerical staff recruited by word of mouth? | “Yes” | 21.7% | 6.7% | 23.1% | 14.3% | 30.4% | 45.5% | 4.8% | 14.3% | 45.5% | 32.4% | 6.4% |
| Are clerical staff recruited via recruitment agencies? | “Yes” | 2.6% | 6.7% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 4.3% | 0.0% | 4.8% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 2.9% | 2.1% |
| Are clerical staff recruited via advertisement? | “Yes” | 47.0% | 60.0% | 46.2% | 50.0% | 34.8% | 36.4% | 61.9% | 42.9% | 36.4% | 33.8% | 66.0% |
| Are clerical staff recruited via other systems? | “Yes” | 4.3% | 6.7% | 7.7% | 7.1% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 4.8% | 14.3% | 0.0% | 2.9% | 6.4% |
| Selection of clerical staffb  Are clerical staff selected without interview? | “Yes” | 11.4% | 6.7% | 7.7% | 8.3% | 17.4% | 18.2% | 4.5% | 0.0% | 27.3% | 17.4% | 2.2% |
| Are clerical staff selected by filling in an application form? | “Yes” | 17.5% | 13.3% | 15.4% | 8.3% | 21.7% | 27.3% | 13.6% | 28.6% | 18.2% | 21.7% | 11.1% |
| Are clerical staff selected by filling in an application form and interview? | “Yes” | 64.0% | 73.3% | 69.2% | 75.0% | 56.5% | 54.5% | 68.2% | 71.4% | 45.5% | 53.6% | 80.0% |
| Are psychometric tests used in selecting clerical staff? | “Yes” | 7.9% | 20.0% | 0.0% | 8.3% | 8.7% | 0.0% | 9.1% | 14.3% | 0.0% | 8.7% | 6.7% |
| Are clerical staff selected via other system? | “Yes” | 7.9% | 6.7% | 15.4% | 9.1% | 4.3% | 0.0% | 13.6% | 0.0% | 9.1% | 8.7% | 6.7% |

All %s taken use N of valid response as base (i.e. Missing, ‘Not Applicable’ and ‘Don’t Know’ responses are excluded). Tport = Transport.

a115<N<122.

b114<N<122.

Table 5.7: Techniques of recruitment and selection of manual staff across whole sample, industry and sector

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Variable measuring technique of recruitment and selection |  |  | **Industry** | | | | | | | | **Sector** | |
| Category | Whole  Sample | Banking/  Financial  Services | Education | Health | Manufacturing | Hotels | Govt. MDAs | ICT/  Media | Tport | Private | Public |
| Recruitment of manual staffa  Are manual staff recruited internally? | “Yes” | 23.2% | 21.4% | 27.3% | 21.4% | 26.1% | 20.0% | 20.8% | 33.3% | 20.0% | 21.5% | 25.5% |
| Are manual staff recruited by word of mouth? | “Yes” | 28.6% | 14.3% | 27.3% | 28.6% | 43.5% | 50.0% | 8.3% | 16.7% | 50.0% | 44.6% | 6.4% |
| Are manual staff recruited via recruitment agencies? | “Yes” | 1.8% | 7.1% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 4.2% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 1.5% | 2.1% |
| Are manual staff recruited via advertisement? | “Yes” | 39.3% | 42.9% | 36.4% | 42.9% | 26.1% | 30.0% | 58.3% | 33.3% | 30.0% | 26.7% | 55.3% |
| Are manual staff recruited via other systems? | “Yes” | 7.1% | 14.3% | 9.1% | 7.1% | 4.3% | 0.0% | 8.3% | 16.7% | 0.0% | 4.6% | 10.6% |
| Selection of manual staffb  Are manual staff selected without interview? | “Yes” | 23.5% | 12.5% | 23.1% | 21.4% | 36.4% | 33.3% | 9.1% | 14.3% | 41.7% | 35.3% | 6.4% |
| Are manual staff selected by filling in an application form? | “Yes” | 17.4% | 18.8% | 15.4% | 14.3% | 18.2% | 11.1% | 13.6% | 28.6% | 25.0% | 20.6% | 12.8% |
| Are manual staff selected by filling in an application form and interview? | “Yes” | 53.0% | 68.8% | 53.8% | 57.1% | 45.5% | 44.4% | 63.6% | 57.1% | 25.0% | 39.7% | 72.3% |
| Are psychometric tests used in selecting manual staff? | “Yes” | 4.3% | 12.5% | 0.0% | 7.1% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 4.5% | 14.3% | 0.0% | 4.4% | 4.3% |
| Are manual staff selected via other system? | “Yes” | 5.2% | 0.0% | 7.7% | 7.1% | 0.0% | 11.1% | 9.1% | 0.0% | 8.3% | 5.2% | 6.4% |

All %s taken use N of valid response as base (i.e. Missing, ‘Not Applicable’ and ‘Don’t Know’ responses are excluded). Tport = Transport.

a112<N<122.

b115<N<122.

Nevertheless, across all employee groups, organizations in the banking/financial services and ICT/media had the highest use of psychometric tests for selecting employees. Again, this may underscore the advanced nature of these industries in Nigeria. As for sector, the public sector had the highest use of psychometric tests for selecting technical staff whilst the reverse was the case for the other employee groups where the use of psychometric tests was higher in the private sector. Nevertheless, in each employee group, the difference in the use of psychometric tests in the two sectors was negligible.

Despite the widespread use of interviews as the most preferred method of selection, some organizations selected employees without interviews; that is through informal walk-ins. This was more likely to happen for manual staff (23.5%) and less likely for technical staff (3.5%). Again, for each employee group, there was variation across industry groups and sector. For example, organizations in manufacturing and hotel industries were more likely to select technical staff without interviews (9.5% and 9.1% respectively) whilst for the same employee group, organizations in banking/financial services, education, health, MDAs and ICT/media industries claimed they did not use this method at all. As for sector, private sector organizations had a higher use of selection without interviews compared to public sector organizations thereby reflecting the prevalent use of informal practices in the private sector compared to the public sector in Nigeria that is more formalized.

Moreover, other organizations selected employees based on merely completing application forms. This was more likely to happen for clerical staff (17.5%) and manual staff (17.4%) but less likely for management and technical staff. This may reflect the importance attached to the latter in utilising their skills for the attainment of organizational goals, such that organizations are more likely to adopt formal and more rigorous methods for selecting these employee groups. Like other forms of selection, the use of this method varied across industry groups and sector. For example, organizations in the hotel industry indicated they were more likely to use this method for selecting technical staff (27.3%) as opposed to organizations in the health industry who were the least to use this method for selecting technical staff (8.3%). And just like the other informal methods, the use of this technique was higher in the private sector as compared to the public sector.

Indeed, respondents were expected to indicate whether they used ‘other’ systems for selecting employees for all the employee groups with results suggesting this ranged from 5.2% to 8.8% across the four employee groups. Content analysis of their responses indicates that for management staff, the methods used in this category were presentations (63.6%) and assessment of candidates’ experience (36.4%), with the latter used more frequently in public sector organizations and may be used particularly when management staff are recruited internally. For the other employee categories, the other methods that were mostly used were work sample tests (48.8%) and assessment of references/recommendations (42.0%). Nevertheless, a minority of private sector organizations indicated that selection technique used was based on ‘owner’s decision’ (9.2%), which again underscores the likelihood for the use of informal methods in private sector organizations, albeit this may be more prevalent in owner-controlled organizations that are small in size.

The analysis presented above indicates that the use of recruitment and selection methods varied across industry and sector for all employee groups. Logistic regression was then used to examine the effect of industry, sector and size on the use of recruitment and selection techniques. For recruitment of management staff, the results presented in table 5.8 shows that the odds of recruiting management staff internally were significantly related to size. Specifically, the odds that this technique will be used were around 2 times higher in small organizations compared to large ones (EXP (β) = 2.492). Whilst the odds of using recruitment agencies for recruiting management staff were higher in private sector organizations and higher in large organizations respectively, the odds of using advertisement were 8 times higher for public sector organizations than private sector organizations (EXP(β) = 8.496).

For technical staff (Table 5.9), the odds of recruiting technical staff via word of mouth were more than 25 times higher in small organizations than large ones (EXP (β) = 25.644). Meanwhile, the odds of recruiting technical staff via advertisement were around 5 times higher in the public sector than private sector organizations. As for clerical staff (Table 5.10), the odds of recruiting clerical staff internally and via word of mouth were 2 times higher (EXP(β) = 2.092) and more than 10 times higher (EXP(β) = 10.724) respectively in small organizations than large organizations. As for the use of advertisement, the odds were around 8 times higher in public sector (EXP (β) = 8.534) than private sector.

Table 5.8: Predicting the extent of use of recruitment techniques for management staff from industry, sector and size

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Predictor variablesa | Dependent variable: Are management staff recruited internally? | | | Dependent variable: Are management staff recruited by word of mouth? | | | Dependent variable: Are management staff recruited via recruitment agencies? | | | Dependent variable: Are management staff recruited via advertisement? | | | Dependent variable: Are management staff recruited via other systems? | | |
|  | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 |
| Industry |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Industry dummy: Banking/  Finance (vs Manufacturing) | -1.290 | 0.275 |  | 19.143 | >1000z |  | -0.971 | 0.379 |  | 1.409 | 4.093 |  | -1.386 | 0.250 |  |
| Industry dummy: Education (vs Manufacturing) | -2.234 | 0.107 |  | 20.290 | >1000z |  | -2.126 | 0.119 |  | 1.122 | 3.072 |  | 17.674 | >1000z |  |
| Industry dummy: Health (vs Manufacturing) | -1.347 | 0.260 |  | 0.223 | 1.250 |  | 17.885 | >1000z |  | 0.289 | 1.335 |  | -2.079 | 0.125 |  |
| Industry dummy: Hotels (vs Manufacturing) | -0.682 | 0.505 |  | 0.223 | 1.250 |  | 17.500 | >1000z |  | -0.018 | 0.982 |  | 18.462 | >1000z |  |
| Industry dummy: Government MDAs (vs Manufacturing) | -2.371 | 0.093 |  | 36.982 | 1.151E+16 |  | -2.259 | 0.104 |  | 1.799 | 6.043 |  | 15.809 | >1000z |  |
| Industry dummy: ICT/Media (vs Manufacturing) | -1.257 | 0.285 |  | 37.156 | 1.370E+16 |  | -1.307 | 0.271 |  | 0.462 | 1.587 |  | 33.844 | 4.990E+14 |  |
| Industry dummy: Tport (vs Manufacturing) | -1.330 | 0.265 |  | 1.139 | 3.125 |  | 18.741 | >1000z |  | 0.220 | 1.246 |  | 18.755 | >1000z |  |
| Sector: Public (vs Private) | -1.097 | 0.334 |  | 18.204 | >1000z |  | -2.788\* | 0.062 |  | 2.140\* | 8.496 |  | 17.196 | >1000z |  |
| Size (No. of employees) | 0.913\* | 2.492 |  | 18.935 | >1000z |  | -1.473\* | 0.229 |  | -0.602 | 0.548 |  | 18.491 | >1000z |  |
| *Overall Model Fit* |  |  | 0.117 |  |  | 0.297 |  |  | 0.219 |  |  | 0.182 |  |  | 0.145 |

aN= 116. \*p < 0.05 zOdds ratio are high because values are close or equal to zero. Tport = Transport.

Table 5.9: Predicting the extent of use of recruitment techniques for technical staff from industry, sector and size

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Predictor variablesa | Dependent variable: Are technical staff recruited internally? | | | Dependent variable: Are technical staff recruited by word of mouth? | | | Dependent variable: Are technical staff recruited via recruitment agencies? | | | Dependent variable: Are technical staff recruited via advertisement? | | | Dependent variable: Are technical staff recruited via other systems? | | |
|  | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 |
| Industry |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Industry dummy: Banking/  Finance (vs Manufacturing) | 1.333 | 3.791 |  | 19.740 | >1000z |  | 0.978 | 2.659 |  | -0.706 | 0.494 |  | -18.681 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Education (vs Manufacturing) | 0.821 | 2.274 |  | 19.576 | >1000z |  | 14.954 | >1000z |  | -0.499 | 0.607 |  | -19.952 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Health (vs Manufacturing) | 1.288 | 3.627 |  | 0.935 | 2.548 |  | 16.210 | >1000z |  | -0.576 | 0.562 |  | -20.218 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Hotels (vs Manufacturing) | 1.622 | 5.065 |  | 0.512 | 1.668 |  | -2.233 | 0.107 |  | -0.397 | 0.673 |  | -0.049 | 0.952 |  |
| Industry dummy: Government MDAs (vs Manufacturing) | 0.923 | 2.516 |  | 7.672 | >1000z |  | -18.178 | 0.000 |  | -0.057 | 0.945 |  | -1.911 | 0.148 |  |
| Industry dummy: ICT/Media (vs Manufacturing) | 20.420 | >1000z |  | 19.353 | >1000z |  | -0.718 | 0.488 |  | 0.093 | 1.097 |  | -20.177 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Tport (vs Manufacturing) | 0.890 | 2.435 |  | 0.932 | 2.541 |  | 20.854 | >1000z |  | -0.572 | 0.565 |  | -0.029 | 0.972 |  |
| Sector: Public (vs Private) | 0.324 | 1.382 |  | -11.936 | 0.000 |  | -19.800 | 0.000 |  | 1.710\* | 5.532 |  | -1.951 | 0.142 |  |
| Size (No. of employees) | 0.567 | 1.762 |  | 3.244\* | 25.644 |  | -2.751 | 0.064 |  | -0.032 | 0.968 |  | -0.080 | 0.923 |  |
| *Overall Model Fit* |  |  | 0.078 |  |  | 0.306 |  |  | 0.306 |  |  | 0.139 |  |  | 0.105 |

aN= 115. \*p < 0.05 zOdds ratio are high because values are close or equal to zero. Tport = Transport.

Table 5.10: Predicting the extent of use of recruitment techniques for clerical staff from industry, sector and size

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Predictor variablesa | Dependent variable: Are clerical staff recruited internally? | | | Dependent variable: Are clerical staff recruited by word of mouth? | | | Dependent variable: Are clerical staff recruited via recruitment agencies? | | | Dependent variable: Are clerical staff recruited via advertisement? | | | Dependent variable: Are clerical staff recruited via other systems? | | |
|  | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 |
| Industry |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Industry dummy: Banking/  Finance (vs Manufacturing) | -0.172 | 0.842 |  | 1.377 | 3.962 |  | 0.615 | 1.849 |  | 0.219 | 1.245 |  | -17.885 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Education (vs Manufacturing) | -0.434 | 0.648 |  | -1.583 | 0.205 |  | 13.705 | >1000z |  | 1.657 | 5.245 |  | -19.369 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Health (vs Manufacturing) | -0.659 | 0.517 |  | -0.025 | 0.976 |  | 15.260 | >1000z |  | 1.101 | 3.008 |  | -18.578 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Hotels (vs Manufacturing) | 1.027 | 2.792 |  | -0.004 | 0.996 |  | 15.623 | >1000z |  | -0.694 | 0.499 |  | -0.675 | 0.509 |  |
| Industry dummy: Government MDAs (vs Manufacturing) | -0.848 | 0.428 |  | -0.084 | 0.919 |  | -17.123 | 0.000 |  | 1.452 | 4.270 |  | -18.615 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: ICT/Media (vs Manufacturing) | -0.415 | 0.660 |  | 0.271 | 1.311 |  | 18.104 | >1000z |  | 1.069 | 2.913 |  | -19.731 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Tport (vs Manufacturing) | 0.978 | 2.659 |  | 0.105 | 1.111 |  | 18.448 | >1000z |  | -0.432 | 0.649 |  | -0.022 | 0.978 |  |
| Sector: Public (vs Private) | -0.760 | 0.468 |  | -1.449 | 0.235 |  | -17.473 | 0.000 |  | 2.144\* | 8.534 |  | -0.802 | 0.449 |  |
| Size (No. of employees) | 0.738\* | 2.092 |  | 2.372\* | 10.724 |  | -2.041 | 0.130 |  | -1.035\* | 0.355 |  | -0.842 | 0.431 |  |
| *Overall Model Fit* |  |  | 0.097 |  |  | 0.333 |  |  | 0.094 |  |  | 0.271 |  |  | 0.069 |

aN =115 . \*p < 0.05. zOdds ratio are high because values are close or equal to zero. Tport = Transport.

Table 5.11: Predicting the extent of use of recruitment techniques for manual staff from industry, sector and size

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Predictor variablesa | Dependent variable: Are manual staff recruited internally? | | | Dependent variable: Are manual staff recruited by word of mouth? | | | Dependent variable: Are manual staff recruited via recruitment agencies? | | | Dependent variable: Are manual staff recruited via advertisement? | | | Dependent variable: Are manual staff recruited via other systems? | | |
|  | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 |
| Industry |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Industry dummy: Banking/  Finance (vs Manufacturing) | 0.345 | 1.412 |  | -0.707 | 0.493 |  | -17.609 | 0.000 |  | 1.319 | 3.739 |  | -1.667 | 0.189 |  |
| Industry dummy: Education (vs Manufacturing) | 0.588 | 1.801 |  | -19.326 | 0.000 |  | -3.094 | 0.045 |  | -0.019 | 0.981 |  | -0.011 | 0.989 |  |
| Industry dummy: Health (vs Manufacturing) | 0.588 | 1.800 |  | -0.662 | 0.516 |  | -1.715 | 0.180 |  | 0.403 | 1.497 |  | -0.420 | 0.657 |  |
| Industry dummy: Hotels (vs Manufacturing) | 0.407 | 1.503 |  | 0.547 | 1.728 |  | -1.230 | 0.292 |  | -1.136 | 0.321 |  | 18.306 | >1000z |  |
| Industry dummy: Government MDAs (vs Manufacturing) | 1.031 | 2.805 |  | -18.980 | 0.000 |  | -34.987 | 0.000 |  | -0.605 | 0.546 |  | 0.118 | 1.125 |  |
| Industry dummy: ICT/Media (vs Manufacturing) | 0.074 | 1.077 |  | 0.275 | 1.316 |  | -0.082 | 0.922 |  | -0.145 | 0.865 |  | -0.850 | 0.427 |  |
| Industry dummy: Tport (vs Manufacturing) | 0.375 | 1.455 |  | 0.628 | 1.873 |  | 0.238 | 1.268 |  | -0.638 | 0.528 |  | 18.237 | >1000z |  |
| Sector: Public (vs Private) | 0.801 | 2.229 |  | -20.721 | 0.000 |  | -17.354 | 0.000 |  | 0.445 | 1.560 |  | 1.091 | 2.976 |  |
| Size (No. of employees) | 0.126 | 1.134 |  | 2.304\* | 10.011 |  | -1.317 | 0.268 |  | -1.439\* | 0.237 |  | 0.514 | 1.672 |  |
| *Overall Model Fit* |  |  | 0.016 |  |  | 0.426 |  |  | 0.060 |  |  | 0.290 |  |  | 0.056 |

aN= 112 \*p < 0.05 zOdds ratio are high because values are close or equal to zero. Tport = Transport.

Regarding manual staff (Table 5.11), whilst the odds of recruiting manual staff via word of mouth were 10 times higher in small organizations (EXP(β) = 10.011) than large organizations, the odds for using advertisement were higher in large organizations.

The effect of industry, sector and size on the use of selection techniques across employee groups is presented in tables 5.12, 5.13, 5.14 and 5.15. The results for management staff (Table 5.12) indicates that the odds for selecting management staff via completing application forms were almost 14 times higher in small organizations (EXP(β) = 13.887) than large organizations. Meanwhile, the odds of using interviews and psychometric tests were higher in large organizations than small organizations with similar results reported for technical staff (Table 5.13). As for clerical staff (Table 5.14), the odds of selecting clerical staff via filling application form were almost 4 times higher in small organizations (EXP(β) = 3.774) than large organizations whilst the odds of using interviews and psychometric tests were higher in large organizations than for small organizations. In terms of selecting manual staff (Table 5.15), the odds that organizations will select without interviews were almost 45 times higher in small organizations (EXP(β) = 44.935) than for large organizations; whilst that of selection via filling application forms were almost 3 times higher in small organizations (EXP(β) = 2.817). Likewise other employee groups, the odds of using interviews and psychometric tests were higher in large organizations than small organizations.

On the whole, the finding on recruitment and selection techniques used across organizations in Nigeria suggests that the use of specific recruitment techniques varied based on the type of organization and employee category. Formal techniques such advertisement were more likely to be used in public than private sector as well as in large than in small organizations. These formal techniques were more likely to be used for recruiting management and technical staff whilst clerical and manual staff were more likely to be recruited internally and via word of mouth. Similarly, the use of formal techniques of selection was more likely in large than in small organizations as well as in public than in private sector organizations. Meanwhile, industries such as banking/financial services, health and MDAs were more likely to use formal techniques of recruitment and selection than industries such as hotels and transport. This means that the use of recruitment and selection techniques in Nigeria depends on the sector, industry and size of the organization.

Table 5.12: Predicting the extent of use of selection techniques for management staff from industry, sector and size

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Predictor variablesa | | Dependent variable: Are management staff selected without interview? | | | Dependent variable: Are management staff selected by filling in an application form? | | | Dependent variable: Are management staff selected by filling in application form and interview? | | | Dependent variable: Are psychometric tests used in selecting management staff? | | | Dependent variable: Are management staff selected via other systems? | | |
|  | | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 |
| Industry | |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Industry dummy: Banking/  Finance (vs Manufacturing) | 18.080 | | >1000z |  | -1.089 | 0.337 |  | 1.113 | 3.044 |  | -1.201 | 0.301 |  | -19.215 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Education (vs Manufacturing) | 17.488 | | >1000z |  | 0.418 | 1.519 |  | -0.668 | 0.513 |  | -13.778 | >1000z |  | -19.263 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Health (vs Manufacturing) | -0.253 | | 0.776 |  | 0.602 | 1.826 |  | 0.249 | 1.283 |  | -2.491 | 0.083 |  | -19.102 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Hotels (vs Manufacturing) | 0.310 | | 1.364 |  | 1.135 | 3.113 |  | -0.517 | 0.596 |  | 14.428 | >1000z |  | -18.631 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Government MDAs (vs Manufacturing) | -12.792 | | 0.000 |  | -0.588 | 0.556 |  | 1.220 | 3.386 |  | -4.272 | 0.014 |  | -20.149 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: ICT/Media (vs Manufacturing) | 18.121 | | >1000z |  | 0.249 | 1.283 |  | -1.448 | 0.235 |  | -2.960 | 0.052 |  | -0.321 | 0.725 |  |
| Industry dummy: Tport (vs Manufacturing) | 0.035 | | 1.035 |  | 0.856 | 2.353 |  | -0.444 | 0.642 |  | 18.520 | >1000z |  | 0.227 | 1.255 |  |
| Sector: Public (vs Private) | -12.819 | | 0.000 |  | -0.507 | 0.603 |  | 0.141 | 1.151 |  | -3.600 | 0.027 |  | -0.528 | 0.590 |  |
| Size (No. of employees) | 2.718 | | 15.148 |  | 2.631\* | 13.887 |  | -2.329\* | 0.097 |  | -2.701\* | 0.067 |  | 0.560 | 1.751 |  |
| *Overall Model Fit* | |  |  | 0.189 |  |  | 0.243 |  |  | 0.350 |  |  | 0.252 |  |  | 0.072 |

aN= 117 \*p < 0.05 zOdds ratio are high because values are close or equal to zero. Tport = Transport.

Table 5.13: Predicting the extent of use of selection techniques for technical staff from industry, sector and size

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Predictor variablesa | Dependent variable: Are technical staff selected without interview? | | | Dependent variable: Are technical staff selected by filling in an application form? | | | Dependent variable: Are technical staff selected by filling in application form and interview? | | | Dependent variable: Are psychometric tests used in selecting technical staff? | | | Dependent variable: Are technical staff selected via other systems? | | |
|  | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 |
| Industry |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Industry dummy: Banking/  Finance (vs Manufacturing) | 18.196 | >1000z |  | -0.281 | 0.755 |  | 0.177 | 1.194 |  | -1.125 | 0.325 |  | -0.945 | 0.389 |  |
| Industry dummy: Education (vs Manufacturing) | 49.985 | 5.107E+21 |  | 0.435 | 1.545 |  | -0.942 | 0.390 |  | 17.973 | >1000z |  | -0.414 | 0.661 |  |
| Industry dummy: Health (vs Manufacturing) | 18.230 | >1000z |  | 0.574 | 1.776 |  | -0.571 | 0.565 |  | -0.034 | 0.966 |  | -0.884 | 0.413 |  |
| Industry dummy: Hotels (vs Manufacturing) | 0.875 | 2.400 |  | 0.545 | 1.724 |  | -0.648 | 0.523 |  | 17.861 | >1000z |  | -0.238 | 0.788 |  |
| Industry dummy: Government MDAs (vs Manufacturing) | 50.262 | 6.736E+21 |  | -0.572 | 0.564 |  | -0.033 | 0.967 |  | -1.288 | 0.293 |  | -1.201 | 0.301 |  |
| Industry dummy: ICT/Media (vs Manufacturing) | 50.532 | 8.826E+21 |  | -0.124 | 0.884 |  | -1.366 | 0.255 |  | -2.500 | 0.082 |  | 18.669 | >1000z |  |
| Industry dummy: Tport (vs Manufacturing) | 1.163 | 3.200 |  | 0.126 | 1.134 |  | -0.451 | 0.637 |  | 0.933 | 2.542 |  | -0.102 | 0.903 |  |
| Sector: Public (vs Private) | 32.545 | 1.362E+14 |  | -0.633 | 0.531 |  | -0.321 | 0.726 |  | -1.496 | 0.224 |  | 0.823 | 2.277 |  |
| Size (No. of employees) | 17.275 | >1000z |  | 1.046 | 2.846 |  | -1.659\* | 0.190 |  | -1.655\* | 0.191 |  | 1.193\* | 3.297 |  |
| *Overall Model Fit* |  |  | 0.118 |  |  | 0.105 |  |  | 0.242 |  |  | 0.318 |  |  | 0.082 |

aN= 114 \*p < 0.05 zOdds ratio are high because values are close or equal to zero. Tport = Transport.

Table 5.14: Predicting the extent of use of selection techniques for clerical staff from industry, sector and size

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Predictor variablesa | Dependent variable: Are clerical staff selected without interview? | | | Dependent variable: Are clerical staff selected by filling in an application form? | | | Dependent variable: Are clerical staff selected by filling in application form and interview? | | | Dependent variable: Are psychometric tests used in selecting clerical staff? | | | Dependent variable: Are clerical staff selected via other systems? | | |
|  | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 |
| Industry |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Industry dummy: Banking/  Finance (vs Manufacturing) | 0.470 | 1.600 |  | -0.2.91 | 0.747 |  | 0.687 | 1.988 |  | 0.824 | 2.280 |  | -0.697 | 0.498 |  |
| Industry dummy: Education (vs Manufacturing) | -0.233 | 0.800 |  | -0.281 | 0.755 |  | 1.634 | 5.123 |  | 15.332 | >1000z |  | -3.781\* | 0.023 |  |
| Industry dummy: Health (vs Manufacturing) | -15.826 | 0.000 |  | 0.217 | 1.243 |  | 0.417 | 1.518 |  | -0.800 | 0.499 |  | -1.481 | 0.227 |  |
| Industry dummy: Hotels (vs Manufacturing) | 0.693 | 2.000 |  | 0.157 | 1.170 |  | -0.690 | 0.502 |  | 15.564 | >1000z |  | 18.114 | >1000z |  |
| Industry dummy: Government MDAs (vs Manufacturing) | -16.802 | 0.000 |  | -0.796 | 0.451 |  | 2.985 | 19.782 |  | -2.580 | 0.076 |  | -22.173 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: ICT/Media (vs Manufacturing) | 18.448 | >1000z |  | -1.008 | 0.365 |  | 0.844 | 2.325 |  | -1.682 | 0.186 |  | 16.935 | >1000z |  |
| Industry dummy: Tport (vs Manufacturing) | 0.288 | 1.333 |  | 0.721 | 2.057 |  | -0.195 | 0.823 |  | 19.960 | >1000z |  | -0.787 | 0.455 |  |
| Sector: Public (vs Private) | -17.272 | 0.000 |  | -0.734 | 0.480 |  | 2.649 | 14.141 |  | -3.125 | 0.044 |  | -20.925 | 0.000 |  |
| Size (No. of employees) | 32.717 | 1.618E+14 |  | 1.328\* | 3.774 |  | -1.788\* | 0.167 |  | -2.804\* | 0.061 |  | 0.005 | 1.005 |  |
| *Overall Model Fit* |  |  | 0.291 |  |  | 0.149 |  |  | 0.352 |  |  | 0.255 |  |  | 0.119 |

aN= 114 \*p < 0.05 zOdds ratio are high because values are close or equal to zero. Tport = Transport.

Table 5.15: Predicting the extent of use of selection techniques for manual staff from industry, sector and size

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Predictor variablesa | Dependent variable: Are manual staff selected without interview? | | | Dependent variable: Are manual staff selected by filling in an application form? | | | Dependent variable: Are manual staff selected by filling in application form and interview? | | | Dependent variable: Are psychometric tests used in selecting manual staff? | | | Dependent variable: Are manual staff selected via other systems? | | |
|  | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 |
| Industry |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Industry dummy: Banking/  Finance (vs Manufacturing) | 0.837 | 2.309 |  | -1.031 | 0.356 |  | 1.994 | 7.348 |  | -17.898 | 0.000 |  | -0.401 | 0.670 |  |
| Industry dummy: Education (vs Manufacturing) | -1.541 | 0.214 |  | -0.079 | 0.924 |  | 1.352 | 3.866 |  | -3.503 | 0.030 |  | -18.902 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Health (vs Manufacturing) | -1.169 | 0.311 |  | -0.400 | 0.670 |  | 1.747 | 5.740 |  | -19.761 | 0.000 |  | -18.954 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Hotels (vs Manufacturing) | 1.106 | 3.024 |  | 0.862 | 2.367 |  | -1.032 | 0.356 |  | -3.010 | 0.049 |  | -19.000 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Government MDAs (vs Manufacturing) | -1.408 | 0.245 |  | -0.263 | 0.839 |  | 1.768 | 5.857 |  | -20.458 | 0.000 |  | -19.254 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: ICT/Media (vs Manufacturing) | 0.363 | 1.437 |  | -0.841 | 0.431 |  | 0.521 | 1.683 |  | -20.793 | 0.000 |  | 0.150 | 0.861 |  |
| Industry dummy: Tport (vs Manufacturing) | 1.204 | 3.332 |  | -0.072 | 0.930 |  | 0.187 | 1.206 |  | 0.422 | 1.525 |  | -18.687 | 0.000 |  |
| Sector: Public (vs Private) | -2.542 | 0.079 |  | -0.086 | 0.918 |  | 1.353 | 3.871 |  | -2.653 | 0.070 |  | -0.174 | 0.840 |  |
| Size (No. of employees) | 3.805\* | 44.935 |  | 1.036\* | 2.817 |  | -3.265\* | 0.038 |  | -2.458\* | 0.086 |  | 0.354 | 1.425 |  |
| *Overall Model Fit* |  |  | 0.432 |  |  | 0.106 |  |  | 0.524 |  |  | 0.160 |  |  | 0.058 |

aN= 115 \*p < 0.05 Tport = Transport.

#### 5.4.2 Training

To evaluate the techniques of training used, the responses to questions on the various forms of training were analysed. These questions ranged from the provision of informal training to provision of formal training opportunities such as sponsorship of courses with outside training bodies for various job categories. Results in table 5.16 indicate that majority of the organizations stated they provided informal workplace based training (61.7%). Whilst previous research has shown that training was generally low in Nigerian organizations (Anakwe, 2002), the positive responses to the provision of formal workplace based training was encouraging, although the type of formal training that was mostly provided was uncertified (53.0%). This may be due to the possibility of organizations to access monetary incentives from industrial training fund (ITF) for providing training (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001). However, the provision of uncertified formal training varied across industries and was more likely to be provided in ICT/media industry (71.4%) and more in public sector organizations (59.2%).

Nonetheless, whilst certified formal training was low (31.0%) compared to the uncertified variety, this form of training was more likely to be provided by organizations in the health industry (57.1%), perhaps due to the heavy reliance on highly educated, highly skilled and highly professionalized employee groups such as doctors and pharmacists in the health industry. As for sector, certified formal training was more likely to be provided in the public sector and may be due to the cost involved in providing this form of training, which private organizations may want to avoid. A reasonable number of organizations indicated they used external training and expectedly, this was mostly for technical staff (57.5%) but again, this was more likely to happen in the public sector. One reason for this may be as a result of the increasing interest of international donor agencies to sponsor the training of public sector workers in many developing countries (cf. Wood *et al*., 2011). Whilst a minority of organizations (6.7%) claimed they used ‘other systems’ of training, the content analysis of their responses indicate that of the number using ‘other systems, majority said they used computer based training (62.5%) whilst others claimed

Table 5.16: Techniques of training across whole sample, industry and sector

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  | **Industry** | | | | | | | | **Sector** | |
| Category | Whole  Sample | Banking/  Financial  Services | Education | Health | Manufacturing | Hotels | Govt. MDAs | ICT/  Media | Tport | Private | Public |
| Do you make use of informal workplace based training?a | “Yes” | 61.7% | 46.7% | 41.7% | 46.2% | 85.7% | 80.0% | 52.9% | 42.9% | 83.3% | 76.1% | 37.5% |
| Do you make use of formal workplace based training (uncertified)b | “Yes” | 53.0% | 64.3% | 57.1% | 61.5% | 45.5% | 36.4% | 62.5% | 71.4% | 25.0% | 48.5% | 59.2% |
| Do you make use of formal workplace based training (certified)?c | “Yes” | 31.0% | 40.0% | 30.8% | 57.1% | 13.6% | 11.1% | 37.5% | 42.9% | 11.1% | 15.6% | 51.0% |
| Do you make use of sponsored courses with outside training body (technical)?d | “Yes” | 57.5% | 62.5% | 61.5% | 85.7% | 42.1% | 27.3% | 69.6% | 83.3% | 27.3% | 45.5% | 74.5% |
| Do you make use of sponsored courses with outside training body (administrative)?e | “Yes” | 38.5% | 53.3% | 23.1% | 53.8% | 17.6% | 22.2% | 57.9% | 66.7% | 16.7% | 23.0% | 60.5% |
| Do you make use of sponsored courses with outside training body (managerial)?f | “Yes” | 39.0% | 50.0% | 30.8% | 46.2% | 23.5% | 22.2% | 61.1% | 50.0% | 25.0% | 23.7% | 61.0% |
| Do you make use of other system of training?g | “Yes” | 6.5% | 7.1% | 0.0% | 7.7% | 0.0% | 9.1% | 15.0% | 0.0% | 9.1% | 4.8% | 9.1% |

All %s taken use N of valid response as base (i.e. Missing, ‘Not Applicable’ and ‘Don’t Know’ responses are excluded). Tport = Transport.

a107<N<122.

b117<N<122.

c113<N<122.

d113<N<122.

e102<N<122.

f100<N<122.

g107<N<122.

they used cross-functional training (36.1%) with few indicating the use of excursions as a system of training (7.6%).

In order to predict the effect of industry, sector and size on the use of training forms, logistic regression was used, with results presented in tables 5.17 and 5.18. Results indicate that informal training was more likely to be used in small organizations. When it comes to uncertified formal training, results indicate that this was more likely to be used in manufacturing industry compared to education, MDAs and ICT/media.

Table 5.17: Predicting the use of training techniques from industry, sector and size

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Predictor variables | aDependent variable: Do you make use informal workplace based training? | | | bDependent variable: Do you make use of formal workplace based training (uncertified)? | | | cDependent variable: Do you make use of formal workplace based training (certified)? | | |
| B | EXP(B) | Pseudo  R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo  R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 |
| Industry |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Industry dummy: Banking/  Finance (vs Manufacturing) | 0.828 | 2.289 |  | -0.090 | 0.914 |  | 0.871 | 2.389 |  |
| Industry dummy: Education (vs Manufacturing) | 1.768 | 5.859 |  | -2.108\* | 0.121 |  | 0.802 | 2.229 |  |
| Industry dummy: Health (vs Manufacturing) | 1.320 | 3.742 |  | -0.874 | 0.417 |  | -0.948 | 0.387 |  |
| Industry dummy: Hotels (vs Manufacturing) | 1.282 | 3.606 |  | -0.191 | 0.826 |  | -0.863 | 0.422 |  |
| Industry dummy: Government MDAs (vs Manufacturing) | 0.806 | 2.239 |  | -2.474\* | 0.084 |  | 1.295 | 3.650 |  |
| Industry dummy: ICT/Media (vs Manufacturing) | 1.969 | 7.160 |  | -2.923\* | 0.054 |  | -0.403 | 0.669 |  |
| Industry dummy: Tport (vs Manufacturing) | 0.466 | 1.594 |  | 0.839 | 2.314 |  | 0.019 | 1.019 |  |
| Sector: Public (vs Private) | -0.836 | 0.089 |  | -2.416\* | 0.089 |  | 2.094\* | 8.116 |  |
| Size (No. of employees) | 1.109\* | 3.030 |  | -1.303\* | 0.272 |  | -1.559\* | 0.210 |  |
| *Overall Model Fit* |  |  | 0.318 |  |  | 0.255 |  |  | 0.367 |
| Predictor variables | dDo you make use of sponsored courses with outside training body (technical)? | | | eDo you make use of sponsored courses with outside training body (administrative)? | | | fDo you make use of sponsored courses with outside training body (managerial)? | | |
| B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 |
| Industry |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Industry dummy: Banking/  Finance (vs Manufacturing) | 0.408 | 1.504 |  | -0.627 | 0.534 |  | -0.363 | 0.696 |  |
| Industry dummy: Education (vs Manufacturing) | -1.663 | 0.190 |  | 1.560 | 4.759 |  | 1.680 | 5.364 |  |
| Industry dummy: Health (vs Manufacturing) | -2.304 | 0.100 |  | -0.220 | 0.802 |  | 0.558 | 1.746 |  |
| Industry dummy: Hotels (vs Manufacturing) | -0.579 | 0.560 |  | -0.811 | 0.444 |  | -0.112 | 0.894 |  |
| Industry dummy: Government MDAs (vs Manufacturing) | -1.846 | 0.158 |  | 0.303 | 1.354 |  | 0.749 | 2.114 |  |
| Industry dummy: ICT/Media (vs Manufacturing) | -2.910\* | 0.054 |  | -1.330 | 0.264 |  | 0.067 | 1.069 |  |
| Industry dummy: Tport (vs Manufacturing) | -0.058 | 0.944 |  | -0.113 | 0.894 |  | -0.177 | 0.838 |  |
| Sector: Public (vs Private) | -0.834 | 0.434 |  | 2.058\* | 7.832 |  | 2.308\* | 10.051 |  |
| Size (No. of employees) | -1.864\* | 0.155 |  | -0.692\* | 0.501 |  | -0.285 | 0.752 |  |
| *Overall Model Fit* |  |  | 0.396 |  |  | 0.284 |  |  | 0.192 |

aN = 107; bN = 117; cN = 113; dN =113; eN = 102; fN = 100. \*p < 0.05 Tport = Transport.

Table 5.18: Predicting the use of training techniques from industry, sector and size (cont’d)

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | aDependent variable: Do you make use of other system of training? | | |
| B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 |
| Industry |  |  |  |
| Industry dummy: Banking/Finance (vs Manufacturing) | -18.690 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Education (vs Manufacturing) | 1.509 | 4.520 |  |
| Industry dummy: Health (vs Manufacturing) | -18.270 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Hotels (vs Manufacturing) | -18.454 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: Government MDAs (vs Manufacturing) | -17.705 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: ICT/Media (vs Manufacturing) | 1.586 | 4.884 |  |
| Industry dummy: Tport (vs Manufacturing) | -18.479 | 0.000 |  |
| Sector: Public (vs Private) | 2.076 | 7.970 |  |
| Size (No. of employees) | 0.862 | 2.368 |  |
| *Overall Model Fit* |  |  | 0.086 |

aN = 107 \*p < 0.05 Tport = Transport.

As for sector, uncertified formal training was more likely to be used in the private sector than in the public sector. However, the reverse was the case for certified formal training which was more likely to be used in the public sector with the odds of this happening being 8 times higher in public sector (EXP(β) = 8.116) than private sector. As for sponsored courses, large organizations were more likely to sponsor courses with outside training bodies for all employee groups, whilst rather surprisingly, the odds of organizations in the manufacturing industry sponsoring technical employees to outside courses were higher than those in the ICT/media. Moreover, public sector organizations were more likely to sponsor courses for both administrative and managerial employees with the odds being around 8 times (EXP(β) = 7.832) and 10 times (EXP(β) = 10.051) higher for public sector organizations respectively than for private organizations.

In sum, the finding on the specific techniques of training used across organizations in Nigeria indicates that informal training methods were dominant across organizations in Nigeria. However, the use of this technique was more likely in small organizations than in large ones; and in the private sector than in the public sector. Meanwhile, the use of formal techniques of training was encouraging; although it was the uncertified variety that was mostly used. The use of uncertified training was more likely in the private sector whilst the use of certified formal training was more likely in the public sector. More so, public sector organizations were more likely to make use of external training. There were also variations based on industry therefore indicating that the nature of training used in Nigerian organizations is influenced by the sector, industry and size of organization.

#### 5.4.3 Employee Benefits

In order to evaluate the techniques of employee benefits used across organizations in Nigeria, responses to questions on the type of benefits ranging from productivity awards to statutory benefits such as paid vacation were analysed. Results presented in table 5.19 indicate that the provision of statutory benefits such as overtime, severance package, breaks during working day, paid vacation, paid sick leave and health insurance was generally low, ranging from 57.4% to 79.8% across the whole sample. However, the provision of benefits in the private sector was lower (ranging from 25% to 66.7%) whilst those for public sector were higher (ranging from 73.5% to 95.8%). Although the figures for the public sector were encouraging, as Wood and colleagues would say, these are basic entitlements for employees that every organization is expected to provide (Wood *et al.*, 2011); most especially for public sector organizations. However, the pressure to be ‘more efficient’ may force some public sector organizations to deny employees some of these benefits. Of course, the provision of benefits also varied across industries such that expectedly, MDAs were likely to rate highest in the provision of most of these benefits whilst organizations in the banking/financial services industry (26.7%) and hotels (50.0%) rated lowest in the provision of paid overtime and paid vacation respectively.

Majority of the organizations stated they provided ‘other benefits’ (82.9%) which suggests the diversity in the type of benefits provided across organizations. Content analysis of their responses indicate that of the organizations using ‘other benefits’, majority (73.3%) used benefits that can be classified as informal benefits which include: emergency loans and salary advance, support during celebratory periods such as weddings, distribution of items during festive periods such as Xmas (for Christian employees) and Salah (for Muslim employees), and support for employees in time of ‘need’ such as family bereavement. On the other hand, 39.6% stated they used benefits that can be classified as formal benefits such as housing and transport allowance, childcare support such as provision of tuition fee support for education of children of employees, and counselling. The latter category of benefits are more likely to be provided in large organizations and in public sector organizations.

Results of logistic regression (Table 5.20) indicate that the odds were higher for productivity awards to be provided in the private sector than in public sector organizations. The odds of overtime to be paid were an astonishing 219 times higher in the public sector (EXP(β) =219.031) than in private sector organizations. As for industry variations, overtime was more likely to be paid in organizations in banking/financial services industry and ICT/media than in manufacturing industry. For paid vacation, the odds of this to be provided were around 30 times higher in the public sector (EXP(β) = 30.547) than in private sector organizations; as well as more likely to be provided in large organizations. Paid sick leave and health insurance were also more likely to be provided in large organizations than in small organizations whilst health insurance was also more likely to be provided in manufacturing industry than in banking/financial services. Indeed, ‘other benefits’ were more likely to be provided in private sector organizations than in public sector ones. This is perhaps to compensate for the non-provision of statutory benefits in most of the private sector organizations.

The finding on the specific types of employee benefits indicates that the use of statutorily-required benefits such as paid vacation, severance package, paid sick leave among others was low across organizations in Nigeria. However, these types of benefits were more likely to be provided in the public sector than in the private sector; as well as in large organizations than in small organizations. There were also variations in the use of these formal types of benefits based on industry. Meanwhile, informal benefits were more likely to be used across organizations in Nigeria with the use of these types of benefits more likely in private sector than in public sector; as well as in small organizations than in large ones. On the whole, the finding indicates that the use of specific types of employee benefits varied according to sector, industry and size of organization.

Table 5.19: Techniques of employee benefits across whole sample, industry and sector

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  | **Industry** | | | | | | | | **Sector** | |
| Category | Whole  Sample | Banking/  Financial  Services | Education | Health | Manufacturing | Hotels | Govt. MDAs | ICT/  Media | Tport | Private | Public |
| Are productivity awards available in your organization?a | “Yes” | 35.8% | 60.0% | 16.7% | 50.0% | 34.8% | 33.3% | 26.3% | 42.9% | 25.0% | 38.8% | 31.0% |
| Is overtime paid in your organization?b | “Yes” | 61.4% | 26.7% | 75.0% | 83.3% | 54.5% | 50.0% | 95.8% | 57.1% | 25.0% | 37.3% | 95.7% |
| Is severance package available in your organization?c | “Yes” | 57.4% | 80.0% | 50.0% | 64.3% | 36.4% | 36.4% | 82.6% | 71.4% | 27.3% | 38.2% | 85.1% |
| Are breaks during working day available in your organization?d | “Yes” | 79.8% | 84.6% | 91.7% | 92.9% | 71.4% | 66.7% | 81.8% | 71.4% | 66.7% | 73.7% | 87.2% |
| Is paid vacation available in your organization?e | “Yes” | 69.3% | 80.0% | 75.0% | 75.0% | 54.5% | 50.0% | 87.5% | 71.4% | 50.0% | 53.7% | 91.5% |
| Is paid sick leave available in your organization?f | “Yes” | 75.5% | 86.7% | 84.6% | 84.6% | 57.1% | 60.0% | 100.0% | 71.4% | 40.0% | 60.3% | 95.8% |
| Is health insurance available in your organization?g | “Yes” | 69.6% | 93.8% | 61.5%% | 92.9% | 45.5% | 40.0% | 86.4% | 85.7% | 45.5% | 57.4% | 87.2% |
| Are other employee benefits in your organization?h | “Yes” | 82.9% | 87.5% | 78.6% | 78.6% | 84.2% | 88.9% | 83.3% | 83.3% | 88.9% | 90.3% | 73.5% |

All %s taken use N of valid response as base (i.e. Missing, ‘Not Applicable’ and ‘Don’t Know’ responses are excluded). Tport = Transport.

a109<N<122.

b114<N<122.

c115<N<122.

d104<N<122.

e114<N<122.

f111<N<122.

g115<N<122.

h111<N<122.

Table 5.20: Predicting the use of employee benefits techniques from industry, sector and size

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Predictor variables | aDependent variable: Are productivity awards provided in your organization? | | | bDependent variable: Is overtime paid in your organization? | | | cDependent variable: Is severance package provided in your organization? | | |
| B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo  R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 |
| Industry |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Industry dummy: Banking/  Finance (vs Manufacturing) | 0.416 | 1.516 |  | 5.862\* | 351.544 |  | -1.054 | 0.348 |  |
| Industry dummy: Education (vs Manufacturing) | -0.551 | 0.577 |  | 2.185 | 8.890 |  | 20.270 | >1000z |  |
| Industry dummy: Health (vs Manufacturing) | -0.511 | 0.600 |  | 0.237 | 1.268 |  | 0.158 | 1.172 |  |
| Industry dummy: Hotels (vs Manufacturing) | -1.029 | 0.358 |  | -0.523 | 0.593 |  | -0.527 | 0.590 |  |
| Industry dummy: Government MDAs (vs Manufacturing) | -0.847 | 0.429 |  | 2.934 | 18.807 |  | 19.498 | >1000z |  |
| Industry dummy: ICT/Media (vs Manufacturing) | -2.359 | 0.095 |  | 3.793\* | 44.394 |  | 0.632 | 1.881 |  |
| Industry dummy: Tport (vs Manufacturing) | -0.036 | 0.715 |  | 1.201 | 3.324 |  | 0.267 | 1.305 |  |
| Sector: Public (vs Private) | -2.768\* | 0.063 |  | 5.389\* | 219.013 |  | 21.351 | >1000z |  |
| Size (No. of employees) | -2.309\* | 0.099 |  | -1.899\* | 0.150 |  | -0.0897 | 0.408 |  |
| *Overall Model Fit* |  |  | 0.390 |  |  | 0.519 |  |  | 0.378 |
| Predictor variables | dDependent variable: Are breaks during workday available in your organization? | | | eDependent variable: Is paid vacation available in your organization? | | | fDependent variable: Is paid sick leave available in your organization? | | |
| B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 |
| Industry |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Industry dummy: Banking/  Finance (vs Manufacturing) | -0.429 | 0.651 |  | -0.423 | 0.655 |  | -1.101 | 0.332 |  |
| Industry dummy: Education (vs Manufacturing) | -0.713 | 0.490 |  | 1.172 | 3.228 |  | -0.553 | 0.575 |  |
| Industry dummy: Health (vs Manufacturing) | -1.224 | 0.294 |  | 0.637 | 1.891 |  | -0.918 | 0.399 |  |
| Industry dummy: Hotels (vs Manufacturing) | 0.145 | 1.156 |  | -0.188 | 0.828 |  | -1.191 | 0.304 |  |
| Industry dummy: Government MDAs (vs Manufacturing) | 0.475 | 1.609 |  | 2.019 | 7.534 |  | -19.423 | 0.000 |  |
| Industry dummy: ICT/Media (vs Manufacturing) | 0.529 | 1.697 |  | 0.909 | 2.483 |  | -0.211 | 0.810 |  |
| Industry dummy: Tport (vs Manufacturing) | 0.157 | 1.170 |  | -0.118 | 0.888 |  | -0.057 | 0.945 |  |
| Sector: Public (vs Private) | 1.003 | 2.726 |  | 3.419\* | 30.547 |  | 1.106 | 3.021 |  |
| Size (No. of employees) | -0.120 | 0.887 |  | -0.825\* | 0.438 |  | -2.139\* | 0.118 |  |
| *Overall Model Fit* |  |  | 0.067 |  |  | 0.267 |  |  | 0.406 |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | gDependent variable: Is health insurance available in your organization? | | | hDependent variable: Are there other employee benefits available in your organization? | | |
| B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 |
| Industry |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Industry dummy: Banking/  Finance (vs Manufacturing) | -3.359\* | 0.035 |  | -1.515 | 0.220 |  |
| Industry dummy: Education (vs Manufacturing) | 0.289 | 1.335 |  | -1.854 | 0.157 |  |
| Industry dummy: Health (vs Manufacturing) | -3.018\* | 0.049 |  | -1.430 | 0.239 |  |
| Industry dummy: Hotels (vs Manufacturing) | -0.992 | 0.371 |  | -0.340 | 0.712 |  |
| Industry dummy: Government MDAs (vs Manufacturing) | -0.369 | 0.692 |  | -2.182 | 0.113 |  |
| Industry dummy: ICT/Media (vs Manufacturing) | -2.587 | 0.075 |  | -1.637 | 0.195 |  |
| Industry dummy: Tport (vs Manufacturing) | -1.567 | 0.209 |  | -0.355 | 0.701 |  |
| Sector: Public (vs Private) | 0.659 | 1.932 |  | -2.479\* | 0.084 |  |
| Size (No. of employees) | -2.615\* | 0.073 |  | 0.102 | 1.108 |  |
| *Overall Model Fit* |  |  | 0.424 |  |  | 0.075 |

aN = 109; bN = 114; cN = 115; dN= 104; eN = 114; fN = 111; gN = 115; hN= 111; \*p < 0.05; Tport = Transport. zOdds ratio are high because values are close or equal to zero.

#### 5.4.4 Employee Participation

To evaluate the techniques of employee participation used in Nigerian organizations, responses to questions ranging from techniques of information sharing to employee consultation were analysed. The results presented in table 5.21 indicate that apart from the use of notice boards (61.1%), the use of formal methods of information sharing was low: team briefing (32.1%); shop steward (45.3%); and organizational newsletter (45.1%). This varied across industry with organizations in the health industry more likely to state they used notice boards (76.9%) as were private sector organizations. Both team briefing and shop steward had the highest use in MDAs (57.1% & 84.0% respectively) and in the public sector (48.9% & 87.8%). On the other hand, organizational newsletter had the highest use in organizations in banking/financial services industry (78.6%) and in the private sector (49.3%). However, it was the option for ‘other system of information sharing system’ that had the highest positive response (76.1%) whilst private sector organizations were more likely to use such ‘other systems’. The content analysis of responses show that majority of organizations using ‘other systems’ shared information via regular meetings (51.8%); others through circulars/internal memos (42.7%); staff e-mails (18.2%); and text messaging (9.0%).

The use of employee consultation mechanisms was also low with responses varied across the type of consultation mechanism as well as by industry and sector. Across the whole sample, 29.7% of respondents indicated they used suggestion boxes whilst this was more likely to be used in the health industry (53.8%) and in the public sector. When it comes to workplace surveys, only 8.7% stated that this consultation mechanism was used in their organization; this was used mostly in organizations in ICT/media industry (14.3%) and in the private sector. As for briefing where feedback is solicited, 30.1% of the organizations indicated this method of consultation was used in their organizations whilst it had the highest use in the health industry (50.0%) and in the public sector. Just like the techniques of information sharing, it was the option of ‘other systems’ of consultation that had the highest positive response (78.6%). Content analysis of specific techniques of ‘other systems’ of consultation indicate that majority of the respondents (58.3%) stated their organizations had an ‘open door policy’ wherein employees had unfettered access to managers to express their viewpoints on any issue whilst 45.8% stated it was through general meetings that employees could make contributions on workplace issues. These findings correspond with those reported by Wood and colleagues in their Mozambican study (Webster & Wood, 2005; Wood *et al*., 2011). Other respondents (4.6%) however stated their organizations provide employees with the opportunity to make suggestions via online platforms that could be considered as substitutes to traditional suggestion boxes.

Logistic regression was used to examine the effect of industry, sector and size on the use of information sharing techniques with results presented in table 5.22. Results indicate that the odds for team briefing to be used was higher in manufacturing industry then in MDAs as well more likely to be used in large organizations than in small ones. Similarly, the odds of using stop steward and newsletter were higher in large organizations than in small ones whilst the odds of using ‘other systems’ of information sharing were higher in private sector than in public sector organizations. As for the effect of industry, sector and size on the use of consultation techniques, results of logistic regression presented in table 5.23 indicate that the odds of using suggestion boxes were higher in banking/financial services, MDAs, and education industries than in manufacturing industry whilst the odds of using suggestion boxes were 20 times higher in public sector organizations (EXP(β) = 20.283) than in the private sector. At the same time, suggestion boxes were more likely to be used in large organizations, as were workplace surveys. Finally, the odds of using briefing where feedback is solicited were almost 19 times higher in public sector organizations (EXP(β) = 18.749) than in the private sector.

In sum, the finding on the techniques of employee participation indicates that the use of informal techniques in the form of staff meetings was dominant across organizations in Nigeria. Whilst the use of formal techniques of information sharing and employee consultation were generally low, public sector organizations were more likely to use employee consultation schemes such as suggestion boxes and briefing where feedback is solicited. On the other hand, top-down methods of information sharing such as notice boards were more likely to be used in the private sector. Nevertheless, the use of employee participation techniques varied according to industry and size of organization, with large organizations more likely to adopt formal techniques of employee consultation.

Table 5.21: Techniques of employee participation across whole sample, industry and sector

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  | **Industry** | | | | | | | | **Sector** | |
| Category | Whole  Sample | Banking/  Financial  Services | Education | Health | Manufacturing | Hotels | Govt. MDAs | ICT/  Media | Tport | Private | Public |
| Does your organization use notice boards?a | “Yes” | 61.1% | 75.0% | 76.9% | 58.3% | 56.5% | 60.0% | 52.2% | 66.7% | 50.0% | 63.1% | 58.3% |
| Does your organization use team briefing/cascade briefings?b | “Yes” | 32.1% | 37.5% | 38.5% | 38.5% | 18.2% | 20.0% | 57.1% | 20.0% | 8.3% | 20.9% | 48.9% |
| Does your organization use shop steward/representative briefings?c | “Yes” | 45.3% | 20.0% | 61.5% | 53.8% | 31.8% | 9.1% | 84.0% | 57.1% | 18.2% | 14.7% | 87.8% |
| Does your organization use organization newsletter?d | “Yes” | 45.1% | 78.6% | 21.4% | 50.0% | 59.1% | 27.3% | 30.0% | 66.7% | 33.3% | 49.3% | 38.6% |
| Does your organization use other systems of information sharing?e | “Yes” | 76.1% | 73.3% | 71.4% | 84.6% | 80.0% | 77.8% | 66.7% | 85.7% | 81.8% | 84.4% | 65.3% |
| Do you make use of suggestion boxes?f | “Yes” | 29.7% | 25.0% | 16.7% | 53.8% | 26.3% | 20.0% | 50.0% | 28.6% | 0.0% | 14.3% | 50.0% |
| Do you make use of workplace surveys?g | “Yes” | 8.7% | 12.5% | 0.0% | 8.3% | 10.0% | 9.1% | 12.0% | 14.3% | 0.0% | 9.4% | 7.8% |
| Do you make use of briefings where feedback is solicited?h | “Yes” | 30.1% | 33.3% | 30.8% | 50.0% | 17.4% | 10.0% | 41.7% | 40.0% | 11.1% | 13.6% | 53.2% |
| Do you make use of other systems of employee consultation?i | “Yes” | 78.6% | 75.0% | 78.6% | 76.9% | 81.0% | 81.8% | 73.9% | 85.7% | 83.3% | 81.2% | 75.0% |

All %s taken use N of valid response as base (i.e. Missing, ‘Not Applicable’ and ‘Don’t Know’ responses are excluded). Tport = Tport

a113<N<122.

b112<N<122.

c117<N<122.

d113<N<122.

e113<N<122.

f111<N<122.

g115<N<122.

h113<N<122.

i117<N<122

Table 5.22: Predicting the use of information sharing techniques on industry, sector and size

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Predictor variables | aDependent variable: Does your organization use notice boards? | | | bDependent variable: Does your organization use team briefing/ cascade briefing? | | | cDependent variable: Does your organization make use of shop steward/ representative briefing? | | | dDependent variable: Does your organization make use of organizational newsletter? | | | eDependent variable: Does your organization use other systems of information sharing? | | |
|  | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 |
| Industry |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Industry dummy: Banking/  Finance (vs Manufacturing) | -1.038 | 0.354 |  | 0.263 | 1.301 |  | 21.457 | >1000z |  | 0.332 | 1.394 |  | -0.798 | 0.450 |  |
| Industry dummy: Education (vs Manufacturing) | -1.760 | 0.172 |  | -1.657 | 0.191 |  | 39.522 | 1.459E+17 |  | 1.016 | 2.763 |  | -1.385 | 0.284 |  |
| Industry dummy: Health (vs Manufacturing) | -0.514 | 0.598 |  | -0.684 | 0.505 |  | 20.634 | >1000z |  | 1.237 | 3.445 |  | -2.045 | 0.129 |  |
| Industry dummy: Hotels (vs Manufacturing) | -0.177 | 0.838 |  | -1.186 | 0.306 |  | 1.005 | 2.731 |  | 0.723 | 2.060 |  | 0.337 | 1.401 |  |
| Industry dummy: Government MDAs (vs Manufacturing) | -0.745 | 0.475 |  | -2.377\* | 0.093 |  | 39.349 | 1.228E+17 |  | 0.904 | 2.469 |  | -1.520 | 0.219 |  |
| Industry dummy: ICT/Media (vs Manufacturing) | -1.093 | 0.335 |  | -0.189 | 0.828 |  | 20.221 | >1000z |  | -1.956 | 0.141 |  | -1.871 | 0.154 |  |
| Industry dummy: Tport (vs Manufacturing) | 0.248 | 1.282 |  | 1.234 | 3.436 |  | 0.731 | 2.078 |  | 0.364 | 1.439 |  | -0.025 | 0.975 |  |
| Sector: Public (vs Private) | -0.953 | 0.386 |  | -0.659 | 0.517 |  | 41.593 | 1.158E+18 |  | -2.366\* | 0.094 |  | -2.071\* | 0.126 |  |
| Size (No. of employees) | -0.067 | 0.935 |  | -1.410\* | 0.244 |  | -0.951\* | 0.386 |  | -2.296\* | 0.101 |  | 0.351 | 1.421 |  |
| *Overall Model Fit* |  |  | 0.051 |  |  | 0.300 |  |  | 0.548 |  |  | 0.416 |  |  | 0.096 |

aN = 113;  bN= 112; cN =117; dN =113; eN =113; \*p < 0.05; zOdds ratio are high because values are close or equal to zero. Tport = Transport.

Table 5.23: Predicting the use of employee consultation techniques on industry, sector and size

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Predictor variables | aDependent variable: Does your organization make use of suggestion boxes? | | | bDependent variable: Does your organization make use of workplace surveys? | | | cDependent variable: Does your organization make use of briefings where feedback is solicited? | | | dDependent variable: Does your organization make use of other systems of employee consultation? | | |
|  | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 | B | EXP(B) | Pseudo R2 |
| Industry |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Industry dummy: Banking/  Finance (vs Manufacturing) | 4.078\* | 59.018 |  | 1.486 | 4.418 |  | 1.733 | 5.659 |  | 0.394 | 1.485 |  |
| Industry dummy: Education (vs Manufacturing) | 4.458\* | 86.296 |  | 15.485 | >1000z |  | 1.752 | 5.765 |  | -0.271 | 0.762 |  |
| Industry dummy: Health (vs Manufacturing) | 1.591 | 4.908 |  | -0.710 | 0.492 |  | 0.423 | 1.527 |  | 0.097 | 1.101 |  |
| Industry dummy: Hotels (vs Manufacturing) | -0.327 | 0.721 |  | -3.120 | 0.044 |  | -0.468 | 0.627 |  | -0.128 | 0.880 |  |
| Industry dummy: Government MDAs (vs Manufacturing) | 2.908\* | 18.312 |  | -3.006 | 0.050 |  | 2.023 | 7.564 |  | -0.070 | 0.932 |  |
| Industry dummy: ICT/Media (vs Manufacturing) | 2.416 | 11.206 |  | -1.619 | 0.198 |  | -0.031 | 0.969 |  | -0.686 | 0.504 |  |
| Industry dummy: Tport (vs Manufacturing) | 21.685 | >1000z |  | 19.971 | >1000z |  | 0.142 | 1.153 |  | -0.206 | 0.814 |  |
| Sector: Public (vs Private) | 3.010\* | 20.283 |  | -2.960 | 0.052 |  | 2.931\* | 18.749 |  | -0.583 | 0.558 |  |
| Size (No. of employees) | -1.762\* | 0.172 |  | -2.669\* | 0.069 |  | -1.516 | 0.219 |  | -0.169 | 0.844 |  |
| *Overall Model Fit* |  |  | 0.397 |  |  | 0.228 |  |  | 0.377 |  |  | 0.014 |

aN = 111 ; bN = 115; cN = 113; dN = 117; \*p < 0.05; zOdds ratio are high because values are close or equal to zero. Tport = Transport.

### 5.5 Summary

The data collected from managers on the influence of institutions on HRM and the techniques of HRM used in public and private sector in Nigeria were analysed in this chapter. The findings revealed that mimetic and normative mechanisms influenced HRM in public and private sector in Nigeria in the same direction. The major drivers of mimetic and normative isomorphism identified from the research were staff transfer/ imitation of practices from similar organizations and professional socialization (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Boselie *et al*., 2003). Similarly, there were other contextual factors categorised as ‘stakeholders’ and ‘economic pressures’ that influenced HRM in both sectors. On the other hand, whilst institutional factors categorised as coercive mechanisms such as labour laws, trade unions, regulatory bodies, and government policy were found to influence HRM, the degree of influence was much stronger in the public sector, due largely to weak enforcement of labour legislation and attempts by private organizations to adopt neo-liberal approaches in managing human resources. This finding resonates in part with new institutionalism (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983); but more in line with the literature on segmented business system theory (Wood & Frynas, 2006). Segmented business system theory ‘highlights uneven nature of institutional coverage and great internal variations according to firm type or sector’ (Wood & Horwitz, 2015 p. 23).

The second finding from study 1 which relates to the specific techniques of HRM adopted by public and private sector organizations indicate that whilst there was evidence of the use of best practices by few organizations across both sectors, the main difference found was that compared to public sector organizations, those in the private sector were more likely to adopt HR practices that were characterised by informality, low employee participation, cost-cutting and disregard for labour legislation. This is consistent with findings of research on HRM in Mozambique (Webster & Wood, 2005; Wood *et al*., 2011) and also in line with the literature on segmented business system theory (Wood & Frynas, 2006; Wood *et al*., 2011).

Whilst the first finding specifically forms the basis for developing context-specific hypotheses for study 1 in the next chapter, the researcher will draw insights from these two findings to explain the results of study 2 which involves examining the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in public and private sector. Meanwhile, the findings from study 1 along with those of study 2 will be discussed in detail in chapter eight.

# CHAPTER SIX

## DEVELOPING HYPOTHESES FOR STUDY 2

### 6.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to formulate hypotheses for study 2 which is concerned with examining the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in public and private sector. Whilst the development of hypotheses will be guided by the literature on HRM and employee attitudes generally (see chapter 3), the findings from study 1 presented in the previous chapter could guide the formulation of context-specific hypotheses involving the moderation effects of sector. The chapter begins with the formulation of hypotheses showing the direct relationship between HR practices. This is followed by examining the mediating effect of procedural justice and the moderating effect of sector. Finally, the mediating effect of HR attributions and the moderating effects of sector are discussed, with relevant hypotheses presented.

### 6.2 The Direct Relationship between HR Practices and Employee Attitudes

Based on the theoretical arguments showing the link between HR practices and employee attitudes presented in section 3.4.1 in chapter 3 and the results of previous studies (see sections 3.4.2 and 3.4.2 in chapter 3), it is hypothesized as follows:

*Hypothesis 1*: There is a positive relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction.

*Hypothesis 2a*: There is a positive relationship between HR practices and affective commitment.

*Hypothesis 2b*: There is a positive relationship between HR practices and normative commitment.

*Hypothesis 2c*: There is a positive relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment.

### 6.3 The Mediating Role of Procedural Justice and the Moderating Effect of Sector

Despite research evidence establishing a positive effects of HR practices on employee attitudes, researchers have realized that this relationship is not always direct and may depend on other variables (Wright & Kim, 2004; Farndale *et al*., 2011; Hefferman & Dundon, 2016). Hence, the need to for researchers and practitioners to have a better understanding of the process by which HR practices can relate to employee attitudes has been highlighted by many scholars (Heffernan & Dundon, 2016; Ollo-López *et al*., 2016). One of such variables through which HR practices can relate to employee attitudes is organizational justice (Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009; Ko & Hur, 2014; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016). “Organizational justice is concerned with the ways in which employees determine if they have been treated fairly in their jobs and the ways in which those determinations influence other work-related variables” (Moorman 1991 p. 845). It emphasizes that organizations function effectively when they operate on the principles of justice and fairness (Farndale *et al*., 2011). This means that organizational justice is an important yardstick for employees to gauge their relationship with the organization (Farndale *et al*., 2011; Ko & Hur, 2014).

Organizations can build social exchange relationships with employees by being fair to them (Ko & Hur, 2014). Researchers interested in understanding justice perceptions in organizations have identified three types of organizational justice namely, distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Colquitt *et al*., 2001). Distributive justice is the evaluation of whether the outcome received is fair; procedural justice is the perception of fairness of the procedures leading to the allocation of outcomes; whilst interactional justice is the perception of the interpersonal relationship with superiors (Colquitt *et al*., 2001). Although all three types of justice are important, procedural justice, which is the focus of this research has been found to be the strongest predictor of attitudes and behaviour (Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Fairness of processes in organizations send signals to employees that their well-being is valued by the organization. Based on social exchange, employees will likely respond with positive attitudes. Previous studies have established a positive relationship between procedural justice and employee attitudes such as job satisfaction (Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009; Ko & Hur, 2014; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016); affective commitment (Moorman *et al*., 1993; Meyer & Smith, 2000; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009; Farndale *et al*., 2011*a*; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016) and normative commitment (Meyer & Smith, 2000). The relationship between procedural justice and continuance commitment is however mixed; with both positive (Moorman *et al*., 1993) and negative (Meyer & Smith, 2000) relationships reported. However, we would predict a positive relationship between procedural justice and continuance commitment in this research since this study is conducted in a context where unemployment levels are high. This means that employees will likely remain committed to their organizations as a result of a lack of job alternatives.

Thus, it is hypothesized as follows:

*Hypothesis 3:* There is a positive relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction.

*Hypothesis* *4a:* There is a positive relationship between procedural justice and affective commitment.

*Hypothesis 4b:* There is a positive relationship between procedural justice and normative commitment.

*Hypothesis* *4c:* There is a positive relationship between procedural justice and continuance commitment.

Procedural justice entails that the decision procedure is transparent and that the inputs of employees are incorporated (Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009). Hence, procedural justice is an evaluation of employees’ experience of HR practices (Farndale *et al*., 2011). This suggests that even if HR practices are favourable to employees, any perception of procedural injustice will most likely cause dissatisfaction (Ko & Hur, 2014). Hence, the amount and quality of HR practices organizations provide may not matter if the procedure for providing such practices is not perceived by employees as being fair (Wu & Chaturvedi 2009; Ko & Hur, 2014). Thus, employees’ perception of procedural justice is important since it may accentuate the gap between intended HR practices and actual practices encountered by employees (cf. Heffernan & Dundon, 2016). Previous studies have shown a positive relationship between HR practices and procedural justice which in turn mediates the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes (e.g. Meyer & Smith, 2000; Owens, 2006; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009; Farndale *et al*., 2011; Ko & Hur, 2014; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016).

It is therefore hypothesized as follows:

*Hypothesis 5:* Procedural justice will mediate the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction.

*Hypothesis 6a:* Procedural justice will mediate the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment.

*Hypothesis 6b:* Procedural justice will mediate the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment.

*Hypothesis 6c:* Procedural justice will mediate the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment.

However, because procedural justice emphasizes the inputs of employees in decision making (Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009; Farndale *et al*., 2011), it is expected that procedural justice will relate to both HR practices and employee attitudes more positively in contexts where employees have the opportunity to influence management’s decisions. The findings from *study 1* reported in chapter five of this thesis indicate that private sector managers have negative attitudes towards unionism. In fact, most of them view trade unions as being antagonistic to management decisions. As a result, employees are not even allowed to join trade unions. The contrary is the case in the public sector where employees have the right to join trade unions and managers themselves acknowledge that their decisions on HRM are influenced by trade unions. This will suggest that whilst public sector employees have the opportunity to influence management’s decisions at the higher level, this may not be the case in the private sector. Equally, the findings from *study 1* indicate that public sector organizations have more opportunities for employee consultation than private sector organizations. Researchers have argued that when employees have the opportunity to influence decisions, they are more likely to accept the outcome of the decision thereby increasing their procedural justice perceptions (Farndale *et al*., 2011a).

Hence, taking together findings from previous studies and the findings from *study 1* of this research, it is hypothesized as follows:

*Hypothesis 7*: The mediating effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction will be stronger in the public sector.

*Hypothesis 8a*: The mediating effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment will be stronger in the public sector.

*Hypothesis 8b*: The mediating effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment will be stronger in the public sector.

*Hypothesis 8c*: The mediating effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment will be stronger in the public sector.

### 6.4 The Mediating Role of HR Attributions and the Moderating Effect of Sector

The construct of HR attributions suggest that the link between HR practices and employee attitudes is complex; meaning that HR practices are effective in engendering positive outcomes to the extent that employees perceive and interpret such practices subjectively in a manner that will elicit positive attitudes (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Nishii *et al*., 2008; Fontinha *et al*., 2012; Van De Voorde & Beijer, 2015). This indicates that beyond the content of actual HR practices, it is the meanings attached to HR practices that can generate a positive change in employee attitudes (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Nishii & Wright, 2008). Drawing from the theory of perception (Fiske & Taylor, 1991) which suggests that perception and reality are different, Nishii *et al.* (2008) argued that it is possible for employees to ascribe to the same HR practices different meanings, and that the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes will in turn, depend on the meanings employees attach to them. They built on Bowen & Ostroff’s (2004) argument that HR practices influence organizational climate perceptions by fostering appropriate behaviours that are expected and rewarded by management.

However, whilst agreeing with Bowen & Ostroff (2004) on the importance of employee perceptions of HR practices, Nishii *et al.* (2008) instead focused on employees’ perceptions of why HR practices exist as a possible explanation of the link between HR practices and employee attitudes, as opposed to Bowen & Ostroff’s (2004) focus on organizational climate. They argued that employees’ perceptions of management’s motivations for enacting HR practices can influence their perception of HR practices and concomitantly influence their behaviour and attitudes. Hence, the construct of HR attributions is defined as “causal explanations that employees make regarding management’s motivations for using particular HR practices” (Nishii *et al*., 2008 p.507).

Of course, employees can offer different explanations for the existence of HR practices such as training, employee benefits or participation. Whilst some may allude to the implementation of HR practices out of management’s desire to improve employee well-being, others may perceive the reason for the same practices as a means for cutting costs (Nishii *et al*., 2008; Fontinha *et al*., 2012; Van De Voorde & Beijer, 2015). Yet, other employees may attribute the existence of the same HR practices to the need for management to comply with union or regulatory requirements (Nishii *et al*., 2008; Nishii & Wright, 2008; Kim & Wright, 2011).

Drawing from attribution theory in social psychology (Kelley, 1967), individuals can attach various meanings to causes and their attitudes and behaviours towards similar causes will depend on the interpretations they make. Relating this to HRM, Nishii *et al.* (2008) argued that the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes may depend on employees’ attributions of the purpose of such HR practices. This means that the relationship between HR practices will be mediated by HR attributions (Kim & Wright, 2011; Van De Voorde & Beijer, 2015). Attribution theorists suggest that attribution can be internal or external (Heider, 1958). Whilst the former attributes the cause of behaviour to the individual; meaning that the individual has control over subsequent behaviour, the latter attributes the cause of behaviour to situational or external factors that are beyond the control of the individual (Heider, 1958; Koys 1988; Nishii *et al*., 2008; Van De Voorde & Beijer, 2015).

Research has shown that compared to internal attributions, external attributions are less strongly related to attitudes and behaviours (Nishii *et al*., 2008). Earlier, Koys (1988) distinguished between internal and external attributions for HR and found that internal attributions for HR were positively related to organizational commitment whilst external attributions for HR were not related to organizational commitment. However, Nishii *et al.* (2008) questioned the basis for Koy’s (1988) distinction between these dimensions of HR attributions, suggesting that the distinction was done arbitrarily. Hence, drawing from the literature on strategic HRM, Nishii *et al* (2008) argued that internal HR attributions can be multifaceted. They identified two dimensions of internal HR attributions namely, commitment-focused HR attribution and control-focused HR attributions. Whilst commitment-focused HR attribution is based on employees’ perceptions that HR practices are implemented due to the desire of management to improve service delivery and employee well-being, control-focused HR attribution connotes the perception that HR practices are implemented as a means of cost reduction and employee exploitation (Nishii *et al*., 2008; Fontinha *et al*., 2012; Van De Voorde & Beijer, 2015). These two dimensions of internal HR attributions resonate with the distinction of commitment versus control HR practices in strategic HRM research (Arthur, 1994; Boselie *et al*., 2003; cf. Nishii *et al*., 2008).

When employees have course to believe that HR practices implemented in their organization are aimed at improving quality service delivery the well-being of employees, our knowledge of social exchange (Blau, 1964) and perceived organizational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) suggests that that they (employees) will likely reciprocate this favour, by exhibiting positive attitudes in the form of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Conversely, when employees’ perception is that HR practices are intended to achieve cost reduction and in turn exploit them, this will result to lower job satisfaction and organizational commitment levels.

Empirically, Nishii *et al*. (2008) found in their study of a large service firm in USA that positive association exists between commitment-focused HR attribution and employee attitudes whilst there was a negative relationship between control-focused HR attribution and employee attitudes. Similarly, Fontinha *et al*. (2012) found a positive effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on affective commitment among outsourced IT employees, whilst the relationship between control-focused HR attribution and affective commitment was negative. Recently, Van De Voorde & Beijer (2015) examined the effects of internal HR attributions on organizational commitment and job strain. They found that commitment-focused (labelled as *well-being-focused*) HR attribution was associated positively with organizational commitment and negatively with job strain. Conversely, the study found that control-focused (labelled as *performance-focused*) HR attribution was negatively associated with organizational commitment and positively associated with job strain. This confirms, as Nishii *et al.* (2008) earlier argued, that control-focused HR attribution is associated with employees’ perceptions of management’s exploitative behaviour that relates to reducing cost and getting the most of out of workers.

Based on the results of previous studies and consistent with our earlier conceptualization of job satisfaction and the three dimensions of organizational commitment, it is hypothesized as follows:

*Hypothesis 9:* There is a positive relationship between commitment-focused HR attribution and job satisfaction.

*Hypothesis 10a:* There is a positive relationship between commitment-focused HR attribution and affective commitment.

*Hypothesis 10b:* There is a positive relationship between commitment-focused HR attribution and normative commitment.

*Hypothesis 10c:* There is a positive relationship between commitment-focused HR attribution and continuance commitment.

*Hypothesis 11:* There is a negative relationship between control-focused HR attribution and job satisfaction.

*Hypothesis 12a:* There is a negative relationship between control-focused HR attribution and affective commitment.

*Hypothesis 12b:* There is a negative relationship between control-focused HR attribution and normative commitment.

*Hypothesis 12c:* There is a negative relationship between control-focused HR attribution and continuance commitment.

Turning to external HR attribution, Nishii *et al.* (2008) acknowledged that some of the decisions of management may be influenced by external circumstances. This means that certain HR practices may be implemented in order to comply with external environmental demands (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Paauwe & Boselie, 2007). Thus, Nishii *et al.* (2008) identified a dimension of external HR attribution and labelled this union compliance HR attribution. The construct of union compliance HR attribution reflects employees’ perceptions that HR practices are implemented in order to comply with union contracts (Nishii *et al*., 2008). This means that the decision to implement HR practices is outside the control of management and hence, they are coerced into providing such practices. The inclusion of external HR attribution is remarkable since less attention has been given to the role of the external environment on HRM in strategic HRM scholarship. Meanwhile, researchers have now agreed that even in the most unregulated contexts, management’s decisions, including those related to HRM, may be influenced by regulatory requirements (Brewster & Mayrhofer, 2012; Wood *et al*., 2012).

However, whilst the literature on institutional theory suggests that other factors such as labour legislation are influential in coercing management to adopt HR practices (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Paauwe & Boselie, 2007; Boon *et al*., 2009), it is unclear why Nishii *et al.* (2008) chose to focus only on union compliance as a coercive mechanism in their model of external HR attributions. Perhaps, a plausible explanation for this may be that union contracts are embedded in labour legislation, meaning that labour agreements and indeed employment relationships are subject to national regulatory requirements (Brewster & Mayrhofer, 2012; Wilkinson *et al*., 2014). Hence, in performing the traditional role of promoting the welfare of its members, trade unions act as a check on management, ensuring that management implements practices that conform to regulatory requirements (Cristiani & Peiró, 2014). Accordingly, union compliance HR attribution in Nishii *et al.*’s (2008) framework adequately captures employees’ perceptions of whether HR practices are implemented based on the need to comply with regulatory requirements.

Indeed, Nishi *et al.* (2008) suggested that union compliance HR attribution may connote both positive and negative perceptions. They argued that on one hand, employees may perceive the desire of management to comply with union requirements as a commitment towards enforcing workers’ rights, which may engender positive attitudinal responses from employees; on the other hand, employees may view union compliance as a sign that management do not genuinely care about their well-being but are only interested in doing the minimum in order to meet union requirements so as to avoid sanctions. This resonates with what Meyer & Rowan (1977) referred to as ‘ceremonial adoption’ of practices. Thus, Nishii *et al.* (2008) predicted and found a non-significant relationship between union compliance HR attribution and employee attitudes. Unfortunately, apart from Nishii *et al.*’s (2008) study, other studies that have examined the effects of HR attributions on employee attitudes have focused on internal HR attributions to the neglect of external HR attributions (Fontinha *et al*., 2012; Van De Voorde & Beijer, 2015). Thus, it is uncertain whether the finding that union compliance HR attribution and employee attitudes are unrelated is tenable in other contexts.

Research has shown that when employees have the opportunity to influence decisions at higher levels in the organization either directly as individuals or indirectly through trade unions, they feel a sense of control and reciprocate with positive attitudes (Farndale *et al*., 2011*b*). This means that employees will likely view management’s compliance with union agreements as their input in organizational decisions and will respond with favourable attitudes in the form of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Farndale *et al*., 2011*b*). Moreover, in the context of Nigeria where employers are notorious for reneging on agreements with unions and where trade unionism may be viewed in negative light as evidenced in the findings from *study 1* of this research, employees will most likely view those employers who comply with union requirements in positive light even if they (employers) engaged in ceremonial adoption of HR practices (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). Hence, consistent with social exchange (Blau, 1964), employees in Nigeria who perceive that the adoption of HR practices is borne out of the need to comply with union requirements will respond with positive attitudes.

Therefore, in contrast to Nishii *et al*. (2008), it is hypothesized thus:

*Hypothesis 13:* There is a positive relationship between union compliance HR attribution and job satisfaction.

*Hypothesis 14a:* There is a positive relationship between union compliance HR attribution and affective commitment.

*Hypothesis 14b:* There is a positive relationship between union compliance HR attribution and normative commitment.

*Hypothesis 14c:* There is a positive relationship between union compliance HR attribution and continuance commitment.

Research has shown that commitment-focused HR attribution and control-focused HR attributions mediate the relationship between HR practices and work outcomes (Van De Voorde & Beijer, 2015). The basis for this mediating effect is that employees’ perceptions of HR practices will be influenced by the attributions they make for why the practices are implemented in their organization which in turn will determine their attitudinal responses (Nishii *et al*., 2008; Fontinha *et al*., 2012). Whilst there is no previous research examining the mediating effect of union compliance HR attributions on work outcomes, based on the theorization of this form of HR attribution in this research, it is expected that just like the other two HR attribution types, union compliance will equally mediate the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes.

Accordingly, it is hypothesized thus:

*Hypothesis 15*: Commitment-focused HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction.

*Hypothesis 16a*: Commitment-focused HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment.

*Hypothesis 16b*: Commitment-focused HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment.

*Hypothesis 16c*: Commitment-focused HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment.

*Hypothesis 17*: Control-focused HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction.

*Hypothesis 18a*: Control-focused HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment.

*Hypothesis 18b*: Control-focused HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment.

*Hypothesis 18c*: Control-focused HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment.

*Hypothesis 19*: Union compliance HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction.

*Hypothesis 20a*: Union compliance HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment.

*Hypothesis 20b*: Union compliance HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment.

*Hypothesis 20c*: Union compliance HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment.

There is research evidence indicating that HR practices relate differently to work outcomes in different institutional settings. In their study of the effects of HRM on performance across three sectors in Netherlands, Boselie *et al.* (2003) found that the effect of HRM on performance was weaker in sectors that were highly institutionalized. Similarly, several studies have found differences in HRM between LMEs and CMEs (e.g. Brewster *et al*., 2007; Johnson *et al*., 2009; Wood *et al*., 2009; Croucher *et al*., 2010; Goergen *et al*., 2012; Brewster *et al*., 2014). Interestingly, most studies comparing HRM across institutional settings have often focused on national institutional differences (e.g. Brewster *et al*., 2007; Johnson *et al*., 2009; Wood *et al*., 2009; Croucher *et al*., 2010; Goergen *et al*., 2012; Brewster *et al*., 2014) or on differences between parent multinational companies and their subsidiaries (e.g. Kostova & Roth, 2002; Björkman *et al*., 2007; Kostova *et al*., 2008; Burbach & Royle, 2014).

However, only few studies have adopted institutional frameworks in comparing sectoral differences in HRM within a single country (e.g. Boselie *et al*., 2003; Wood *et al*., 2011). Nevertheless, the literature on segmented business system theory (Wood & Frynas, 2006; Wood *et al*., 2011) and institutional diversity and change (Lane & Wood, 2009) suggest the existence of within-country differences in the influence of institutions on organizational practices. In fact, institutional diversity and change provides the impetus for researchers to adopt different institutional frameworks to examine both between-country and within-country institutional differences in the adoption of HR practices (Wood *et al*., 2014a).

Based on the knowledge that HR practices are influenced by the institutional environment in which organizations operate, Kim & Wright (2011) argued that the attributions that employees make about management’s motivation to adopt HR practices will vary in different institutional contexts. They argued that as a result, the mediation effect of HR attributions on the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes and behaviour will be moderated by the institutional context such that this relationship will be stronger in contexts where “regulatory institutions are less restrictive, giving management more autonomy over human resource management decisions” (Kim & Wright, 2011 p.153). Indeed, Kim & Wright (2011) suggest that employees will value HR practices the most when they understand that such practices were willingly adopted by management without external pressures to do so. In such contexts, Kim & Wright (2011) argued, employees will most likely view HR practices as a demonstration of management’s concern for their well-being; thereby resulting to higher commitment-focused HR attribution. They further argued that this will result to positive employee attitudes more than in contexts where regulatory institutions restrict management’s decisions on the adoption of HR practices. In other words, HR practices should engender positive employee attitudes in contexts where there is weaker employees’ rights and stronger employers’ rights (Botero *et al*., 2004).

Whilst not disagreeing completely with Kim & Wright’s (2011) assertion, it is the argument of this research that although employees’ commitment-focused HR attribution will be higher if employers willingly adopt commitment-focused HR practices such as training, employee benefits and participation; equally, employees will demonstrate higher union compliance HR attribution in contexts where employers’ decisions on HRM are restricted and both forms of HR attributions should result to positive employee attitudes. Research on comparative capitalism has indicated that HRM approaches are effective in enhancing the performance of both liberal and coordinated market economies (Wood *et al*., 2012). LMEs and CMEs are examples of contexts where employees’ rights are weaker and stronger respectively. Thus, if employee attitudes are at the centre of organizational productivity (Guest, 2011), then HR practices should result to positive attitudes, whether or not employees’ rights are weak. And if anything, the overall effect of HR practices on employee attitudes should be higher in contexts where employees’ rights are stronger because employees will likely make positive attributions regarding HRM when they have a voice in HRM decisions.

Turning to the present research, the findings from *study 1* indicate that whilst HRM in Nigeria is influenced by institutional mechanisms (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Boselie *et al*., 2003), the pattern of influence resonates with the features of a segmented business system where employees’ rights are stronger in the public sector and weaker in the private sector (Wood & Frynas, 2006). Specifically, the study shows that managers in the private sector have more leeway in their choice of HR practices compared to those in the public sector whose choices are restricted by institutional forces, notably the influence of trade unions. We would therefore expect that employees in the private sector should view management’s adoption of commitment-enhancing HR practices such as training, employee benefits, and employee participation as a demonstration of concern for their well-being. This should translate to higher perception of commitment-focused HR attribution and low union compliance HR attribution (Nishii *et al*., 2008).

Although public sector employees in Nigeria will also rank high on commitment-focused HR attribution, their union compliance HR attribution will be higher. In terms of control-focused HR attribution, whilst it is expected that this form of HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes (Van De Voorde & Beijer, 2015), we do not expect any moderation effect of sector. This is because it is difficult in reality for organizations to implement commitment-focused HR practices without some elements of control-focused HR practices that are aimed at minimising cost (Legge, 2005; Wilkinson *et al*., 2014). Because private sector organizations in most developing countries compete on the basis of cost (Webster & Wood, 2005), private sector employees will encounter practices that are aimed at cost minimization even where their commitment-focused attribution was high. Similarly, neo-liberal new public management reforms in the public sector in advanced countries that have resulted to the adoption of cost-cutting-HR practices (Cunningham *et al*., 2006) have found their way in the public sector in Nigeria via the instrumentality of the World Bank and its affiliate agencies (Adewumi, 2012*b*). Therefore, both public and private sector employees will sense some elements of cost minimization in the practices they encounter thereby resulting to similar levels of their perception of control-focused HR attribution.

Based on the foregoing, it is hypothesized thus:

*Hypothesis 21*: The mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction will be higher in the private sector.

*Hypothesis 22a*: The mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment will be higher in the private sector.

*Hypothesis 22b*: The mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment will be higher in the private sector.

*Hypothesis 22c*: The mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment will be higher in the private sector.

*Hypothesis 23*: The mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction will be the same in both public and private sector.

*Hypothesis 24a*: The mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment will be the same in both public and private sector.

*Hypothesis 24b*: The mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment will be the same in both public and private sector.

*Hypothesis 24c*: The mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment will be the same in both public and private sector.

*Hypothesis 25*: The mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction will be higher in the public sector.

*Hypothesis 26a*: The mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment will be higher in the public sector.

*Hypothesis 26b*: The mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment will be higher in the public sector.

*Hypothesis 26c*: The mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment will be higher in the public sector.

### 6.5 Summary

In this chapter, hypotheses were formulated on the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes. In addition, and in contrast to previous studies, context-specific hypotheses were formulated to suggest differences in the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in public and private sector based on institutional theory and the findings from *study 1* reported in the previous chapter. These hypotheses will be tested in the next chapter based on data collected from public and private sector employees in Nigeria.

# CHAPTER SEVEN

## DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS FROM STUDY 2

### 7.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with data analysis and findings from study 2 of this research. The chapter is focused on analysing data collected from public and private sector employees. Hypotheses for study 2 that were presented in the previous chapter are tested in order to achieve the third objective of the research which is to examine the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in the public and private sector in Nigeria. The chapter begins with a description of the response rate and the method for handling missing data after which the characteristics of the sample are outlined. This is followed by analysis of data by providing basic descriptive statistics as well as establishing validity and reliability of the constructs in the study. Thereafter, hypotheses are tested whilst a summary of the results of the hypotheses is presented.

### 7.2 Response Rate and Dealing with Missing Data

A total of 1000 questionnaires were administered to employees in 13 public and private sector banks and hospitals in Nigeria. Out of this number, 539 questionnaires were returned, yielding a response rate of 53.9%. However, due to the presence of missing data, which is common in survey research (Scheffer, 2002), 18 questionnaires with missing data were discarded thereby giving a sample size of 521 at 52.1% response rate. This method of completely eliminating missing cases was considered appropriate since a careful analysis of the missing data suggested that the data was missing at random (Graham, 2009). Indeed, the cases with missing data cut across the sub-segments of the sample, namely industry and sector that are considered the most important background variables in this research. Although this method resulted in a reduction of the sample size, this was considered inconsequential since the sample size is large and the number of cases with missing data were small (less than 5%) relative to the sample size (Graham, 2009). In addition, this method of handling random missing data produces unbiased parameter estimates in statistical data analysis whilst also preventing the loss of statistical power associated with missing data (Graham, 2009; Soley-Bori, 2013). Thus, the statistical data analysis throughout this study is based on a sample size of 521 complete responses.

### 7.3 Characteristics of the Sample

The characteristics of the sample which is presented in table 7.1 overleaf indicates that out of a sample of 521 participants, 59.3% were male whilst the remaining 40.7% were female. In terms of age, majority of the respondents (51.1%) were within the age bracket of 30-39 years. The table also shows that 4.8% were Senior School Certificate (SSCE) holders, 25.9% had diploma or equivalent qualifications, 55.5% had degree or higher national diploma certificates, whilst 13.8% had postgraduate or professional degrees. In terms of organizational tenure, majority of the respondents (47.4%) had stayed with their organizations between 6-10 years only which reflects the level of job insecurity in Nigeria whilst majority (57.8%) had a monthly pay between N50, 001-N125, 000[[12]](#footnote-12). As regards the job category of the respondents, 32.1% belonged to banking operations job category, 19.2% in marketing, 32.8% were clinical staff whilst 15.9% worked in hospital administration. Finally, 51.2% and 48.8% worked in banks and hospitals respectively whilst the private sector and public sector had 48.0% and 52.0% respectively.

Table 7.1: Characteristic of the Sample

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Frequency (%)** |
| ***Sex*** |  |
| Male | 309 (59.3%) |
| Female | 212 (40.7%) |
| ***Age*** |  |
| 18-29 years | 134 (25.7%) |
| 30-39 years | 266 (51.1%) |
| 40-49 years | 111 (21.3%) |
| 50-59 years | 10 (1.9%) |
| ***Education*** |  |
| SSCE | 25 (4.8%) |
| Diploma or Equivalent | 135 (25.9%) |
| Degree/HND | 289 (55.5%) |
| Postgraduate or Professional Degree | 72 (13.8%) |
| ***Tenure*** |  |
| 0-5 years | 124 (23.8%) |
| 6-10 years | 247 (47.4%) |
| 11-15 years | 94 (18.0%) |
| 16-20 years | 38 (7.3%) |
| 20 years & Above | 18 (3.5%) |
| ***Pay (per month)*** |  |
| Less or up to N50,000 | 143 (27.4%) |
| N50,001- N125,000 | 301 (57.8%) |
| N125,001- N200,000 | 62 (11.9%) |
| Above N200,000 | 15 (2.9%) |
| ***Job Category*** |  |
| Banking Operations | 167 (32.1%) |
| Marketing | 100 (19.2%) |
| Clinical Staff | 171 (32.8%) |
| Hospital Administration | 83 (15.9%) |
| ***Industry*** |  |
| Banks | 267 (51.2%) |
| Hospitals | 254 (48.8%) |
| ***Sector*** |  |
| Private Sector | 250 (48.0%) |
| Public Sector | 271 (52.0%) |

N= 521

### 7.4 Data Analysis

Data analysis for this research was done using SPSS version 22, SPSS AMOS version 22 and PROCESS macro. Where a particular data analysis programme was used other than SPSS version 22, this is stated in the course of data reporting. As a first step, the analysis of measures used in the study was done to establish construct validity and reliability of measures. This was followed by an analysis of means, standard deviations and inter-construct correlations. Results of these analyses are reported in the subsequent sections.

#### 7.4.1 Test of Validity

Validity is one of the main criteria for assessing quantitative research (Bryman & Bell, 2011). It is described as the degree of accuracy of a scale and whether it actually measured what it was intended to measure (Bryman & Bell, 2011). The common type of validity usually assessed in quantitative research is construct validity which seeks to determine if the scales used for measuring a theoretical construct are accurate measures of such a construct (Dawson, 2016). If the scales designed for measuring a theoretical construct are invalid, it means that the scales were measuring a different thing and not what the researcher intended to study. Construct validity can be tested statistically using a method known as factor analysis. The objective of a factor analysis is to test for construct validity of scales by finding out whether the items measuring a particular construct are related to each other whilst at the same time distinct from other constructs (Dawson, 2016). When the items measuring a theoretical construct correlate with each other, convergent validity is established (Hair *et al*., 2010). On the other hand, if the measures of a theoretical construct are dissimilar to measures of other constructs, discriminant validity is established (Hair *et al*., 2010).

There are two methods of factor analysis known as exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Although both EFA and CFA are tests of construct validity, these methods are used under different circumstances and it is advisable not to perform both EFA and CFA on the same data (Dawson, 2016). Specifically, EFA is used when the researcher is unsure about the unidimensionality of the construct and is often used when new measures are developed. On the other hand, when already established scales that are developed based on a priori theory are used in research, albeit in a different context, it is necessary to perform CFA to establish the validity of such scales (Dawson, 2016)[[13]](#footnote-13). In this research, since already validated scales with high reliability were used in another context, CFA was the obvious choice for testing construct validity.

The first step in establishing construct validity via CFA was to connect all the items measuring the constructs in this study in a pattern matrix in order to see how the items measuring individual constructs fit together and how each construct relates to other constructs in the study. This was done using SPSS AMOS version 22 which is designed specifically for conducting CFA. The diagram showing the pattern matrix with factor loadings and inter-item correlations is presented in figure 7.1 overleaf. Thereafter, the model fit indices were estimated in order to establish the goodness of fit between the data and the constructs in the study. Results of the fit indices are presented in table 7.2 below. Apart from reporting Chi-square [*χ*²(df)] of the model when assessing goodness of model fit, it is usually suggested that the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI) should be reported as the most important fit indices (Hooper *et al*., 2008; Hair *et al*., 2010). The threshold for a model fit is that RMSEA should be < .06 whilst CFI should be >.90 (Hair *et al*., 2010). In this study, results of model fit indicate that *χ*²= 2779.80 (df =1897); RMSEA = .03; CFI = .95 which means the data fits the constructs in the study.

Table 7.2: Model Fit Indices

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Measure** | **Fit Index** |
| *χ*²(df) | 2779.80 (1897) |
| *χ*²/df | 1.46 |
| CFI | .95 |
| GFI | .86 |
| AGFI | .85 |
| TLI | .95 |
| NFI | .87 |
| SRMR | .04 |
| RMSEA | .03 |
| PCLOSE | 1.00 |

CFI = Comparative Fit Index; GFI = Goodness of Fit Index; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; NFI = Normed Fit Index; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

Tests of two forms of construct validity- convergent and discriminant validity- were further conducted after model fit was established. In order to establish convergent validity, it is recommended that the average variance extracted (AVE) which is the average amount of variance in the observed variables that is explained by the latent construct should be ≥ .50 whilst for discriminant validity to be established, it is recommended that the square root of AVE for a construct should be higher than the correlation of that construct with other constructs[[14]](#footnote-14) (Malhotra & Dash, 2011; Zait & Bertea, 2011). Results in table 7.3 suggest that the AVE for each construct is ≥ .50 whilst the square root of AVE for each construct displayed on the diagonal is greater than the inter-construct correlations. This means that the measures used in this study are all valid measures of the constructs they were intended to measure.

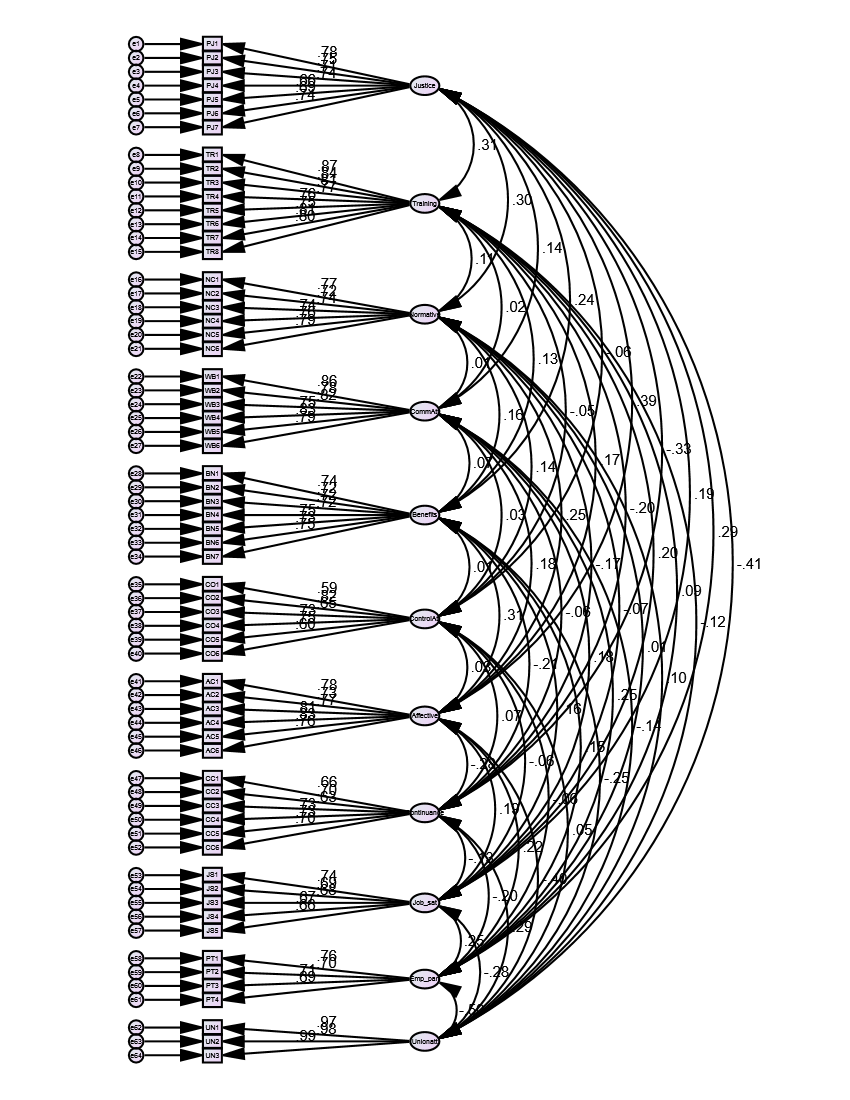


Figure 7‑1: CFA Pattern Matrix

#### 7.4.2 Reliabilities and Bivariate Correlations of Variables

After establishing construct validity for the measures used in the research, the next step was to establish reliability of the measures. This was followed by analysis of means, standard deviations and inter-construct correlations. Results in table 7.3 overleaf indicate that both the Cronbach’s alpha and composite reliabilities for the measures are greater than .80 which indicates that the measures are highly reliable measures for the constructs they were designed to measure (Hair *et al*., 2010; Dawson, 2016). Composite reliability is a measure of reliability before the scales are computed whilst Cronbach’s alpha is a measure of reliability after the scales are computed (Dawson, 2016). Of course, the high reliability of the measures is unsurprising since well-established scales were used to conduct the research.

The inter-construct correlations also presented in table 7.3 indicate that most of the variables are correlated with the highest correlation being .521. The level of inter-construct correlations is an indication that that there is no issue of multicollinearity in the data (Hair *et al*., 2010). Whilst it might be expected that training, employee benefits, and employee participation will be highly correlated due to the synergistic effects of HR practices (Jiang *et al*., 2012*a*; cf. Darwish *et al*., 2016), the correlations among these HR practices was not high and even non-significant in the case of training and employee participation. This indicates, as Darwish *et al*. (2016) recently observed, that the optimum configuration of sets of HR practices may depend on the national context, industry and sector.

Table 7.3: Descriptive Statistics: Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, Validity and Bivariate Correlations of Variables

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **No** | **Variables** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | **AVE** | **CR** | **α** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | **6** | **7** | **8** | **9** | **10** | **11** |
| 1 | Training | .95 | 6.06 | .95 | .64 | .94 | .93 | **(.80)** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | Employee Benefits | .97 | 5.73 | .97 | .54 | .89 | .89 | .126\*\* | **(.73)** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | Employee Participation | .72 | 3.93 | .72 | .51 | .81 | .81 | .069 | .123\*\* | **(.72)** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4 | Procedural Justice | .98 | 5.65 | .98 | .53 | .89 | .87 | .279\*\* | .210\*\* | .247\*\* | **(.73)** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | Commitment-focused HR Attribution | .81 | 4.11 | .81 | .65 | .92 | .92 | .020 | .057 | .212\*\* | .117\*\* | **(.81)** |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | Union Compliance HR Attribution | 1.88 | 3.12 | 1.88 | .96 | .99 | .98 | .134\*\* | .180\*\* | .521\*\* | .425\*\* | .149\*\* | **(.98)** |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7 | Control-focused HR Attribution | .94 | 3.20 | .94 | .50 | .85 | .84 | -.047 | .013 | -.046 | -.056 | .017 | -.034 | **(.71)** |  |  |  |  |
| 8 | Job Satisfaction | .58 | 4.17 | .58 | .50 | .82 | .82 | .174\*\* | .132\*\* | .200\*\* | .151\*\* | .157\*\* | .311\*\* | -.059 | **(.71)** |  |  |  |
| 9 | Affective Commitment | .99 | 5.95 | .99 | .61 | .90 | .90 | .151\*\* | .279\*\* | .180\*\* | .344\*\* | .169\*\* | .395\*\* | .023 | .165\*\* | **(.78)** |  |  |
| 10 | Normative Commitment | .95 | 5.15 | .95 | .57 | .89 | .87 | .102\* | .147\*\* | .008 | .267\*\* | .004 | -.079 | .111\* | -.057 | .223\*\* | **(.75)** |  |
| 11 | Continuance Commitment | 1.05 | 2.58 | 1.05 | .50 | .85 | .85 | -.177\*\* | -.184\*\* | -.166\*\* | -.285\*\* | -.058 | -.331\*\* | .054 | -.110\* | -.255\*\* | -.139\*\* | **(.71)** |

Notes: N= 521; \*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed); \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed); *M*= Mean; *SD*= Standard Deviation; AVE = Average Variance Extracted; α = Cronbach’s Alpha; CR = Composite Reliabilities; Square root of the AVE are bold in bracket on the diagonal.

### 7.5 Test of Hypotheses

The aim of this section is to present the results of the test of hypotheses for study 2 that were formulated in the previous chapter. Different statistical tests were used to test the hypotheses based on the nature of the hypothesized relationship. For ease of reporting, the results of the hypotheses are grouped into three categories namely, test of direct relationships, tests of mediation effects and tests of moderated mediation. Although this categorization means that the results of hypotheses are not presented chronologically as they were formulated, reference is made in each case to the hypothesis for which results are presented. In the test of direct relationships, the results for hypotheses 1, 2a-c, 3, 4a-c, 9, 10a-c, 11, 12a-c, 13 and 14-ac are presented. The tests of mediation effects are focused on hypotheses 5, 6a-c, 15, 16a-c, 17, 18a-c, 19 and 20a-c whilst the tests of moderated mediation are aimed at testing hypotheses 7, 8a-c, 21, 22a-c, 23, 24a-c, 25 and 26a-c. The results for each category are presented in subsequent sections with methods of statistical analyses described.

#### 7.5.1 Test of Direct Relationships

To test for direct relationship between variables in the study, regression analysis was used as a test statistic. Regression analysis can be used to test for the effect of an independent variable on the dependent variable (Kahane, 2008). However, for this test to be effectively conducted, the basic assumptions that residuals are independent; normally distributed and have consistent variance have to be met (Kahane, 2008; Hair *et al*., 2010). These assumptions can be tested by running a regression analysis in SPSS and requesting plots (Kahane, 2008). Although the test of normality can be done statistically by testing for skewness and kurtosis, these tests are susceptible to sample size and therefore may not produce valid measures of normality especially when the sample size is large as is the case in this research (Kahane, 2008). Therefore, a preliminary regression analysis was conducted by regressing the dependent variables on the independent variables in order to determine whether these basic assumptions were met through visual inspection of plots. The preliminary analysis indicated that the residuals were not normally distributed and clearly the regression line did not fit the data (see appendix 8 as an example). An examination of the histogram however indicated that the violation of these assumptions was due to the presence of outliers. An *outlier* is a data point that is distinct from others within the same sample (Aguinis *et al*., 2013).

One easy way of dealing with outliers would be to identify and eliminate them from the data. Nevertheless, since outliers constitute valid observations, it was necessary to retain them in the analysis (Aguinis *et al*., 2013). On the other hand, I was aware that conducting the regression analysis when the basic assumptions were violated due to the presence of outliers would automatically invalidate the results (Hair *et al*., 2010). Therefore, bootstrap resampling technique was used to conduct the regression analysis. Bootstrapping is a computer-based resampling technique which considers a sample as the population and resamples from the original sample with replacement (Hayes & Preacher, 2010). This form of resampling can generate up to 10,000 resamples (1,000 in this research) and could be used when parametric assumptions are violated in order to produce robust analyses (Hayes & Preacher, 2010; Nsamenang *et al*., 2016). Therefore, the analysis of regression was based on 1000 bootstrap resamples. As I will show in later sections, the methods of mediation and moderated mediation analyses utilized in this research also favoured the use of bootstrapping.

In this research, the test of direct relationships via regression analysis involved testing the effects of HR practices as well as the effects of procedural justice, commitment-focused HR attribution, control-focused HR attribution and union compliance HR attribution on each of the employee attitudes (job satisfaction, affective, normative and continuance commitment) that are of interest to the research. I controlled for variables that are commonly controlled for in studies on HR practices and employee attitudes. These control variables were age, sex, education, tenure, pay, job category, industry and sector. In order to test the effect of HR practices on employee attitudes, multiple regression analysis was utilized where the control variables were entered in the first model whilst all the 3 HR practices were entered in the second model at the same time[[15]](#footnote-15). On the other hand, simple linear regression analysis was utilized to test the effects of each of procedural justice, commitment-focused HR attribution, control-focused HR attribution and union compliance HR attribution on employee attitudes. In each of these models as well, the control variables were entered in the first model whilst each predictor variable was entered in the second model. The results of the analyses are presented in the sections below.

*HR Practices and Employee Attitudes*

To test the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes, multiple regression analysis was used. As a first step, the control variables were entered in the first model whilst the three HR practices (training, employee benefits, and employee participation) were entered in the second model. This relationship was tested on each of job satisfaction, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment.

Table 7.4: Multiple Regression Results Showing the Effects of HR Practices on Job Satisfaction and Affective Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Model 1** | | **Model 2** | | **Model 1** | | **Model 2** | |
|  | **JS** | | **JS** | | **AC** | | **AC** | |
| **Variables** | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* |
| **Control Variables** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Age | .068 | .043 | .070 | .042 | -.021 | .034 | -.023 | .034 |
| Sex | -.037 | .050 | -.054 | .049 | .047 | .043 | .033 | .042 |
| Tenure | -.014 | .047 | -.015 | .046 | .013 | .036 | .015 | .035 |
| Pay | -.026 | .050 | -.021 | .049 | .085\* | .041 | .090\* | .041 |
| Education | -.015 | .043 | -.021 | .042 | -.044 | .037 | -.045 | .037 |
| Banking Operations | -.006 | .069 | .003 | .069 | .018 | .057 | .025 | .057 |
| Clinical Staff | .055 | .072 | .036 | .072 | -.022 | .067 | -.033 | .066 |
| Industry | .056 | .086 | .069 | .087 | .000 | .073 | .016 | .074 |
| Sector | .372\*\* | .050 | .320\*\* | .058 | .742\*\* | .044 | .682\*\* | .055 |
| **HR Practices** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training |  |  | .075\*\* | .028 |  |  | .009 | .022 |
| Employee Benefits |  |  | .043 | .028 |  |  | .063\*\* | .024 |
| Employee Participation |  |  | .019 | .044 |  |  | .043 | .035 |
| *R*2 | .123 |  | .144 |  | .404 |  | .416 |  |
| Adjusted *R*2 | .107 | .550 | .124 | .545 | .393 | .562 | .403 | .558 |
| Δ*R*2 | .123\*\* |  | .021\*\* |  | .404\*\* |  | .012\* |  |
| *F* for Δ*R*2 (DF = 3, 508) |  |  | 4.157\*\* |  |  |  | 3.614\* |  |

Notes: N= 521.\**p* < .05; \*\* *p* < .01. Sex: Male=1, Female=2; Industry: Banks=1, Hospitals=2; Sector: Private Sector =1; Public Sector = 2. Dummy variable was created for job category: 1=banking operations, 0=other; 1=clinical staff, 0=other. These 2 job categories were entered in regression equation to represent job category for banks and hospitals respectively. JS = Job satisfaction; AC = Affective commitment. Bootstrap regression coefficients are reported.

Results presented in table 7.4 indicate that after accounting for control variables, the model for job satisfaction was significant [F (3, 508) = *R*2 = .144, *p*<.01)] which means that the 3 HR practices significantly predict job satisfaction in line with hypothesis 1. Nevertheless, the change in job satisfaction explained by HR practices was low (Δ*R*2 = .021, *F* for Δ*R*2 = 4.157, *p* < .01) and even less than the variance in job satisfaction explained by the control variables. Meanwhile, among the 3 HR practices, only training (β= .075, *SE* = .028) had a unique effect on job satisfaction thus indicating that training was a better predictor of job satisfaction than the other HR practices. The analysis of the control variables indicate that only sector (β = .320, *SE* = .058, *p*<.01) significantly predict job satisfaction, with the effect higher in the public sector. This suggests that there are other underlying variables within the public sector that account for job satisfaction more than any of the 3 HR practices.

The table (7.4) further indicates that the overall model for affective commitment was also significant [F (3, 508) = *R*2 = .403, *p*<.05)] whilst the change statistics also indicate a minimal change in affective commitment that is accounted for by the HR practices after accounting for the control variables (Δ*R*2 = .012, *F* for Δ*R*2 = 3.614, *p* < .01), which is less than the change statistics reported for job satisfaction. Again, it was the control variables that accounted for much of the change in affective commitment with sector (β = .682, *SE* = .055, *p*<.01) the only control variable with a significant effect on affective commitment. Just like the case with job satisfaction, the effect of sector on affective commitment was higher in the public sector. In terms of the individual contributions of HR practices on affective commitment, only employee benefits (β = .063, *SE* = .024, *p*<.01) had a significant effect on affective commitment. Both training (β =.009, *SE* = .022, *p* >.05) and employee participation (β = .043, *SE* = .035, *p* > .05) had no significant effect on affective commitment. However, since the overall model for affective commitment was significant and positive, the hypothesized relationship in hypothesis 2*a* is therefore supported.

The results of the effects of HR practices on normative and continuance commitment are presented in table 7.5 overleaf. The table shows a significant overall model for normative commitment [F (3, 508) = *R*2 = .062, *p* <. 01)]. The incremental level of normative commitment (Δ*R*2 = .041, *F* for Δ*R*2 = 7.306, *p* < .01) after accounting for control variables was however above the change in normative commitment accounted by the control variables unlike the case with job satisfaction and affective commitment. Nevertheless, among the control variables, again only sector (β = -.327, *SE* = .104, *p* < .01) significantly influenced normative commitment but this time, the effect was higher in the private sector. On the individual effects of the HR practices on normative commitment, only employee benefits (β = .161, *SE* = .045, *p* < .01) had a significant effect on normative commitment. Both training (β = .097, *SE* = .051, *p* > .05) and employee participation (β = .086, *SE* = .058, *p* > .05) had positive but non-significant effects on normative commitment. Since the overall effects of HR practices on normative commitment was significant, hypothesis 2*b* is therefore supported.

Table 7.5: Multiple Regression Results Showing the Effects of HR Practices on Normative and Continuance Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Model 1** | | **Model 2** | | **Model 1** | | **Model 2** | |
|  | **NC** | | **NC** | | **CC** | | **CC** | |
| **Variables** | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* |
| **Control Variables** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Age | -.033 | .066 | -.035 | .066 | .083 | .080 | .078 | .079 |
| Sex | .035 | .088 | -.010 | .087 | .060 | .091 | .097 | .088 |
| Tenure | -.035 | .071 | -.033 | .072 | -.034 | .080 | -.031 | .081 |
| Pay | .141 | .088 | .155 | .086 | -.102 | .086 | -.110 | .086 |
| Education | -.110 | .081 | -.118 | .079 | .033 | .075 | .042 | .074 |
| Banking Operations | -.172 | .137 | -.149 | .131 | -.165 | .121 | -.195 | .116 |
| Clinical Staff | .033 | .117 | -.008 | .118 | -.267 | .155 | -.214 | .156 |
| Industry | .030 | .145 | .078 | .143 | -.007 | .172 | -.075 | .174 |
| Sector | -.170 | .086 | -.327\*\* | .104 | -.708\*\* | .088 | -.636\*\* | .101 |
| **HR Practices** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training |  |  | .097 | .051 |  |  | -.130\*\* | .055 |
| Employee Benefits |  |  | .161\*\* | .045 |  |  | -.130\*\* | .051 |
| Employee Participation |  |  | .086 | .058 |  |  | .022 | .067 |
| *R*2 | .021 |  | .062 |  | .127 |  | .156 |  |
| Adjusted *R*2 | .004 | .952 | .039 | .935 | .111 | .993 | .136 | .980 |
| Δ*R*2 | .021 |  | .041\*\* |  | .127\*\* |  | .029\*\* |  |
| *F* for Δ*R*2 (DF = 3, 508) |  |  | 7.306\*\* |  |  |  | 5.867\*\* |  |

Notes: N= 521.\**p* < .05; \*\* *p* < .01. Sex: Male=1, Female=2; Industry: Banks=1, Hospitals=2; Sector: Private Sector =1; Public Sector = 2. Dummy variable was created for job category: 1=banking operations, 0=other; 1=clinical staff, 0=other. These 2 job categories were entered in regression equation to represent job category for banks and hospitals respectively. NC = Normative commitment; CC = Continuance commitment. Bootstrap regression coefficients are reported.

The relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment (table 7.5) also indicate an overall significant effect [F (3, 508) = *R*2 = .156, *p* <. 01)]. The change in continuance commitment accounted by HR practices (Δ*R*2 = .029, *F* for Δ*R*2 = 5.867, *p* < .01) after taking account of the control variables was below the incremental effect of the control variables. The analysis of the control variables again showed that only sector (β = -.636, *SE* = .101) had a significant effect on continuance commitment with the effect higher in the private sector. This suggests the presence of underlying factors in the private sector causing continuance commitment beyond the HR practices in this study. On the individual contribution of the HR practices, both training (β = -.130, *SE* = .055, *p* < .01) and employee benefits (β = -.130, *SE* =.051, *p* <.01) had a significant effect on continuance commitment whilst the effect of employee participation (β = .022, *SE* = .067, *p* > .05) on continuance commitment was non-significant. Although the hypothesis relating to HR practices and continuance commitment indicated a positive relationship, the significant effects of both training and employee benefits on continuance commitment were negative. This indicates that employees in Nigeria have a social exchange relationship with their organizations rather than an economic exchange relationship (Blau, 1964; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Accordingly, hypothesis 2*c* is not supported.

*Procedural Justice and Employee Attitudes*

The effect of procedural justice on each of job satisfaction, affective, normative and continuance commitment was examined in this research. This was done via regression analysis by entering the control variables in model 1 whilst procedural justice was subsequently entered in model. This process was repeated whilst testing the effect of procedural justice on each of the employee attitudes. The results for this analysis are presented in tables 7.6 and 7.7.

Table 7.6: Regression Results Showing the Effects of Procedural Justice on Job Satisfaction and Affective Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Model** | **1** | **Model** | **2** | **Model** | **1** | **Model** | **2** |
|  | **JS** |  | **JS** |  | **AC** |  | **AC** |  |
| **Variables** | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* |
| **Control Variables** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Age | .068 | .043 | .068 | .043 | -.021 | .035 | -.025 | .034 |
| Sex | -.037 | .051 | -.037 | .052 | .047 | .042 | .043 | .043 |
| Tenure | -.014 | .046 | -.014 | .046 | .013 | .035 | .015 | .035 |
| Pay | -.026 | .051 | -.026 | .051 | .085\* | .041 | .080 | .041 |
| Education | -.015 | .044 | -.015 | .044 | -.044 | .039 | -.048 | .038 |
| Banking Operations | -.006 | .071 | -.006 | .071 | .018 | .053 | .019 | .053 |
| Clinical Staff | .055 | .074 | .055 | .075 | -.022 | .067 | -.032 | .067 |
| Industry | .056 | .088 | .056 | .087 | .000 | .070 | -.006 | .070 |
| Sector | .372\*\* | .050 | .372\*\* | .058 | .742\*\* | .044 | .687\*\* | .050 |
| **Independent Variable**  Procedural Justice |  |  | .000 | .001 |  |  | .063\* | .027 |
| *R*2 | .123 |  | .123 |  | .404 |  | .411 |  |
| Adjusted *R*2 | .107 | .550 | .106 | .550 | .393 | .562 | .399 | .559 |
| Δ*R*2 | .123\*\* |  | .000 |  | .404\*\* |  | .007\* |  |
| *F* for Δ*R*2 (DF = 1, 510) |  |  | .000 |  |  |  | 6.090\* |  |

Notes: N= 521.\**p* < .05; \*\* *p* < .01. Sex: Male=1, Female=2; Industry: Banks=1, Hospitals=2; Sector: Private Sector =1; Public Sector = 2. Dummy variable was created for job category: 1=banking operations, 0=other; 1=clinical staff, 0=other. These 2 job categories were entered in regression equation to represent job category for banks and hospitals respectively. JS = Job satisfaction; AC = Affective commitment. Bootstrap regression coefficients are reported.

On the relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction, table 7.6 indicates a non-significant relationship [F (1, 510) = *R*2 = .123, *p* >. 05)]. Consequently, there was no incremental change in job satisfaction accounted by procedural justice after accounting for the control variables (Δ*R*2 = .000, *F* for Δ*R*2 = .000, *p* > .05). As a result of this finding, hypothesis 3 is not supported. The analysis of control variables shows that only sector (β = .372, *SE* = .058, *p* < .01) had a significant effect on job satisfaction with the effect higher in the public sector. The table also indicate that procedural justice had a significant positive effect on affective commitment (β = .063, *SE* = .027, *p* < .05) whilst the *R*2 was also significant [F (1, 510) = *R*2 = .411, *p* <. 05)] which confirms the hypothesized relationship in hypothesis 4*a.* However, the incremental change in affective commitment as a result of procedural justice (Δ*R*2 = .007, *F* for Δ*R*2 = 6.090, *p* < .05) after accounting for control variables was lower than the effect of control variables on affective commitment. As with earlier models reported, among the control variables, only sector (β = .687, *SE* = .050, *p* < .01) had a significant effect on affective commitment, with this effect higher in the public sector. This also shows that other than procedural justice, other underlying factors exist in the public sector that are responsible for affective commitment among employees.

Table 7.7: Regression Results Showing the Effects of Procedural Justice on Normative and Continuance Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Model 1** | | **Model 2** | | **Model 1** | | **Model 2** | |
|  | **NC** | | **NC** | | **CC** | | **CC** | |
| **Variables** | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* |
| **Control Variables** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Age | -.033 | .065 | -.042 | .064 | .083 | .082 | .088 | .082 |
| Sex | .035 | .088 | .020 | .082 | .060 | .098 | .067 | .097 |
| Tenure | -.035 | .069 | -.048 | .067 | -.034 | .087 | -.027 | .087 |
| Pay | .141 | .085 | .133 | .081 | -.102 | .084 | -.097 | .083 |
| Education | -.110 | .079 | -.156 | .076 | .033 | .076 | .057 | .077 |
| Banking Operations | -.172 | .129 | -.157 | .119 | -.165 | .122 | -.172 | .116 |
| Clinical Staff | .033 | .118 | -.028 | .116 | -.267 | .151 | -.236 | .154 |
| Industry | .030 | .144 | -.011 | .135 | -.007 | .169 | .014 | .166 |
| Sector | -.170 | .088 | -.481\*\* | .094 | -.708\*\* | .090 | -.550\*\* | .104 |
| **Independent Variable**  Procedural Justice |  |  | .366\*\* | .059 |  |  | -.186\*\* | .053 |
| *R*2 | .021 |  | .133 |  | .127 |  | .150 |  |
| Adjusted *R*2 | .004 | .952 | .116 | .900 | .111 | .993 | .134 | .981 |
| Δ*R*2 | .021 |  | .112\*\* |  | .127\*\* |  | .024\*\* |  |
| *F* for Δ*R*2 (DF = 1, 510) |  |  | 65.564\*\* |  |  |  | 14.142\*\* |  |

Notes: N= 521.\**p* < .05; \*\* *p* < .01. Sex: Male=1, Female=2; Industry: Banks=1, Hospitals=2; Sector: Private Sector =1; Public Sector = 2. Dummy variable was created for job category: 1=banking operations, 0=other; 1=clinical staff, 0=other. These 2 job categories were entered in regression equation to represent job category for banks and hospitals respectively. NC = Normative commitment; CC = Continuance commitment. Bootstrap regression coefficients are reported.

The effect of procedural justice on normative commitment reported in table 7.7 indicates a significant effect of procedural justice on normative commitment (β = .366, *SE* = .059, *R*2 = .133, *p* < .01). The change in normative commitment as a result of procedural justice after accounting for control variables (Δ*R*2 = .112, *F* for Δ*R*2 = 65.564, *p* < .01) is above the effect of the control variables. This finding supports the hypothesized relationship in hypothesis 4*b.* Of course the effect of control variables indicate the significant effect of sector (β = -.481, *SE* = .094, *p* < .01) with the effect higher in private sector. On the other hand, procedural justice had a significant negative effect on continuance commitment (β =-.186, *SE* = .053, *R*2 = .150, *p* < .01). The change statistics (Δ*R*2 = .024, *F* for Δ*R*2 = 14.142, *p* < .01) was also significant, albeit lower than the effect of control variables. As usual, it was only sector (β = -.550, *SE* = .104, *p* < .01) that had a significant effect on continuance commitment among the control variables, with the effect higher in the private sector. This further confirms the existence of other factors responsible for continuance commitment in the private sector. Based on the negative effect of procedural justice on continuance commitment, hypothesis 4*c* is therefore not supported.

*Commitment-focused HR Attribution and Employee Attitudes*

The results showing the effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on each of job satisfaction, affective, normative and continuance commitment are presented in tables 7.8 and 7.9.

Table 7.8: Regression Results Showing the Effects of Commitment-focused HR Attribution on Job Satisfaction and Affective Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Model** | **1** | **Model** | **2** | **Model** | **1** | **Model** | **2** |
|  | **JS** |  | **JS** |  | **AC** |  | **AC** |  |
| **Variables** | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* |
| **Control Variables** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Age | .068 | .041 | .066 | .041 | -.021 | .035 | -.021 | .033 |
| Sex | -.037 | .049 | -.030 | .049 | .047 | .042 | .047 | .042 |
| Tenure | -.014 | .045 | -.019 | .045 | .013 | .035 | .013 | .036 |
| Pay | -.026 | .049 | -.021 | .049 | .085\* | .041 | .084 | .042 |
| Education | -.015 | .041 | -.018 | .041 | -.044 | .039 | -.044 | .038 |
| Banking Operations | -.006 | .070 | .002 | .072 | .018 | .053 | .017 | .055 |
| Clinical Staff | .055 | .074 | .056 | .072 | -.022 | .067 | -.023 | .065 |
| Industry | .056 | .089 | .057 | .089 | .000 | .070 | .000 | .070 |
| Sector | .372\*\* | .050 | .366\*\* | .050 | .742\*\* | .044 | .743\*\* | .043 |
| **Independent Variable**  Commitment-focused HR Attribution |  |  | .073\* | .041 |  |  | -.005 | .025 |
| *R*2 | .123 |  | .133 |  | .404 |  | .404 |  |
| Adjusted *R*2 | .107 | .550 | .116 | .547 | .393 | .562 | .392 | .562 |
| Δ*R*2 | .123\*\* |  | .010\* |  | .404\*\* |  | .000 |  |
| *F* for Δ*R*2 (DF = 1, 510) |  |  | 5.765\* |  |  |  | .046 |  |

Notes: N= 521.\**p* < .05; \*\* *p* < .01. Sex: Male=1, Female=2; Industry: Banks=1, Hospitals=2; Sector: Private Sector =1; Public Sector = 2. Dummy variable was created for job category: 1=banking operations, 0=other; 1=clinical staff, 0=other. These 2 job categories were entered in regression equation to represent job category for banks and hospitals respectively. JS = Job satisfaction; AC = Affective commitment. Bootstrap regression coefficients are reported.

The result in table 7.8 above shows a significant positive effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on job satisfaction (β =.073, *SE* = .041, *R*2 = .133, *p* < .05) which confirms hypothesis 9. In terms of the incremental effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on job satisfaction, results indicate only a small change in job satisfaction (Δ*R*2 = .010, *F* for Δ*R*2 = 5.765, *p* < .05) after taking cognisance of the control variables. Indeed, it was only sector (β = .366, *SE* = .050, *p* < .01) that had a significant effect on job satisfaction among the control variables, with this effect higher in the public sector. The effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on affective commitment was however non-significant (β = -.005, *SE* = .025, *R*2 = .404, *p* >.05).

Also, as table 7.9 overleaf indicates, the effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on both normative commitment (β = .018, *SE* = .056, *R*2 = .021, *p* >.05) and continuance commitment (β = -.013, *SE* = .058, *R*2 = .127, *p* >.05) were non-significant. This means that whilst commitment-focused HR attribution had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction, the effect on all three forms of commitment was not significant thereby leading to the rejection of hypotheses 10*a-c.*

Table 7.9: Regression Results Showing the Effects of Commitment-focused HR Attribution on Normative and Continuance Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Model 1** | | **Model 2** | | **Model 1** | | **Model 2** | |
|  | **NC** | | **NC** | | **CC** | | **CC** | |
| **Variables** | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* |
| **Control Variables** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Age | -.033 | .063 | -.033 | .063 | .083 | .086 | .083 | .086 |
| Sex | .035 | .085 | .037 | .085 | .060 | .094 | .058 | .094 |
| Tenure | -.035 | .067 | -.036 | .068 | -.034 | .086 | -.033 | .086 |
| Pay | .141 | .086 | .142 | .087 | -.102 | .085 | -.103 | .085 |
| Education | -.110 | .078 | -.110 | .078 | .033 | .081 | .034 | .081 |
| Banking Operations | -.172 | .138 | -.170 | .140 | -.165 | .119 | -.166 | .120 |
| Clinical Staff | .033 | .117 | .033 | .118 | -.267 | .148 | -.267 | .148 |
| Industry | .030 | .145 | .030 | .144 | -.007 | .168 | -.007 | .168 |
| Sector | -.170 | .085 | -.174\* | .085 | -.708\*\* | .089 | -.705\*\* | .090 |
| **Independent Variable**  Commitment-focused HR Attribution |  |  | .018 | .056 |  |  | -.013 | .058 |
| *R*2 | .021 |  | .021 |  | .127 |  | .127 |  |
| Adjusted *R*2 | .004 | .952 | .002 | .953 | .111 | .993 | .110 | .994 |
| Δ*R*2 | .021 |  | .000 |  | .127\*\* |  | .000 |  |
| *F* for Δ*R*2 (DF = 1, 510) |  |  | .112 |  |  |  | .059 |  |

Notes: N= 521.\**p* < .05; \*\* *p* < .01. Sex: Male=1, Female=2; Industry: Banks=1, Hospitals=2; Sector: Private Sector =1; Public Sector = 2. Dummy variable was created for job category: 1=banking operations, 0=other; 1=clinical staff, 0=other. These 2 job categories were entered in regression equation to represent job category for banks and hospitals respectively. NC = Normative commitment; CC = Continuance commitment. Bootstrap regression coefficients are reported.

*Control-focused HR Attribution and Employee Attitudes*

The results showing the effect of control-focused HR attribution on each of job satisfaction, affective, normative and continuance commitment are presented in tables 7.10 and 7.11. The results in table 7.10 overleaf indicate a non-significant effect of control-focused HR attribution on job satisfaction (β = -.032, *SE* = .026, *R*2 = .126, *p* >.05) as well as on affective commitment (β = .010, *SE* = .023, *R*2 = .404, *p* >.05). In both models, it was sector that had a significant effect on job satisfaction and affective commitment respectively among the control variables.

Although, a negative relationship was hypothesized between control-focused HR attribution and each employee attitude, counter-intuitively, results in table 7.11 overleaf show a significant positive effect of control-focused HR attribution on normative commitment [F (1, 510) = *R*2 = .032, *p* <. 05)]. The change statistics indicate a marginal incremental change in normative commitment (Δ*R*2 = .011, *F* for Δ*R*2 = 5.634, *p* < .05) after accounting for control variables. On the hand, whilst the table shows a positive effect of control-focused HR attribution on continuance commitment, this relationship was non-significant (β = .051, *SE* = .045, *R*2 = .129, *p* >.05). Thus, hypotheses 11 and 12*a-c* are not supported.

Table 7.10: Regression Results Showing the Effects of Control-focused HR Attribution on Job Satisfaction and Affective Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Model** | **1** | **Model** | **2** | **Model** | **1** | **Model** | **2** |
|  | **JS** |  | **JS** |  | **AC** |  | **AC** |  |
| **Variables** | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* |
| **Control Variables** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Age | .068 | .041 | .067 | .041 | -.021 | .034 | -.021 | .034 |
| Sex | -.037 | .051 | -.038 | .051 | .047 | .040 | .048 | .040 |
| Tenure | -.014 | .046 | -.012 | .046 | .013 | .039 | .012 | .039 |
| Pay | -.026 | .051 | -.025 | .051 | .085\* | .042 | .084 | .042 |
| Education | -.015 | .044 | -.016 | .044 | -.044 | .039 | -.044 | .039 |
| Banking Operations | -.006 | .069 | -.008 | .070 | .018 | .056 | .019 | .056 |
| Clinical Staff | .055 | .078 | .055 | .077 | -.022 | .067 | -.022 | .067 |
| Industry | .056 | .087 | .057 | .088 | .000 | .071 | .000 | .071 |
| Sector | .372\*\* | .049 | .369\*\* | .050 | .742\*\* | .045 | .742\*\* |  |
| **Independent Variable**  Control-focused HR Attribution |  |  | -.032 | .026 |  |  | .010 | .023 |
| *R*2 | .123 |  | .126 |  | .404 |  | .404 |  |
| Adjusted *R*2 | .107 | .550 | .109 | .550 | .393 | .562 | .392 | .562 |
| Δ*R*2 | .123\*\* |  | .003 |  | .404\*\* |  | .000 |  |
| *F* for Δ*R*2 (DF = 1, 510) |  |  | 1.597 |  |  |  | .651 |  |

Notes: N= 521.\**p* < .05; \*\* *p* < .01. Sex: Male=1, Female=2; Industry: Banks=1, Hospitals=2; Sector: Private Sector =1; Public Sector = 2. Dummy variable was created for job category: 1=banking operations, 0=other; 1=clinical staff, 0=other. These 2 job categories were entered in regression equation to represent job category for banks and hospitals respectively. JS = Job satisfaction; AC = Affective commitment. Bootstrap regression coefficients are reported.

Table 7.11: Regression Results Showing the Effects of Control-focused HR Attribution on Normative and Continuance Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Model 1** | | **Model 2** | | **Model 1** | | **Model 2** | |
|  | **NC** | | **NC** | | **CC** | | **CC** | |
| **Variables** | Β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* |
| **Control Variables** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Age | -.033 | .064 | -.030 | .064 | .083 | .081 | .085 | .080 |
| Sex | .035 | .092 | .037 | .092 | .060 | .090 | .061 | .091 |
| Tenure | -.035 | .073 | -.042 | .072 | -.034 | .084 | -.038 | .085 |
| Pay | .141 | .083 | .136 | .082 | -.102 | .083 | -.104 | .083 |
| Education | -.110 | .079 | -.105 | .077 | .033 | .077 | .035 | .078 |
| Banking Operations | -.172 | .135 | -.165 | .135 | -.165 | .120 | -.162 | .120 |
| Clinical Staff | .033 | .121 | .035 | .119 | -.267 | .151 | -.266 | .150 |
| Industry | .030 | .146 | .027 | .145 | -.007 | .172 | -.008 | .172 |
| Sector | -.170\* | .086 | -.161 | .086 | -.708\*\* | .092 | -.703\*\* | .091 |
| **Independent Variable**  Control-focused HR Attribution |  |  | .105\* | .045 |  |  | .051 | .045 |
| *R*2 | .021 |  | .032 |  | .127 |  | .129 |  |
| Adjusted *R*2 | .004 | .952 | .013 | .948 | .111 | .993 | .112 | .993 |
| Δ*R*2 | .021 |  | .011\* |  | .127\*\* |  | .002 |  |
| *F* for Δ*R*2 (DF = 1, 510) |  |  | 5.634\* |  |  |  | 1.202 |  |

Notes: N= 521.\**p* < .05; \*\* *p* < .01. Sex: Male=1, Female=2; Industry: Banks=1, Hospitals=2; Sector: Private Sector =1; Public Sector = 2. Dummy variable was created for job category: 1=banking operations, 0=other; 1=clinical staff, 0=other. These 2 job categories were entered in regression equation to represent job category for banks and hospitals respectively. NC = Normative commitment; CC = Continuance commitment. Bootstrap regression coefficients are reported.

*Union Compliance HR Attribution and Employee Attitudes*

Results showing the effect of union compliance HR attribution on employee attitudes are presented in tables 7.12 and 7.13. Results in table 7.12 below indicate a non-significant effect of union compliance HR attribution on job satisfaction (β = .028, *SE* = .025, *R*2 = .125, *p* >.05) and affective commitment (β = -.038, *SE* = .022, *R*2 = .407, *p* >.05). Again, among the control variables, it was only sector that had a significant effect on job satisfaction (β = .465, *SE* = .096, *p* < .01) whilst sector (β = .617, *SE* = .090, *p* < .01) and pay (β = .085, *SE* = .042, *p* < .05) had a significant effect on affective commitment.

Table 7.12: Regression Results Showing the Effects of Union Compliance HR Attribution on Job Satisfaction and Affective Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Model 1** | | **Model 2** | | **Model 1** | | **Model 2** | |
|  | **JS** | | **JS** | | **AC** | | **AC** | |
| **Variables** | Β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* |
| **Control Variables** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Age | .068 | .043 | .067 | .043 | -.021 | .034 | -.019 | .034 |
| Sex | -.037 | .053 | -.035 | .053 | .047 | .042 | .045 | .042 |
| Tenure | -.014 | .047 | -.012 | .047 | .013 | .036 | .010 | .036 |
| Pay | -.026 | .050 | -.026 | .050 | .085\* | .042 | .085\* | .042 |
| Education | -.015 | .042 | -.016 | .042 | -.044 | .039 | -.043 | .039 |
| Banking Operations | -.006 | .067 | -.006 | .068 | .018 | .057 | .018 | .057 |
| Clinical Staff | .055 | .077 | .062 | .077 | -.022 | .069 | -.031 | .070 |
| Industry | .056 | .086 | .039 | .088 | .000 | .073 | .023 | .075 |
| Sector | .372\*\* | .052 | .465\*\* | .096 | .742\*\* | .045 | .617\*\* | .090 |
| **Independent Variable**  Union Compliance HR Attribution |  |  | .028 | .025 |  |  | -.038 | .022 |
| *R*2 | .123 |  | .125 |  | .404 |  | .407 |  |
| Adjusted *R*2 | .107 | .550 | .108 | .550 | .393 | .562 | .395 | .561 |
| Δ*R*2 | .123\*\* |  | .002 |  | .404\*\* |  | .003 |  |
| *F* for Δ*R*2 (DF = 1, 510) |  |  | 1.053 |  |  |  | 2.670 |  |

Notes: N= 521.\**p* < .05; \*\* *p* < .01. Sex: Male=1, Female=2; Industry: Banks=1, Hospitals=2; Sector: Private Sector =1; Public Sector = 2. Dummy variable was created for job category: 1=banking operations, 0=other; 1=clinical staff, 0=other. These 2 job categories were entered in regression equation to represent job category for banks and hospitals respectively. JS = Job satisfaction; AC = Affective commitment. Bootstrap regression coefficients are reported.

Table 7.13 overleaf also shows that the effects of union compliance HR attribution on normative commitment (β = .042, *SE* = .047, *R*2 = .023, *p* >.05) and continuance (β = -.068, *SE* = .034, *R*2 = .130, *p* >.05) were non-significant. Accordingly, hypotheses 13 and 14*a-c* are not supported.

Table 7.13: Regression Results Showing the Effects of Union Compliance HR Attribution on Normative and Continuance Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Model 1** | | **Model 2** | | **Model 1** | | **Model 2** | |
|  | **NC** | | **NC** | | **CC** | | **CC** | |
| **Variables** | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* | β | *SE* |
| **Control Variables** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Age | -.033 | .068 | -.034 | .068 | .083 | .076 | .085 | .076 |
| Sex | .035 | .092 | .038 | .093 | .060 | .096 | .055 | .096 |
| Tenure | -.035 | .070 | -.032 | .071 | -.034 | .082 | -.039 | .082 |
| Pay | .141 | .086 | .140 | .086 | -.102 | .086 | -.100 | .086 |
| Education | -.110 | .082 | -.111 | .082 | .033 | .079 | .036 | .079 |
| Banking Operations | -.172 | .132 | -.172 | .132 | -.165 | .118 | -.164 | .119 |
| Clinical Staff | .033 | .118 | .043 | .119 | -.267 | .148 | -.283 | .150 |
| Industry | .030 | .143 | .004 | .146 | -.007 | .162 | .035 | .170 |
| Sector | -.170\* | .087 | -.032 | .172 | -.708\*\* | .091 | -.932\*\* | .134 |
| **Independent Variable**  Union Compliance HR Attribution |  |  | .042 | .047 |  |  | -.068 | .034 |
| *R*2 | .021 |  | .023 |  | .127 |  | .130 |  |
| Adjusted *R*2 | .004 | .952 | .003 | .952 | .111 | .993 | .113 | .993 |
| Δ*R*2 | .021 |  | .001 |  | .127\*\* |  | .003 |  |
| *F* for Δ*R*2 (DF = 1, 510) |  |  | .774 |  |  |  | 1.874 |  |

Notes: N= 521.\**p* < .05; \*\* *p* < .01. Sex: Male=1, Female=2; Industry: Banks=1, Hospitals=2; Sector: Private Sector =1; Public Sector = 2. Dummy variable was created for job category: 1=banking operations, 0=other; 1=clinical staff, 0=other. These 2 job categories were entered in regression equation to represent job category for banks and hospitals respectively. NC = Normative commitment; CC = Continuance commitment. Bootstrap regression coefficients are reported.

In sum, results of the tests of direct relationships presented in the preceding sections indicate that hypotheses 1, 2a-b, 4a-b and 9 were supported whilst hypotheses 2c, 3, 4c, 10a-c, 11, 12a-c, 13 and 14a-c were not supported. Results for the tests of mediation effects shall be presented in the next section.

#### 7.5.2 Tests of Mediation Effects

The aim of mediation analysis is to examine the mechanism through which an independent variable (HR practices in this research) affects a dependent variable (employee attitudes in this research). It involves testing the indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable through an intervening variable known as the mediator (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Hayes, 2009). The mediation model which is depicted in figure 7.2 overleaf indicates that X is the independent variable, M is the mediator whilst Y is the dependent variable, a is the direct effect of the independent variable on the mediator, b is the direct effect of the mediator on the dependent variable, c’ is the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable whilst *ab* is the indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable through the mediator (Hayes & Preacher, 2010).

In this study, I was interested in testing the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes through four separate mediators: procedural justice, commitment-focused HR attribution, control-focused HR attribution and union compliance HR attribution. The effect of each of these mediating variables on the relationship between HR practices and each of the employee attitudes (job satisfaction, affective, normative and continuance commitment) were tested separately in line with the hypotheses in chapter 6.

c’

b

a

*M*

*Y*

*X*

Figure 7‑2: Mediation Model

The analysis of mediation in this study followed the approach proposed by Hayes and Preacher which uses bootstrap resampling to provide more valid estimates of indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable through a mediator (Hayes, 2009; Hayes & Preacher, 2010). Apart from the use of bootstrapping, Hayes and Preacher approach is different from the popular Baron & Kenny (1986) approach since it allows for mediation to be conducted even when the direct effects are non-significant as well as when data is not normally distributed (Hayes, 2009; Hayes & Preacher, 2010; Nsamenang *et al*., 2016). Analysis of mediation using this approach involved the use of PROCESS macro[[16]](#footnote-16) which is an add-on to SPSS developed by Andrew Hayes for conducting mediation and moderation analyses (Hayes, 2012). The use of PROCESS macro allows for automatic test of the mediation pathways described in figure 7.2 whilst confidence intervals which form the basis for interpreting whether or not a mediation effect is significant are generated (Hayes, 2012). When confidence intervals do not contain zero, it means that mediation is significant, otherwise mediation is not significant (Hayes, 2012; Nsamenang *et al*., 2016).

In addition, PROCESS macro automatically produces the effect size of the mediation in order to determine the magnitude or proportion of the mediation effect (Hayes, 2012; Preacher & Kelley, 2011). Just like in the tests of direct relationships reported in the previous section, I controlled for age, sex, tenure, education, job category, industry and sector in all the mediation models[[17]](#footnote-17) whilst the confidence intervals were set at 95%. In reporting the results of the mediation analyses in subsequent sections, the indirect effects (*ab*), confidence intervals (CI) and proportion of mediation (P*m*) are reported.

*Effects of Mediating Variables on HR Practices –Job satisfaction Relationship.*

The effects of each of the mediating variables on the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction was examined with results presented in table 7.14 below.

Table 7.14: Mediation Effect of Procedural Justice, Commitment-focused HR Attribution, Control-focused HR Attribution and Union Compliance HR Attribution on the Relationship between HR Practices and Job Satisfaction

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** | **Proportion of Mediation** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Procedural Justice** |  |  |  |  |  |
| ***HR Practices*** |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training | -.005 | .007 | -.220 | .007 | -.074 |
| Employee Benefits | -.003 | .004 | -.015 | .003 | -.080 |
| Employee Participation | -.000 | .003 | -.009 | .003 | -.020 |
| ***Mediator:* Commitment-focused HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |  |
| ***HR Practices*** |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training | -.000 | .003 | -.008 | .005 | -.003 |
| Employee Benefits | .002 | .003 | -.002 | .012 | .043 |
| Employee Participation | .014 | .010 | .001 | .042 | .754 |
| ***Mediator*:** **Control-focused**  **HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |  |
| ***HR Practices*** |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training | .001 | .002 | -.001 | .008 | .020 |
| Employee Benefits | -.001 | .002 | -.008 | .001 | -.021 |
| Employee Participation | .002 | .003 | -.002 | .013 | .101 |
| ***Mediator*:** **Union Compliance**  **HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |  |
| ***HR Practices*** |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training | .001 | .001 | -.001 | .006 | .012 |
| Employee Benefits | -.003 | .003 | -.013 | .000 | -.076 |
| Employee Participation | .000 | .002 | -.005 | .003 | -.001 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is Job satisfaction.

Results indicate that the mediation effect of procedural justice on the effect of training (*ab* = -.005, CI = -.220 to .007; P*m* = -.074), employee benefits (*ab* = -.003, CI = -.015 to .003; P*m* = -.080) and employee participation (*ab* = -.000, CI = -.009 to .003; P*m* = -.020) on job satisfaction was not significant since the confidence intervals in each case contained zero. This means that hypothesis 5 which states that procedural justice will mediate the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction is not supported. As for the mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution, the table (7.14) indicates a non-significant mediation effect for training (*ab* = -.000, CI = -.008 to .005; P*m* = -.003) and employee benefits (*ab* = .002, CI = -.002 to .012; P*m* = .043) on job satisfaction, with the confidence intervals containing zero. The mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on the relationship between employee participation and job satisfaction (*ab* = .014, CI = .001 to .042; P*m* = .754) was however significant since there was no zero in the confidence interval. This means that hypothesis 15 is partially supported since the mediation effect is significant for at least one HR practice.

In terms of the mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction, results indicate a non-significant effect for all 3 HR practices: training (*ab* = .001, CI = -.001 to .008; P*m* = .020), employee benefits (*ab* = -.001, CI = -.008 to .001; P*m* = -.020) and employee participation (*ab* = .002, CI = -.002 to .013; P*m* = .101). Therefore, hypothesis 17 is not supported. Similarly, the mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction was not significant for the 3 HR practices: training (*ab* = .001, CI = -.001 to .006; P*m* = .012), employee benefits (*ab* = -.003, CI = -.013 to .000; P*m* = -.076) and employee participation (*ab* =.000, CI = -.005 to .003; P*m* = -.001); which means that hypothesis 19 is not supported.

*Effects of Mediating Variables on HR Practices-Affective Commitment Relationship*

The effects of each of the mediating variables on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment was examined with results presented in table 7.15 overleaf. Results of the mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment indicate a significant mediation effect for both training (*ab* = .008, CI = .001 to .024; P*m* = .846) and employee benefits (*ab* = .004, CI = .000 to .015; P*m* = .071) whilst that of employee participation (*ab* = .001, CI = -.005 to .012; P*m* = .029) was non-significant. In the case of training and employee benefits, the confidence intervals did not contain zero whilst the reverse was the case for employee participation. Accordingly, hypothesis 6*a* is partially supported since there was a significant mediation effect for two of the HR practices. In terms of the mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment, results indicate a non-significant relationship for training (*ab* = .000, CI = -.002 to .003; P*m* = .005), employee benefits (*ab* = -.000, CI = -.007 to .001; P*m* = -.006) and employee participation (*ab* = -.003, CI = -.022 to .007; P*m* = -.004) – hypothesis 16*a* is therefore not supported.

Table 7.15: Mediation Effect of Procedural Justice, Commitment-focused HR Attribution, Control-focused HR Attribution and Union Compliance HR Attribution on the Relationship between HR Practices and Affective Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** | **Proportion of Mediation** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Procedural Justice** |  |  |  |  |  |
| ***HR Practices*** |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training | .008 | .006 | .001 | .024 | .846 |
| Employee Benefits | .004 | .004 | .000 | .015 | .071 |
| Employee Participation | .001 | .004 | -.005 | .012 | .029 |
| ***Mediator*:** **Commitment-focused**  **HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |  |
| ***HR Practices*** |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training | .000 | .001 | -.002 | .003 | .005 |
| Employee Benefits | -.000 | .001 | -.007 | .001 | -.006 |
| Employee Participation | -.003 | .006 | -.022 | .007 | -.004 |
| ***Mediator*:** **Control-focused**  **HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |  |
| ***HR Practices*** |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training | -.001 | .002 | -.010 | .002 | -.103 |
| Employee Benefits | .003 | .001 | -.001 | .005 | .005 |
| Employee Participation | -.000 | .002 | -.006 | .001 | -.052 |
| ***Mediator*:** **Union Compliance**  **HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |  |
| ***HR Practices*** |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training | -.001 | .002 | -.008 | .001 | -.117 |
| Employee Benefits | -.001 | .004 | -.016 | .003 | -.019 |
| Employee Participation | -.000 | .002 | -.008 | .002 | -.013 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is Affective commitment.

Further, the table (7.15) indicates that the mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment was non-significant for all the HR practices: training (*ab* = -.001, CI = -.010 to .002; P*m* = -.103), employee benefits (*ab*=.003, CI = -.001 to .005; P*m* = .005) and employee participation (*ab* = -.000, CI = -.006 to .001; P*m* = -.052) – this means that hypothesis 18*a* is not supported. Finally, the table shows the mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment. Results however indicate that this relationship was non-significant for all the HR practices: training (*ab* = -.001, CI = -.008 to .001; P*m* = -.117), employee benefits (*ab* = -.001, CI = -.016 to .003; P*m* = -.019) and employee participation (*ab*= -.000, CI = -.008 to .002; P*m* = -.013). Based on these results, hypothesis 20*a* is not supported.

*Effects of Mediating Variables on HR Practices-Normative Commitment Relationship*

The effects of each of the mediating variables on the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment was examined with results presented in table 7.16 overleaf. Results indicate that for the mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment, there was a significant mediation effect for training (*ab* = .068, CI = .030 to .126; P*m* = .702) and employee benefits (*ab* = .042, CI = .010 to .088; P*m* = .263) but a non-significant mediation effect for employee participation (*ab* = .005, CI = -.034 to .052; P*m* = .003) since the confidence intervals for the latter contained zero. Accordingly, hypothesis 6*b* is partially supported since the significant mediation effect was not for all the HR practices. As for the mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment, results indicate that this relationship was non-significant for all the HR practices: training (*ab* = .000, CI = -.005 to .004; P*m* = .000), employee benefits (*ab* = .000, CI = -.005 to .007; P*m* = .000) and employee participation (*ab* = .000, CI = -.022 to .023; P*m* = .002). Therefore, hypothesis 16*b* is not supported.

Similar results were obtained on the mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment: training (*ab* = -.005, CI = -.021 to .004; P*m* = -.055), employee benefits (*ab* = .003, CI = -.005 to .021; P*m* = .021) and employee participation (*ab* = -.001, CI = -.030 to .007; P*m* = -.074); thus, hypothesis 18*b* is not supported. In terms of the mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment, results indicate that the relationship was non-significant for all the HR practices: training (*ab* = .002, CI = .003 to -.001; P*m* = .016), employee benefits (*ab* = -.006, CI = -.026 to .001; P*m* = -.037) and employee participation (*ab* = .000, CI = -.009 to .008; P*m* = -.000). Consequently, hypothesis 20*b* is not supported.

Table 7.16: Mediation Effect of Procedural Justice, Commitment-focused HR Attribution, Control-focused HR Attribution and Union Compliance HR Attribution on the Relationship between HR Practices and Normative Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** | **Proportion of Mediation** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Procedural Justice** |  |  |  |  |  |
| ***HR Practices*** |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training | .068 | .025 | .030 | .126 | .702 |
| Employee Benefits | .042 | .019 | .010 | .088 | .263 |
| Employee Participation | .005 | .021 | -.034 | .052 | .003 |
| ***Mediator*:** **Commitment-focused**  **HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |  |
| ***HR Practices*** |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training | .000 | .002 | -.005 | .004 | .000 |
| Employee Benefits | .000 | .003 | -.005 | .007 | .000 |
| Employee Participation | .000 | .011 | -.022 | .023 | .002 |
| ***Mediator*:** **Control-focused**  **HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |  |
| ***HR Practices*** |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training | -.005 | .006 | -.021 | .004 | -.055 |
| Employee Benefits | .003 | .006 | -.005 | .021 | .021 |
| Employee Participation | -.001 | .009 | -.030 | .007 | -.074 |
| ***Mediator*:** **Union Compliance**  **HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |  |
| ***HR Practices*** |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training | .002 | .003 | -.001 | .011 | .016 |
| Employee Benefits | -.006 | .007 | -.026 | .001 | -.037 |
| Employee Participation | .000 | .004 | -.009 | .008 | -.000 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is Normative commitment.

*Effects of Mediating Variables on HR Practices-Continuance Commitment Relationship*

The effect of each of the mediating variables on the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment was examined with results presented in table 7.17 below. Results of the mediation effect of procedural justice on continuance commitment was examined with results indicating a significant mediation effect for training (*ab* = -.029, CI = -.066 to -.009; P*m* = .221) and employee benefits (*ab* = -.018, CI = -.045 to -.003; P*m* = .137) with the confidence intervals without zero. This effect was negative (training: *ab* = -.029; employee benefits: *ab* = -.018) which further highlights the existence of social exchange rather than economic exchange relationship (Blau, 1964; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) between employees and their organizations in the context of Nigeria. Nevertheless, there was a significant mediation effect as expected whilst the mediation effect for employee participation was non-significant (*ab* = -.002, CI = -.024 to .013; P*m* = -.092). On this basis, hypothesis 6*c* is partially supported.

Table 7.17: Mediation Effect of Procedural Justice, Commitment-focused HR Attribution, Control-focused HR Attribution and Union Compliance HR Attribution on the Relationship between HR Practices and Continuance Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** | **Proportion of Mediation** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Procedural Justice** |  |  |  |  |  |
| ***HR Practices*** |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training | -.029 | .014 | -.066 | -.009 | .221 |
| Employee Benefits | -.018 | .010 | -.045 | -.003 | .137 |
| Employee Participation | -.002 | .009 | -.024 | .013 | -.092 |
| ***Mediator*:** **Commitment-focused**  **HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |  |
| ***HR Practices*** |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training | .000 | .002 | -.003 | .006 | -.000 |
| Employee Benefits | -.000 | .002 | -.008 | .003 | .002 |
| Employee Participation | -.002 | .012 | -.029 | .023 | -.103 |
| ***Mediator*:** **Control-focused**  **HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |  |
| ***HR Practices*** |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training | -.002 | .004 | -.014 | .002 | .019 |
| Employee Benefits | .001 | .004 | -.002 | .015 | -.011 |
| Employee Participation | -.003 | .005 | -.023 | .003 | -.131 |
| ***Mediator*:** **Union Compliance**  **HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |  |
| ***HR Practices*** |  |  |  |  |  |
| Training | -.002 | .003 | -.012 | .002 | .017 |
| Employee Benefits | .008 | .007 | -.000 | .027 | -.063 |
| Employee Participation | .000 | .004 | -.009 | .009 | .001 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is Continuance commitment.

On the mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment, results indicate that there was a non-significant effect for all the HR practices: training (*ab* = .000, CI = -.003 to .006; P*m* = -.000), employee benefits (*ab* = -.000, CI = -.008 to .003; P*m* = .002) and employee participation (*ab* = -.002, CI = -.029 to .023; P*m* = -.103). This means that hypothesis 16*c* is not supported. Similar findings were obtained for the mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment. Specifically, mediation effect was not significant for training (*ab* = -.002, CI = -.014 to .002; P*m* = .019), employee benefits (*ab* = .001, CI = -.002 to .015; P*m* = -.011) and employee participation (*ab* = -.003, CI = -.023 to .003; P*m* = -.131) since the confidence intervals were not without zero. Accordingly, hypothesis 18*c* is not supported. Similarly, the mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment was non-significant for all the HR practices: training (*ab* = -.002, CI = -.012 to .002; P*m* = .017), employee benefits (*ab* = .008, CI = -.000 to .027; P*m* = -.063) and employee participation (*ab* = .000, CI = -.009 to .009; P*m* = .001) since the confidence intervals in each case contained zero. Thus, hypothesis 20*c* is not supported.

In sum, results of tests of mediation effects presented in the preceding section indicate that hypotheses 6a-c and 15 were partially supported whilst hypotheses 5, 16a-c, 17, 18a-c, 19 and 20a-c were not supported. Results of tests of moderated mediation effects are presented in the next section.

#### 7.5.3 Tests of Moderated Mediation Effects

The analysis of moderated mediation follows a similar approach described in the section on mediation but unlike mediation, moderated mediation goes further to determine the conditions under which the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable through a mediator is significant (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Preacher *et al*., 2007). In other words, the aim of moderated mediation is to analyse whether a mediation effect will change with the introduction of another variable known as the moderator (Preacher *et al*., 2007; Hayes, 2015). The diagram depicting moderated mediation is presented in figure 7.3 overleaf. In the diagram, X is the independent variable, Y is the dependent variable, M is the mediator whilst W is the moderator.

*M*

*X*

*Y*

*W*

c’

b

a

Figure 7‑3: Moderated Mediation Model

The moderator in this study is sector since the study seeks to examine whether the effect of mediating variables on the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes will differ in the public and private sector. Other variables are as described in the section on test of mediation. Just like mediation analysis earlier described, the analysis of moderated mediation was done using PROCESS macro[[18]](#footnote-18) (Hayes, 2012) but unlike the simple mediation analysis, the indirect effects are provided for each sector whilst the index of moderated mediation signifies the difference in the mediation effect with the introduction of sector (Hayes, 2015). If the confidence intervals for the index of moderated mediation are without zero, it means there is a significant moderated mediation, otherwise moderated mediation is non-significant (Hayes, 2015). Where the moderated mediation is significant, the indirect effects (*ab*) in both private and public sector are then compared to determine which sector has a stronger mediation effect (Hayes, 2015). In presenting the results of moderated mediation in the subsequent sections, the index of moderated mediation (Im) and confidence intervals (CI) are reported.

*The Moderation Effect of Sector on the Effect of Mediating Variables on HR Practices-Job Satisfaction Relationship*

The moderation effect of sector on the effect of mediation effect of mediating variables on HR practices-job satisfaction relationship was examined with results for procedural justice, commitment-focused HR attribution, control-focused HR attribution and union compliance HR attribution presented in tables 7.18, 7.19, 7.20 and 7.21 respectively. Results of the moderation effect of sector on the mediating effect of procedural justice on HR practices-job satisfaction relationship in table 7.18 below indicate a non-significant index of moderated mediation on all the HR practices: training (Im= -.010, CI = -.038 to .007), employee benefits (Im= -.015, CI = -.055 to .009) and employee participation (Im= -.016, CI = -.052 to .013). This means that there was no significant effect of sector on the mediation effect of procedural justice on HR practices-job satisfaction relationship since the confidence intervals for each index of moderated mediation contained zero. Accordingly, hypothesis 7 is not supported.

Table 7.18: Moderated Mediation Effect of Procedural Justice and Sector on the Relationship between HR Practices and Job Satisfaction

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Procedural Justice** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Independent Variable:* Training** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.000 | .011 | -.022 | .022 |
| Public Sector | -.015 | .011 | -.042 | .003 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.015 | .015 | -.055 | .009 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Benefits** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.000 | .008 | -.018 | .015 |
| Public Sector | -.011 | .008 | -.033 | .001 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.010 | .011 | -.038 | .007 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Participation** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.000 | .013 | -.025 | .024 |
| Public Sector | -.016 | .011 | -.042 | .003 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.016 | .016 | -.052 | .013 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is job satisfaction.

Similarly, table 7.19 overleaf shows a non-significant moderated mediation effect of sector on the mediating effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on HR practices-job satisfaction relationship. Results for each HR practice indicate that the index of moderated mediation for training (Im= -.010, CI = -.038 to .007), employee benefits (Im= -.010, CI = -.038 to .007) and employee participation were non-significant since the confidence intervals contained zero in each case. This suggests a non- significant effect of sector on the mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on HR practices-job satisfaction relationship. Therefore, hypothesis 21 is not supported.

Table 7.19: Moderated Mediation Effect of Commitment-focused HR Attribution and Sector on the Relationship between HR Practices and Job Satisfaction

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Commitment-focused HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Independent Variable:* Training** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .000 | .002 | -.004 | .005 |
| Public Sector | -.000 | .006 | -.011 | .012 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.000 | .006 | -.013 | .012 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Benefits** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .002 | .002 | -.004 | .007 |
| Public Sector | .004 | .006 | -.005 | .020 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .004 | .006 | -.004 | .022 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Participation** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .001 | .012 | -.025 | .023 |
| Public Sector | .029 | .016 | .007 | .071 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .028 | .019 | -.001 | .075 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is job satisfaction.

Results of the moderation effect of sector on the mediating effect of control-focused HR attribution on HR practices-job satisfaction relationship presented in table 7.20 overleaf indicate a non-significant moderated mediation effect for all the HR practices: training (Im= -.005, CI = -.001 to .023), employee benefits (Im= -.003, CI = -.018 to .007) and employee participation (Im= .007, CI = -.002 to .029). This result indicates that there is no significant effect of sector on the mediation effect of HR practices-job satisfaction. Nevertheless, hypothesis 23 is supported since this hypothesis was stated in null form to the effect that there would be no difference in the mediation effect of sector on the mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on HR practices-job satisfaction relationship.

Table 7.20: Moderated Mediation Effect of Control-focused HR Attribution and Sector on the Relationship between HR Practices and Job Satisfaction

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Control-focused HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Independent Variable:* Training** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.001 | .003 | -.012 | .002 |
| Public Sector | .004 | .004 | -.002 | .016 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .005 | .006 | -.001 | .023 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Benefits** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .001 | .002 | -.002 | .009 |
| Public Sector | -.002 | .004 | -.013 | .003 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.003 | .005 | -.018 | .004 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Participation** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.002 | .004 | -.014 | .003 |
| Public Sector | .005 | .006 | -.002 | .020 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .007 | .008 | -.002 | .029 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is job satisfaction.

Finally, results of the moderation effect of sector on the mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on HR practices-job satisfaction relationship in table 7.21 below indicates a non-significant moderated mediation effect of sector on the mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on HR practices-job satisfaction relationship for all the HR practices: training (Im= -.012, CI = -.056 to .005), employee benefits (Im= -.026, CI = -.084 to .008) and employee participation (Im= -.099, CI = -.275 to .055). This means that hypothesis 25 which states that the mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction will be higher in the public sector is not supported.

Table 7.21: Moderated Mediation Effect of Union Compliance HR Attribution and Sector on the Relationship between HR Practices and Job Satisfaction

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Union Compliance HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Independent Variable:* Training** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .006 | .011 | -.009 | .041 |
| Public Sector | -.007 | .006 | -.024 | .001 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.012 | .014 | -.056 | .005 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Benefits** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .012 | .021 | -.023 | .065 |
| Public Sector | -.014 | .009 | -.038 | .000 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.026 | .024 | -.084 | .008 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Participation** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .045 | .076 | -.096 | .200 |
| Public Sector | -.054 | .030 | -.122 | .001 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.099 | .082 | -.275 | .055 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is job satisfaction.

*The Moderation Effect of Sector on the Effect of Mediating Variables on HR Practices-Affective Commitment Relationship.*

The moderation effects of sector on the mediation effect of each of procedural justice, commitment-focused HR attribution, control-focused HR attribution and union compliance HR attribution on HR practices-affective commitment relationship were examined with results presented in tables 7.22, 7.23, 7.24 and 7.25 respectively.

Table 7.22: Moderated Mediation Effect of Procedural Justice and Sector on the Relationship between HR Practices and Affective Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Procedural Justice** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Independent Variable:* Training** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .000 | .006 | -.010 | .012 |
| Public Sector | .022 | .013 | .004 | .055 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .022 | .013 | .003 | .006 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Benefits** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .000 | .004 | -.008 | .008 |
| Public Sector | .016 | .009 | .002 | .038 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .016 | .010 | .001 | .041 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Participation** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .000 | .083 | -.015 | .018 |
| Public Sector | .034 | .016 | .007 | .073 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .034 | .017 | .005 | .075 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is affective commitment.

Results of the moderation effect of sector on the mediation effect of procedural justice on HR practices-affective commitment relationship in table 7.22 above indicate a significant moderated mediation effect for all the three HR practices: training (Im= .022, CI = .003 to .006), employee benefits (Im= .016, CI = .001 to .041) and employee participation (Im= .034, CI = .005 to .075) since the confidence intervals were without zero. A further examination of the indirect effect scores for public and private sector suggests that for each of the HR practices, this effect was obviously higher in the public sector since the confidence intervals for the indirect effects of procedural justice on HR practices-affective commitment relationship for private sector contained zero for all the HR practices. The results for each sector are as follows: training (private sector: *ab*= .000, CI = -10 to .012; public sector: *ab* = .022, CI = .004 to .055), employee benefits (private sector: *ab* = .000, CI = -.008 to .008; public sector: *ab* = .016, CI = .002 to .038) and employee participation (private sector: *ab* = .000, CI = -.015 to .018; public sector: *ab* = .034, CI = .007 to .073). This indicates that hypothesis *8a* which states that the mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment will be stronger in the public sector is supported.

Table 7.23: Moderated Mediation Effect of Commitment-focused HR Attribution and Sector on the Relationship between HR Practices and Affective Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Commitment-focused HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Independent Variable:* Training** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .000 | .002 | -.004 | .004 |
| Public Sector | .000 | .002 | -.004 | .003 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .000 | .003 | -.006 | .006 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Benefits** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.001 | .002 | -.008 | .001 |
| Public Sector | .000 | .002 | -.003 | .007 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .001 | .003 | -.002 | .014 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Participation** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.007 | .008 | -.026 | .005 |
| Public Sector | .001 | .011 | -.020 | .024 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .008 | .013 | -.012 | .040 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is affective commitment.

In terms of the moderated mediation effect of sector and commitment-focused on HR practices-affective commitment relationship, results in table 7.23 above indicate a non-significant moderated mediation effect for all the HR practices: training (Im= .000, CI = -.006 to .006), employee benefits (Im= .001, CI = -.002 to .014) and employee participation (Im= .008, CI = -.012 to .040). This means that there is no significant effect of sector on the mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on HR practices-affective commitment relationship. Therefore, hypothesis 22*a* is not supported.

As for the moderated mediation effect of sector and control-focused HR attribution on HR practices-affective commitment relationship, results in table 7.24 overleaf suggest that the moderated mediation effect was non-significant: training (Im= .002, CI = -.002 to .016), employee benefits (Im= -.001, CI = -.013 to .002) and employee participation (Im= .002, CI = -.002 to .019). Since hypothesis 24*a* states that the mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment will be the same in both public and private sector, hypothesis 24*a* is therefore supported.

Table 7.24: Moderated Mediation Effect of Control-focused HR Attribution and Sector on the Relationship between HR Practices and Affective Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Control-focused HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Independent Variable:* Training** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.001 | .003 | -.013 | .002 |
| Public Sector | .000 | .002 | -.002 | .007 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .002 | .003 | -.002 | .016 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Benefits** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .001 | .003 | -.002 | .010 |
| Public Sector | -.000 | .001 | -.004 | .002 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.001 | .003 | -.013 | .002 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Participation** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.002 | .004 | -.017 | .001 |
| Public Sector | .000 | .002 | -.003 | .006 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .002 | .004 | -.002 | .019 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is affective commitment.

For the moderated mediation effect of sector and union compliance HR attribution on HR practices-affective commitment relationship, results in table 7.25 below indicate a non-significant moderated mediation effect since the confidence intervals of the index of moderated mediation contained zero for each of the HR practices: training (Im= .006, CI = -.011 to .042), employee benefits (Im= .013, CI = -.028 to .064) and employee participation (Im= .048, CI = -.115 to .192). Therefore, hypothesis 26*a* which states that the mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment will be higher in the public sector is not supported.

Table 7.25: Moderated Mediation Effect of Union Compliance HR Attribution and Sector on the Relationship between HR Practices and Affective Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Union Compliance HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Independent Variable:* Training** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.001 | .011 | -.022 | .022 |
| Public Sector | .005 | .005 | -.001 | .021 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .006 | .012 | -.011 | .042 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Benefits** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.001 | .021 | -.044 | .043 |
| Public Sector | .012 | .008 | -.001 | .035 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .013 | .022 | -.028 | .064 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Participation** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.005 | .076 | -.134 | .149 |
| Public Sector | .043 | .029 | -.013 | .104 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .048 | .081 | -.115 | .192 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is affective commitment.

*The Moderation Effect of Sector on the Effect of Mediating Variables on HR Practices-Normative Commitment Relationship.*

The moderation effects of sector on the mediation effect of each of procedural justice, commitment-focused HR attribution, control-focused HR attribution and union compliance HR attribution on HR practices-normative commitment relationship were examined with results presented in tables 7.26, 7.27, 7.28 and 7.29 respectively.

Table 7.26: Moderated Mediation Effect of Procedural Justice and Sector on the Relationship between HR Practices and Normative Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Procedural Justice** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Independent Variable:* Training** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .095 | .031 | .044 | .171 |
| Public Sector | .062 | .023 | .024 | .112 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.033 | .027 | -.094 | .012 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Benefits** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .067 | .024 | .031 | .128 |
| Public Sector | .044 | .019 | .016 | .091 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.023 | .019 | -.066 | .006 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Participation** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .104 | .030 | .054 | .173 |
| Public Sector | .068 | .022 | .033 | .124 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.036 | .029 | -.103 | .015 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is normative commitment.

Results presented in table 7.26 above indicate a non-significant moderated effect sector on the mediation effect of procedural justice on HR practices-normative commitment relationship for all the HR practices: training (Im= -.033, CI = -.094 to .012), employee benefits (Im= -.023, CI = -.066 to .006) and employee participation (Im= -.036, CI = -.103 to .015) which means hypothesis 8*b* which states that the mediating effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment will be stronger in the public sector is not supported.

In terms of the moderated mediation effect of sector and commitment-focused HR attribution on HR practices-normative commitment relationship, results in table 7.27 overleaf report a non-significant moderated mediation effect for all the HR practices: training (Im= -.000, CI = -.013 to .011), employee benefits (Im= .003, CI = -.004 to .023) and employee participation (Im= .010, CI = -.026 to .078). This means that hypothesis 22*b* which states that the mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment will be higher in the private sector is not supported.

Table 7.27: Moderated Mediation Effect of Commitment-focused HR Attribution and Sector on the Relationship between HR Practices and Normative Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Commitment-focused HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Independent Variable:* Training** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .000 | .003 | -.007 | .009 |
| Public Sector | .000 | .004 | -.008 | .007 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.000 | .005 | -.013 | .011 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Benefits** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.001 | .004 | -.014 | .003 |
| Public Sector | .001 | .004 | -.003 | .016 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .003 | .006 | -.004 | .023 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Participation** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.010 | .017 | -.046 | .028 |
| Public Sector | .010 | .018 | -.023 | .048 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .010 | .025 | -.026 | .078 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is normative commitment.

Similarly, the results for moderated mediation effect of sector and control-focused HR attribution on HR practices-normative commitment relationship presented in table 7.28 overleaf indicate a non-significant moderated mediation effect for all the HR practices: training (Im= .001, CI = -.007 to .020), employee benefits (Im= -.000, CI = -.016 to .008) and employee participation (Im= .001, CI = -.010 to .025). Nevertheless, hypothesis 24*b* is supported since it states that the mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment will be the same in both public and private sector.

Table 7.28: Moderated Mediation Effect of Control-focused HR Attribution and Sector on the Relationship between HR Practices and Normative Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Control-focused HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Independent Variable:* Training** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.006 | .006 | -.024 | .003 |
| Public Sector | -.005 | .007 | -.025 | .002 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .001 | .006 | -.007 | .020 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Benefits** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .003 | .006 | -.007 | .018 |
| Public Sector | .003 | .006 | -.006 | .021 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.000 | .005 | -.016 | .008 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Participation** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.008 | .009 | -.032 | .004 |
| Public Sector | -.007 | .009 | -.045 | .002 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .001 | .008 | -.010 | .025 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is normative commitment.

Finally, results of the moderated mediation effect of sector and union compliance HR attribution on HR practices-normative commitment relationship presented in table 7.29 below show a non-significant moderated mediation effect for all the HR practices: training (Im= -.002, CI = -.053 to .026), employee benefits (Im= -.005, CI = -.064 to .051) and employee participation (Im= -.019, CI = -.285 to .181), which means that hypothesis 26*b* is not supported.

Table 7.29: Moderated Mediation Effect of Union Compliance HR Attribution and Sector on the Relationship between HR Practices and Normative Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Union Compliance HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Independent Variable:* Training** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.006 | .014 | -.040 | .021 |
| Public Sector | -.008 | .011 | -.040 | .005 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.002 | .017 | -.053 | .026 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Benefits** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.013 | .027 | -.074 | .036 |
| Public Sector | -.018 | .018 | -.059 | .011 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.005 | .030 | -.064 | .051 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Participation** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.050 | .092 | -.209 | .181 |
| Public Sector | -.069 | .061 | -.188 | .054 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.019 | .112 | -.285 | .181 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is normative commitment.

*The Moderation Effect of Sector on the Effect of Mediating Variables on HR Practices-Continuance Commitment Relationship.*

The moderation effect of sector on the mediation effect of each of procedural justice, commitment-focused HR attribution, control-focused HR attribution and union compliance HR attribution on HR practices-continuance commitment relationship were examined with results presented in tables 7.30, 7.31, 7.32 and 7.33 respectively. Results for moderated mediation effect of sector and procedural justice in table 7.30 below indicate a non-significant moderated mediation effect for all the HR practices: training (Im= .002, CI = -.052 to .055), employee benefits (Im= .002, CI = -.038 to .040) and employee participation (Im= .003, CI = -.055 to .064) which means that hypothesis 8*c* which states that the mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment will be stronger in the public sector is not supported.

Table 7.30: Moderated Mediation Effect of Procedural Justice and Sector on the Relationship between HR Practices and Continuance Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Procedural Justice** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Independent Variable:* Training** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.035 | .021 | -.089 | -.002 |
| Public Sector | -.033 | .018 | -.079 | -.007 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .002 | .026 | -.052 | .055 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Benefits** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.025 | .017 | -.070 | -.000 |
| Public Sector | -.023 | .013 | -.065 | -.005 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .002 | .019 | -.038 | .040 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Participation** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.039 | .026 | -.097 | .003 |
| Public Sector | -.036 | .020 | -.086 | -.004 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .003 | .029 | -.055 | .064 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is continuance commitment.

As for the moderated mediation effect of sector and commitment-focused HR attribution on HR practices-continuance commitment relationship, results in table 7.31 overleaf indicate a non-significant moderated mediation effect for all the HR practices: training (Im= .000, CI = -.005 to .009), employee benefits (Im= .000, CI = -.009 to .012) and employee participation (Im= .001, CI = -.058 to .048) since the confidence intervals in each case contain zero. This indicates that hypothesis 22*c* which states that the mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment will be higher in the private sector is not supported.

Table 7.31: Moderated Mediation Effect of Commitment-focused HR Attribution and Sector on the Relationship between HR Practices and Continuance Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Commitment-focused HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Independent Variable:* Training** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .000 | .003 | -.006 | .009 |
| Public Sector | .000 | .003 | -.005 | .007 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .000 | .004 | -.005 | .009 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Benefits** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.000 | .004 | -.012 | .006 |
| Public Sector | -.000 | .003 | -.010 | .004 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .000 | .005 | -.009 | .012 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Participation** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.003 | .018 | -.037 | .039 |
| Public Sector | -.002 | .017 | -.038 | .030 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .001 | .026 | -.058 | .048 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is continuance commitment.

Table 7.32: Moderated Mediation Effect of Control-focused HR Attribution and Sector on the Relationship between HR Practices and Continuance Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Control-focused HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Independent Variable:* Training** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.009 | .009 | -.032 | .004 |
| Public Sector | .003 | .005 | -.002 | .019 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .011 | .012 | -.006 | .044 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Benefits** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | .005 | .008 | -.008 | .027 |
| Public Sector | -.001 | -.004 | -.013 | .003 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | -.006 | .011 | -.032 | .010 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Participation** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.012 | .013 | -.052 | .004 |
| Public Sector | .004 | .006 | -.004 | .022 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .016 | .016 | -.005 | .064 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is continuance commitment.

Similar findings were reported for the moderated mediation effect of sector and control-focused HR attribution on HR practices- continuance commitment relationship. Results in table 7.32 above indicate a non-significant moderated mediation effect for all the HR practices: training (Im= .011, CI = -.006 to .044), employee benefits (Im= -.006, CI = -.032 to .010) and employee participation (Im= .016, CI = -.005 to .064) since the confidence intervals contained zero in each case. Nevertheless, hypothesis 24*c* is supported since it states that the mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment will be the same in both public and private sector.

Table 7.33: Moderated Mediation Effect of Union Compliance HR Attribution and Sector on the Relationship between HR Practices and Continuance Commitment

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variables** | **Indirect Effect** | **Boot SE** | **Boot LLCI** | **Boot ULCI** |
| ***Mediator*:** **Union Compliance HR Attribution** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Independent Variable:* Training** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.003 | .016 | -.043 | .016 |
| Public Sector | .014 | .011 | -.000 | .047 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .017 | .021 | -.003 | .085 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Benefits** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.007 | .031 | -.083 | .039 |
| Public Sector | .031 | .018 | .006 | .079 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .038 | .037 | -.009 | .143 |
| ***Independent Variable:* Employee Participation** |  |  |  |  |
| ***Moderator:* Sector** |  |  |  |  |
| Private Sector | -.027 | .112 | -.253 | .140 |
| Public Sector | .116 | .046 | .032 | .213 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .143 | .122 | -.036 | .403 |

Notes: N = 521; Outcome variable is continuance commitment.

Finally, results of the moderated mediation effect of sector and union compliance HR attribution on HR practices-continuance commitment relationship presented in table 7.33 above indicate a non-significant moderated mediation effect for all the HR practices: training (Im= .017, CI = -.003 to .085), employee benefits (Im= .038, CI = -.009 to .143) and employee participation (Im= .143, CI = -.036 to .403) since the confidence intervals in each case contained zero. This indicates that hypothesis 26*c* which states that the mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment will be higher in the public sector is not supported.

In sum, results of tests of moderated mediation effects indicate that only hypothesis 8a was supported. On the other hand, hypotheses 8b-c, 21, 22a-c, 23, 24a-c, 25 and 26a-c were not supported. The summary of the chapter is the focus of the next section.

### 7.6 Summary

The analysis of data and findings from study 2 were presented in this chapter. The chapter presented the analysis of data to establish reliability and construct validity of the constructs in the research. Thereafter, hypothesized relationships that were presented in chapter 6 were tested via regression analysis, tests of mediation effects and tests of moderated mediation effects. Findings reveal that HR practices had significant positive relationship with job satisfaction, affective commitment and normative commitment. The effect of HR practices on continuance commitment was however negative. Further, results indicate that procedural justice had significant effects on affective and normative commitment but not with job satisfaction. In addition, commitment-focused HR attribution had significant effects on job satisfaction but not with all the three forms of organizational commitment. However, both control-focused and union compliance HR attributions had no significant effects on job satisfaction and the three forms of organizational commitment.

The test of mediation effect revealed that the effect of training and employee benefits on affective, normative and continuance commitment were mediated by procedural justice whilst there was no mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between employee participation and employee attitudes. Neither was there a mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes. As for the mediation effect of HR attributions, findings revealed that only commitment-focused HR attribution mediated the relationship between employee participation and job satisfaction but not with any of the three forms of organizational commitment. However, there was no mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on the relationship between training as well as employee benefits on any of the employee attitudes. Further, the other two forms of HR attributions – control-focused and union compliance HR attributions – had no mediation effect on the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes.

Finally, the tests of moderated mediation effects indicated that the mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices (training, employee benefits and employee participation) and affective commitment was higher in the public sector. Results of moderated mediation effect of sector and HR attributions on the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes were however not significant. The results of the test of hypotheses are summarised in table 7. 34. The findings from this study along with those from study 1 will be discussed in the next chapter.

Table 7.34: Summary of Hypotheses Results

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Hypothesis** | **Hypothesis Statement** | **Finding** |
| 1 | There is a positive relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction | Supported |
| 2*a* | There is a positive relationship between HR practices and affective commitment | Supported |
| 2*b* | There is a positive relationship between HR practices and normative commitment. | Supported |
| 2*c* | There is a positive relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment | Not Supported |
| 3 | There is a positive relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction | Not Supported |
| 4*a* | There is a positive relationship between procedural justice and affective commitment | Supported |
| 4*b* | There is a positive relationship between procedural justice and normative commitment | Supported |
| 4*c* | There is a positive relationship between procedural justice and continuance commitment | Not Supported |
| 5 | Procedural justice will mediate the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction | Not Supported |
| 6*a* | Procedural justice will mediate the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment | Partially Supported |
| 6*b* | Procedural justice will mediate the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment | Partially Supported |
| 6*c* | Procedural justice will mediate the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment | Partially Supported |
| 7 | The mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction will be stronger in the public sector | Not Supported |
| 8*a* | The mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment will be stronger in the public sector | Supported |
| 8*b* | The mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment will be stronger in the public sector | Not Supported |
| 8*c* | The mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment will be stronger in the public sector | Not Supported |
| 9 | There is a positive relationship between commitment-focused HR attribution and job satisfaction | Supported |
| 10*a* | There is a positive relationship between commitment-focused HR attribution and affective commitment | Not Supported |
| 10*b* | There is a positive relationship between commitment-focused HR attribution and normative commitment | Not Supported |
| 10*c* | There is a positive relationship between commitment-focused HR attribution and continuance commitment | Not Supported |
| 11 | There is a negative relationship between control-focused HR attribution and job satisfaction | Not Supported |
| 12*a* | There is a negative relationship between control-focused HR attribution and affective commitment | Not Supported |
| 12*b* | There is a negative relationship between control-focused HR attribution and normative commitment | Not Supported |
| 12*c* | There is a negative relationship between control-focused HR attribution and continuance commitment | Not Supported |
| 13 | There is a positive relationship between union compliance HR attribution and job satisfaction | Not Supported |
| 14*a* | There is a positive relationship between union compliance HR attribution and affective commitment | Not Supported |
| 14*b* | There is a positive relationship between union compliance HR attribution and normative commitment | Not Supported |
| 14*c* | There is a positive relationship between union compliance HR attribution and continuance commitment | Not Supported |
| 15 | Commitment-focused HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction | Partially Supported |
| 16*a* | Commitment-focused HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment | Not Supported |
| 16*b* | Commitment-focused HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment | Not Supported |
| 16*c* | Commitment-focused HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment | Not Supported |
| 17 | Control-focused HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction | Not Supported |
| 18*a* | Control-focused HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment | Not Supported |
| 18*b* | Control-focused HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment | Not Supported |
| 18*c* | Control-focused HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment | Not Supported |
| 19 | Union compliance HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction | Not Supported |
| 20*a* | Union compliance HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment | Not Supported |
| 20*b* | Union compliance HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment | Not Supported |
| 20*c* | Union compliance HR attribution will mediate the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment | Not Supported |
| 21 | The mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction will be higher in the private sector | Not Supported |
| 22*a* | The mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment will be higher in the private sector | Not Supported |
| 22*b* | The mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment will be higher in the private sector | Not Supported |
| 22*c* | The mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment will be higher in the private sector | Not Supported |
| 23 | The mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction will be the same in both public and private sector | Supported |
| 24*a* | The mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment will be the same in both public and private sector | Supported |
| 24*b* | The mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment will be the same in both public and private sector | Supported |
| 24*c* | The mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment will be the same in both public and private sector | Supported |
| 25 | The mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction will be higher in the public sector | Not Supported |
| 26*a* | The mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment will be higher in the public sector | Not Supported |
| 26*b* | The mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment will be higher in the public sector | Not Supported |
| 26*c* | The mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment will be higher in the public sector | Not Supported |

# CHAPTER EIGHT

## DISCUSSION

### 8.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to provide a detailed discussion of the findings from study 1 reported in chapter 5 and the findings from study 2 reported in the previous chapter. In addition, the conclusions drawn from the research are provided in this chapter as well as the research contributions. The findings from both studies are therefore integrated into a single piece of research whilst the discussion is arranged based on the three research questions addressed in the research. The chapter begins with a discussion of how institutions influence HRM in public and public sector in Nigeria. This is followed by the specific techniques of HRM adopted in public and private sector in Nigeria whilst the final section is focused on the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in public and private sector.

### 8.2 How do institutions influence HRM in public and private sector in Nigeria?

To address the question of how institutions influence HRM in public and private sector in Nigeria, 122 HR managers in public and private sector were surveyed. The focus of the survey was to tap the views of HR managers from diverse industries on the extent to which labour laws, trade unions, professional bodies, vocational education set-up, international institutions and government policy influenced HRM decisions in their organizations. In addition, qualitative interviews were conducted with HR managers in order to have a better understanding of the dynamics of how HRM is influenced by institutions in public and private sector in Nigeria. Although the framework of new institutionalism developed by DiMaggio & Powell (1983) provided a guide on the structure of the interview questions, I also considered alternative institutional frameworks to provide direction in which to look, whilst analysing the data obtained from qualitative interviews. Findings from survey data indicated that national labour laws, trade unions, professional bodies, international institutions and government policy influenced HRM in both public and private sector. However, findings suggest that contrary to the sociological institutional approaches (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983), these institutions did not influence HRM in a similar way whilst the influence of institutions on HRM generally would depend on the industry, sector or size of the organization.

Based on the views of HR managers obtained from the survey data, trade unions had the highest influence on HRM whilst international institutions had the lowest influence. Nevertheless, the influence of trade unions was more likely in government ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) than in the manufacturing industry whilst in terms of sector, the influence of trade unions was more likely to be encountered in the public sector than in private sector organizations. This indicates the anti-union stance of some private sector organizations in line with the ideologies of neo-liberalism (Adewumi, 2012).

In terms of the size of the organization, large organizations were more likely to indicate that HRM decisions in their organizations were influenced by institutions than small organizations. On the other hand, and expectedly, industries with professionalized employee groups like the health industry were more likely to indicate the influence of professional bodies on HRM decisions. This diversity in the influence of institutions on HRM based on size, industry and sector resonates with the literature on segmented business system theory (Wood & Frynas, 2006). As noted by Wood & Horwitz (2015, p.23), the segmented business system theory “highlights uneven nature of institutional coverage and great internal variations according to firm type or sector”. This indicates the relevance of comparative institutional theories to the understanding of the influence of institutions on HRM in Nigeria since these theories account for national differences in institutional configurations of countries (Wood *et al.*, 2012).

The findings from the survey data were corroborated by findings from interview data, although the latter provided deeper insights on how institutions influenced HRM in both sectors. From the interview data, institutions such as labour laws, trade unions, regulatory bodies and two context-specific themes identified as host community and influence of elites were categorised as coercive institutional mechanisms (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Paauwe & Boselie, 2003). Whilst these coercive mechanisms influenced HRM in both sectors, there were striking differences in the level of influence between public and private sector organizations. Although organizations from both public and private sector alluded to the importance of labour laws in determining HRM policies in their organizations, it was evident that in some cases, not all aspects of labour laws were adhered to in private organizations. For instance, findings from the interview data indicate that not all private organizations adhered to the minimum wage law in Nigeria. This is especially the case when low-skilled employees are involved. On the other hand, findings pointed to the adherence to labour laws in the public sector. The lack of compliance with some aspects of labour legislation in some private organizations is reflective of the uneven coverage of institutions highlighted by segmented business system theorists and is typical of many African contexts (Wood & Frynas, 2006; Bischoff & Wood, 2012).

Of course, where labour law enforcement agencies are weak and competition is fierce, employers who are not responsible are bound to take advantage of workers (Webster & Wood, 2005). What is more, the high level of unemployment in many African contexts confers undue advantage to employers when dealing with employees (Aryee, 2004; Kamoche *et al*., 2004; Wood *et al*., 2011). In contexts of high unemployment, workers are compelled to put up with poor conditions of work due to the shortage or lack of alternative jobs (Wood *et al*., 2011). In the particular case of Nigeria, this situation is exacerbated by the high level of corruption wherein in some cases, those that are responsible for enforcing compliance with labour laws deliberately turn a blind eye to such violations of the law (Okpara & Wynn, 2008). Notwithstanding the presence of corruption, and perhaps due to the public scrutiny that public organizations generally face (Rainey, 2014), the evidence suggests that HRM in the public sector in Nigeria is more likely to be influenced by labour laws than HRM in the private sector. This may suggest, as others have pointed out (Dibben & Wood, 2013), that the public sector plays an exemplary role in providing better conditions of employment.

The requirements of regulatory bodies also influence HRM in public and private sector in Nigeria. Again, just like the case of labour laws, the influence of regulatory bodies may be inhibited due to the presence of corruption as some organizations may fail to comply with regulatory requirements without sanctions. Nevertheless, findings suggest that the level of influence of regulatory bodies is more pronounced in the public sector due to the multiplicity of regulatory bodies. One particular example of the influence of regulatory bodies on HRM in the public sector is the Federal Character Commission whose role is to ensure that the employee-base of public sector organizations cuts across all the geo-political zones in Nigeria (Mustapha, 2009). This kind of arrangement is common in societies where there is ethnic diversity and/or where historical inequities exist (Webster & Wood, 2005; Dibben & Wood, 2013). This highlights the role of the public sector in bridging ethnic diversity in many African contexts (Dibben & Wood, 2013).

Thus, whilst it might be tempting to criticise the federal character principle for promoting mediocrity against meritocracy in the Nigerian public sector (e.g. Olusoji *et al*., 2014), viewed from an institutional perspective, the federal character principle is a classic example of a complementarity that is aimed at ‘compensating for systemic weaknesses’ (cf. Lane & Wood, 2009). Nevertheless, if not properly monitored, some managers in the public sector may hide under the cloak of federal character principle to perpetrate ethnicity, nepotism and favouritism (Mustapha, 2009).

It has been argued that decent work and pay as well as national development could be achieved in developing countries through trade unionism (Fajana, 2008). However, in contrast to the public sector where trade unions have a relatively strong influence on HRM decisions, trade unionism in the private sector in Nigeria is weak or in some instances absent. Surprisingly, all the private sector organizations that participated in the qualitative interviews were not unionised. Moreover, findings from the interview data demonstrate the anti-union stance of HR managers in these private sector organizations. Although there are claims of freedom of association as a fundamental human right in modern democracies, such rights are not respected in many private organizations when it comes to workers’ rights to belong to trade unions (Adewumi, 2012*a*). Even where there is union presence, the high level of unemployment weakens the capacity of trade unions to demand for improved conditions of work (Fajana, 2007; Adewumi, 2012*a*).

In fact, the anti-union stance of some private sector organizations epitomises the dictatorial tendencies of neo-liberalism (Dardot & Laval, 2013). Such neo-liberal ideologies have found their way into developing countries via the instrumentality of the World Bank and IMF who force developing countries to relax laws protecting workers’ rights under the guise of promoting free trade and attracting foreign direct investment (Wood & Horwitz, 2015). It goes without saying that the weakened position of trade unions in some private sector organizations has worsened the conditions of employment in Nigeria as workers are deprived of the opportunity to seek better conditions of work through collective bargaining agreements (Fajana, 2007; Adewumi & Adenuga, 2010). Instead, it confers on employers the right to hire and fire arbitrarily as evidenced in private commercial banks in Nigeria (Chovwen & Ivensor, 2009; Gomes *et al*., 2012).

Apart from the coercive mechanisms described above, two context-specific coercive mechanisms that emerged from the interview data were labelled as host community and influence of elites. These various groups may wield some influence on HRM decisions especially in the area of recruitment and selection. In many African contexts where unemployment is high, it is common for individuals to secure employment through social networks (Mellahi & Wood, 2003; Webster & Wood, 2005). For instance, it is common for some politician or top government functionary to influence the employment of their kith and kin in the public sector in Nigeria (Anakwe, 2002; Adeleye, 2011; Akanle & Adesina, 2015).

Of course, the issue of nepotism and favouritism may not limited to the public sector. As findings from the interview data suggest, high net worth individuals may influence employment in the private sector in return for patronage. Indeed, due to the ethnic diversity in Nigeria, and coupled with the limited employment opportunities in the country, many writers on Nigerian HRM have highlighted the influence of favouritism and nepotism on recruitment and selection in some organizations in Nigeria (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001; Anakwe, 2002; Okpara & Wynn, 2008). There is also the issue of host communities that influence employment decisions in many organizations by requesting for some employment quotas for members of the community. In order to maintain a cordial relationship with the host community, organizations are forced to develop recruitment and selection policies that take into account the demands of the host community. In sum, these institutions, although informal, exert some influence on HRM in both public and private sector in Nigeria.

Whilst the discussion on coercive mechanisms highlight the differences in the ways institutions influence HRM in public and private sector in Nigeria as identified from the qualitative interviews, equally identified from these interviews were institutions that influenced HRM in both sectors in the same direction. Among these were staff transfer/imitation and the influence of consultants which are classified under mimetic mechanisms (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Paauwe & Boselie, 2003). As organizations hire staff from other organizations, they are bound to transfer with them some practices from previous organizations which may result to the spread of HR practices across organizations (Paauwe & Boselie, 2007). Results suggest that this was the case in both public and private sector, especially in the banking industry in Nigeria where staff turnover is high.

In a similar vein, the increasing use of consultants to recommend HRM solutions means that practices are bound to spread across organizations (Paauwe & Boselie, 2007). This is especially the case when organizations face uncertain circumstances since adopting HRM solutions based on recommendations from consultants may enhance the legitimacy of organizations (Sturdy, 2011). Nevertheless, Sturdy (2011) emphasized the need for organizations to be cautious when seeking managerial solutions from consultants since most of the recommendations from consultants are aimed at instigating neo-liberal reforms in organizations. Thus, in some cases, management consultants may act as agents for promoting neo-liberal ideologies across different contexts (Sturdy, 2011; Dardot & Laval, 2013). In the case of Nigeria and as the findings from the qualitative interviews suggest, some neo-liberal practices such as downsizing have been experimented in many organizations based on the recommendation of management consultants. This finding corresponds with the sentiments expressed by Ovadje & Ankomah (2001) who noted at the time that there was increased interest in the use of consultants to provide solutions to management problems in Nigeria which has resulted to the spread of ‘best practices’. After more than a decade following Ovadje & Ankomah's (2001) observation, the findings from this research suggest that this interest has not waned and may have resulted in part, to the similarity of some HRM practices across organizations in Nigeria.

In addition to the influence of mimetic mechanisms, normative mechanisms categorised as professional socialization based on the findings from the qualitative interviews also influenced HRM in public and private sector in the same direction. Findings indicate that both public and private organizations demonstrated a tendency to rely on professionals to perform the function of HRM in their organizations. This is perhaps due to the recognition of HRM to organizational success. The implication is that HRM professionals, through their educational background as well as their participation in professional associations and training institutes may contribute to the spread of neo-liberal HRM practices across organizations. The Chartered Institute of Personnel Management (CIPM) – an equivalent of the Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD) in UK – is one of the avenues for disseminating HRM practices across organizations in Nigeria. In addition, the attendance of HRM professionals to workshops and seminars both locally and internationally has aided the dissemination of HRM practices across organizations. Such workshops, often sponsored by international development partners, in the case of public sector organizations, are usually aimed at disseminating ‘best practices’ in HRM.

In addition, participation in employers’ associations may provide avenues for the spread of HRM practices in the private sector. The Nigeria Employers’ Consultative Association (NECA) is the umbrella employers’ association in Nigeria where employers meet to discuss employment-related issues and may become an avenue for dissemination of practices (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001). Other affiliate employers association organised along industry lines as the findings suggest, may serve as platforms for disseminating HR practices in a particular industry.

Findings from the qualitative interviews also suggest that *economic pressures* influence the nature of HRM across organizations in Nigeria since organizations are not insulated from the economic environment in which they operate. As the literature on comparative HRM suggests, the economic conditions of countries will influence the way organizations relate with employees (Brewster & Mayrhofer, 2012). In the case of Nigeria, employees are often faced with poor economic conditions for which they rely on employers to develop policies that will enable them cope with economic challenges (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001). Due to the poor state of infrastructure in Nigeria, responsible employers may provide transport or housing facilities to employees to enable them cope better with work. Nevertheless, this may more likely be the case in the public sector since most times private organizations seek to minimise labour cost. Thus, such economic pressures may influence HRM in both public and private sector, particularly when it comes to providing employee benefits.

In sum, the findings on the influence of institutions on HRM suggest the existence of mimetic and normative forces that tend to shape HRM in the same direction in both public and private sector. However, coercive mechanisms tend to shape HRM in different directions in public and private sector with the influence of coercive mechanisms stronger in the public sector. More so, there are informal institutions and economic pressures that influence HRM in both public and private sector in Nigeria, which further highlights the context-nature of HRM.

### 8.3 What are the Specific Techniques of HRM adopted in Public and Private Sector in Nigeria?

The specific techniques of HRM used in four domains of HRM namely, recruitment and selection, training, employee benefits and employee participation were examined in public and private sector in Nigeria. The discussion of findings on the specific techniques used in each HRM domain is presented below.

#### 8.3.1 Recruitment and Selection

The techniques of recruitment in public and private sector organizations in Nigeria were examined from the perspective of HR managers. Data were collected on the specific techniques used for recruiting management staff, technical staff, clerical staff and manual staff. For each category of staff, managers provided information on whether recruitment was done internally, via word of mouth, via advertisement, via recruitment agencies, or whether other systems of recruitment were used. Findings indicate that overall, advertisement was the most preferred method of recruitment in public and private sector in Nigeria. This finding corresponds with earlier findings on recruitment techniques used by organizations in Nigeria (Arthur *et al*., 1995). However, the use of advertisement as indeed other techniques of recruitment varied according to employee category, industry, sector and size of organization.

Whilst advertisement was mostly used for recruiting management and technical staff, the recruitment of staff internally and via word of mouth were more likely to be used for recruiting clerical and manual staff respectively. This indicates that the technique of recruitment used by organizations in Nigeria depends in part, on the category of staff to be recruited. In terms of sector, advertisement was more likely to be used in public sector than in private sector organizations for recruiting management, technical and clerical staff. This is unsurprising since apart from the cost of advertisement which some private organizations may try to avoid, the relatively high use of advertisement in public sector is perhaps to enable public sector organizations attract applicants from diverse ethnic backgrounds in line with the federal character principle (Mustapha, 2009).

Apart from employee category and sector, the technique of recruitment was also influenced by the size of the organization. Findings indicate that small organizations were more likely to recruit employees internally than large organizations. This technique of recruitment involves redeployment of existing staff to fill vacancies in the organization (Lievens & Chapman, 2010). Whilst internal recruitment may enable organizations to save costs that would have been incurred to recruit externally, it limits the possibility of organizations to attract quality talent that may exist outside of the organization (Searle, 2009). At the same time, recruiting internally may, in most cases, result in increased workload for employees which may lead to increased stress levels and fatigue for employees (Breaugh, 2008; Ryan & Derous, 2016). Similarly, small organizations were more likely to recruit using word of mouth as a technique of recruitment, albeit mostly for recruiting clerical and manual staff. Again, the use of word of mouth may eliminate potential applicants who are not within the social networks of those responsible for spreading the word about existing vacancies (Webster & Wood, 2005). Whilst the use of recruitment agencies was not common across all employee groups, large private organizations were more likely to use this technique of recruitment; although this was mostly for recruiting management staff.

Other techniques of recruitment, notably the use of online recruitment via websites were in use in industries such as banking/financial services, ICT/media, government MDAs and health. The use of this technique was however mostly for management and technical staff. Nevertheless, whilst online recruitment saves time and cost (Searle, 2009; Lievens & Chapman, 2010), due to the poor internet infrastructure in Nigeria, many potential applicants may be excluded from applying for existing vacancies. On the whole, the findings on the techniques of recruitment suggest that whilst it is common for organizations in Nigeria to have recruitment practices (Okpara & Wynn, 2008), the specific technique used may depend on the category of employees, industry, sector, and size of organization. This finding corresponds with findings from other African contexts (Webster & Wood, 2005) and also in line with the literature on segmented business system theory (Wood & Frynas, 2006; Wood *et al*., 2011).

Selection techniques of public and private organizations were also examined for each job category. HR managers provided information on whether employees for each category were selected without interviews, by filling application forms only, via interviews, via use of psychometric tests or whether there were other selection techniques. Findings indicate that interviews were the most preferred technique for selecting employees in public and private sector in Nigeria. Nevertheless, the use of interviews and indeed other techniques of selection depended on the employee category and the nature of the organization. Generally, public sector organizations were more likely to interview applicants across all employee groups than private sector organizations. Nevertheless, as with the case of recruitment earlier noted, the presence of corruption in the public sector may mean that in some cases, such interviews are an exercise to gain legitimacy as candidates that never attended interviews end up being selected to fill vacancies. Findings also suggest that the use of interviews may depend on the employee category as technical and management staff were more likely to be selected via interviews. On the other hand, clerical and manual staff were more likely to be selected by only completing application forms whilst in extreme cases, employees were selected without interviews.

The size of the organization was also a major determinant of the type of selection technique used. Small organizations were more likely to select employees without interviews; although this was more likely to be for clerical and manual staff. Whilst interviews present organizations with the opportunity to interact with applicants in order to select the most suitably qualified candidates (Searle, 2009; Lievens & Chapman, 2010), selecting employees without interviews means that organizations may end up placing round pegs in square holes, with attendant consequences on employee performance. On the other hand, and although less common, large organizations were more likely to supplement interviews with psychometric tests.

The use of psychometric tests was however more likely in industries such as banking/financial services, ICT/media and government MDAs. Expectedly, psychometric tests were mostly used for selecting technical staff due to the importance attached to the skills they bring to the organization. Of course, the combination of psychometric tests with interviews result in the selection of best quality applicants to fill vacancies (Searle, 2009). These findings suggest that the technique of selection in Nigerian organizations depends not only on the employee group, the characteristics of the organization such as industry, sector and size determined the extent to which the various techniques of selection were used. In particular, small private organizations were more likely to use informal techniques of selection than public sector organizations. Again, the extent of the use of recruitment techniques in Nigerian organizations corresponds with Webster & Wood's (2005) Mozambican study and is also in line with the literature on segmented business system theory (Wood & Frynas, 2006; Wood *et al*., 2011).

#### 8.3.2 Training

Training is important to employees and organizations since it results in improvement in knowledge and skills of employees to enable them perform their jobs effectively (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009). However, the amount and quality of training employees receive is influenced by the institutional context (Grugulis, 2013) and the type of organization (Wood *et al*., 2011). In this research, HR managers in public and private sector in Nigeria provided information on the type of training used in their organizations. Specifically, managers indicated whether they used informal workplace training, formal workplace training (uncertified), formal workplace training (certified), sponsored courses (technical), sponsored courses (administrative), sponsored courses (managerial) and whether other systems of training were in use. Findings indicate that the most common form of training used across organizations in Nigeria was informal workplace training, in line with findings from other African contexts (Webster & Wood, 2005; Wood *et al*., 2011).

Although previous studies indicate that training was generally low in Nigeria (Anakwe, 2002), findings from the present study suggest that a reasonable number of organizations in Nigeria used formal workplace based training. This is perhaps as a result of the monetary incentives organizations receive from Industrial Training Fund (ITF) for providing formal workplace training (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001). Nevertheless, the type of formal training provided was mainly uncertified. On the other hand, few organizations provided certified formal training whilst others indicated that external training in the shape of sponsored courses with outside training bodies for different employee categories were used. Only in minority of cases did managers indicate they used other systems of training with computer-based training the most preferred type of training under this category.

However, consistent with the segmented business system theory (Wood & Frynas, 2006), the type of training used depended on the nature of the organization. In particular, small organizations were more likely to indicate that they used informal workplace based training than large organizations. As opposed to formal training which is systematically designed (Yang *et al*., 2009), the reliance on informal workplace training which is highly unstructured and inconsistent may fail to inculcate in employees the desired knowledge and skills needed to perform the job. On the other hand, large organizations were more likely to make use of external training. This may not be unrelated to the cost of sponsoring employees to attend courses with external training bodies which small organizations may try to avoid in order to cope with competition.

In terms of sector, public sector organizations indicated they used certified formal workplace training and external training more than their private sector counterparts whilst private sector organizations made use of uncertified formal workplace training more than organizations in the public sector. Again, this may reflect the cost-cutting measures adopted by private organizations in many developing countries to cope with competition occasioned by liberalization (Wood *et al*., 2011). As this finding suggests, cost appears to be an important variable that sets apart small versus large and private versus public organizations in Nigeria in their investment in human capital.

#### 8.3.3 Employee Benefits

To examine the specific techniques of employee benefits in public and private sector, HR managers indicated the presence or otherwise of productivity awards, paid overtime, severance package, breaks during working day, paid vacation, paid sick leave, health insurance and other benefits in their organizations. Findings indicate that the provision of these types of benefits was generally low across organizations whilst the specific type of employee benefits used depended on the nature of the organization. The provision of statutory benefits such as paid overtime, paid vacation, paid sick leave among others was more likely in industries such as MDAs and health whilst in terms of sector, this was more likely in public sector than in the private sector. The low provision of statutory benefits in the private sector is indicative of the likelihood of some private sector organizations to violate labour legislation since most of these benefits are required by law in Nigeria as per the Labour Act of 1998 (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001). As earlier noted, such violations of labour legislation is possible in the context of Nigeria due to corruption and the weak institutional capacity to enforce compliance (Okpara & Wynn, 2008).

Moreover, the tendency of some private sector organizations to deny employees access to benefits that are due to them reflects some of the cost-cutting measures organizations in many developing countries adopt in order to cope with competition (Webster & Wood, 2005). On the other hand, whilst it is encouraging that most of these benefits were provided in the public sector thereby further confirming the status of the public sector in leading by example in the provision of favourable conditions of employment (Dibben & Wood, 2013), one would expect that at least all the statutorily-required benefits will be available in all public sector organizations. The reason for the lack of provision of all statutory benefits in all the public sector organizations may be the result of neo-liberal reforms in the public sector that have resulted in budget cuts for many public organizations in Nigeria as a way of promoting ‘efficiency’ in the public sector (Omar, 2012).

Whereas the provision of statutory benefits was low, the provision of ‘other benefits’ was high across industries and sectors. An analysis of other types of benefits provided suggests that formal benefits in this category such as housing and transport allowance, childcare support among others were more likely to be provided in large than small organizations and in public than in private sector organizations. On the contrary, informal benefits such as emergency loans and salary advance, support during celebratory periods, and support in time of ‘need’ such as a family bereavement were largely used but were more likely to be used in private sector organizations. Perhaps, this may be a way of compensating for the lack of provision of statutory benefits in some private organizations.

In Nigeria as indeed in other African contexts, it is common for employers to support employees by contributing towards ceremonies involving an employee member such as weddings, or burial ceremonies of family members of workers (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001; Kamoche *et al*., 2004). In addition to monetary contributions, managers and employees are obligated to attend such ceremonies as a show of support and solidarity to the employee involved; failure to do so will be viewed as un-African and will demonstrate a lack of concern for the wellbeing of employees (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001; Jackson, 2004; Kamoche *et al*., 2004). Similarly, during emergency situations employers are expected to provide financial assistance usually in the form of emergency loans (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001; Webster & Wood, 2005). These gestures, as little as they seem, are a powerful way of creating a cooperative and familial work environment – values that are cherished in African contexts (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001; Jackson, 2004). However, as Bischoff & Wood (2012) observe, the use of informal benefits, and coupled with low wages may encourage continued dependence of employees on their employers and may create room for exploitation of labour.

To sum up, the finding on the techniques of employee benefits used in public and private sector indicates that informal benefits were mostly used in organizations across industries and sectors. However, these types of benefits were more likely to be used in private sector than public sector. On the other hand, the use of formal, statutory benefits was generally low but was more likely to be used in industries such as health and MDAs and in large organizations. These were also more likely to be used in public sector than in the private sector as a result of the neglect of labour legislation in some private sector organizations due to the weak institutional capacity to enforce compliance with labour legislation. Meanwhile, the nature of diversity in the provision of employee benefits based on industry, sector and size of organization is typical of a segmented business system (Wood & Frynas, 2006; Wood *et al*., 2011).

#### 8.3.4 Employee Participation

The techniques of direct participation used in public and private sector were examined in the present research. Two forms of direct participation namely, information sharing and employee consultation schemes were the focus of the research. To obtain information on the techniques of information sharing, HR managers indicated whether notice boards, team briefing, shop steward, organizational newsletter or other forms of information sharing were used. Findings suggest that the use of formal methods of information sharing such as notice boards, team briefing, shop steward and organizational newsletter was generally low across industries and sectors. However, the extent to which each technique was used depended on the industry, sector and size of organization.

For instance, organizations in the health industry were more likely to make use notice boards as a technique of disseminating information whilst private sector organizations were more likely to make use of notice boards than public sector organizations. In the same vein, private sector organizations were more likely to make use of organizational newsletter. A commonality in the formal techniques of information sharing more likely to be used in the private sector is the top-down and non-interactive nature of these techniques. This may reflect the authoritarianism that characterise many workplaces in African contexts (Kamoche *et al*., 2004; Wood, 2010). On the other hand, techniques of information sharing that can also be characterised as top-down, albeit interactive wherein employees can exchange ideas with managers such as team briefing and shop steward were more likely to be used in the public sector than in private sector organizations. In terms of size, large organizations were more likely to share information with employees than small organizations.

However, there was widespread use of ‘other systems’ of information sharing across industries and sectors in Nigeria. These techniques comprised of formal techniques such as the use of staff e-mail which were more likely to be used in large organizations and informal techniques such as meetings and word of mouth. The widespread use of informal techniques of information sharing, particularly meetings, is in tandem with findings from Mozambican context (Webster & Wood, 2005; Wood *et al*., 2011). Whilst meetings can provide opportunity for information sharing, employees may be denied access to regular information where such meetings are not frequently held (Webster & Wood, 2005). In fact, the use of informal techniques of information sharing was more prevalent in the private sector than in the public sector, perhaps to compensate for the minimal use of formal techniques.

As for the techniques of employee consultation, managers indicated whether they used employee consultation techniques such as suggestion boxes, workplace surveys, briefings where feedback is solicited and whether other techniques were used. Findings indicate that the use of formal techniques of consultation was low across industries and sectors. However the use of specific techniques varied across industry, sector and size of organization. For example, the use of suggestion boxes was more likely in banking/financial services, MDAs, and education industries than in manufacturing which may reflect the presence of highly-skilled employees in these industries than in manufacturing. In terms of sector, the use of suggestion boxes was more likely in the public sector than in private sector organizations. Similarly, briefing where feedback is solicited was more likely to be encountered in the public sector than in private sector organizations.

Nevertheless, just like the case of information sharing, ‘other systems’ of employee consultation were more likely used across all the organizations. Techniques used under the umbrella of ‘other systems’ were largely informal in nature with meetings the most preferred method of consultation. In some instances, organizations indicated they operated an ‘open door policy’ that allowed employees to air their views on issues affecting their work. Due to the lack of egalitarianism in many African work contexts (Ovadje & Ankomah, 2001; Kamoche *et al*., 2004), the use of these largely informal methods of consultation may not be effective since subordinates may view contrary opinions as an affront to the authority of superiors. On the other hand, where trust relationships are established between superiors and subordinates, these techniques may be surprisingly effective since they may provide a friendly and relaxed atmosphere for employees to express their views.

In sum, the analysis of techniques of employee participation in public and private sector in Nigeria indicates that informal techniques were more likely to be used than formal techniques. However, the use of informal techniques was more likely to be encountered in small than large organizations and in private than public sector organizations. Moreover, private organizations were more likely to use top-down information sharing techniques as opposed to a more bottom-up approach of consultation used in public sector organizations. Whilst both information sharing and employee consultation are valid mechanisms of employee participation, the difference is that employee consultation provides avenues for employees to express their views about their work (Wilkinson *et al*., 2007; Wilkinson & Dundon, 2010; Wood, 2010).

Interestingly, when juxtaposed with the higher influence of trade unions on HRM in the public sector reported earlier, the higher use of consultation schemes in the public sector suggests that forms of direct participation that seek to promote partnership between employees and the organization are more likely to be encountered in contexts where trade unions exist (cf. Brewster *et al*., 2014). On the whole, the diversity in the use of employee participation techniques according to industry, sector and size of organization in Nigeria is characteristic of a segmented business system (Wood & Frynas, 2006; Wood & Horwitz, 2015).

### 8.4 What is the Effect of HR Practices on Employee Attitudes in Public and Private Sector in Nigeria?

The effect of HR practices on employee attitudes was examined in study 2 of this research. The HR practices examined in this part of the research were training, employee benefits and employee participation. This means that recruitment and selection were not included in study 2 since it was considered that HR managers, rather than employees were in a better position to provide responses to questions relating to recruitment and selection practices. Given that study 2 was focused on employees’ perceptions of HR practices, recruitment and selection were excluded from this study. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment were the two types of employee attitudes examined in this research. These two types of employee attitudes represent employee attitudes towards their jobs and their employing organization respectively (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Organizational commitment was conceptualized as a multi-dimensional construct comprising of affective, normative and continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Direct relationships between HR practices and employee attitudes were tested as well as the mediation effect of procedural justice and HR attributions and moderated mediation effect of sector.

Findings from the tests of direct relationships between HR practices and employee attitudes indicate that HR practices had positive effects on job satisfaction, affective commitment and normative commitment. These findings correspond with findings from previous studies (e.g. Edgar & Geare, 2005; Petrescu & Simmons, 2008; Conway & Monks, 2009; Elele & Fields, 2010; Costen & Salazar, 2011; Mendelson *et al*., 2011; Mostafa & Gould-Williams, 2015; García-Chas *et al*., 2016). Nevertheless, among the three HR practices, only training had a unique significant effect on job satisfaction. This unique contribution of training to job satisfaction may be due to the fact that among the three HR practices, training is directly related to the job since it equips employees with the necessary skills required to perform the job. The feeling of competence arising from improved ability to perform the job in turn results in positive job satisfaction (Costen & Salazar, 2011). On the other hand, only employee benefits had a unique significant effect on affective and normative commitment. This indicates, as earlier noted by Ovadje & Ankomah (2001), the importance that employees in Nigeria attach to employee benefits as a result of poor wages in Nigeria.

Contrary to the expectation that the high level of unemployment in Nigeria will encourage employees to remain with their organizations due to the favours they receive, thereby resulting in a positive effect of HR practices and continuance commitment, findings from this study indicated a negative effect of HR practices on continuance commitment. This finding is consistent with findings from some previous studies (Elele & Fields, 2010; Mendelson *et al*., 2011) but contrary to findings from others (Sinclair *et al*., 2005; Gong *et al*., 2009; Takeuchi & Takeuchi, 2013). This means that the relationship between HR practices and continuance commitment is mixed and may depend on the national context.

Among the three HR practices however, training and employee benefits each had a unique negative effect on continuance commitment which indicates that the decision of public and private sector employees in Nigeria to remain with their organizations is not due to the favours they receive in the form of training or employee benefits. Moreover, whilst it might be expected that pay could influence the decision of public and private sector employees in Nigeria to remain with their organizations, a careful analysis of the control variables entered in the first model indicates a non-significant effect of pay on continuance commitment (see table 7.5 in chapter 7). This indicates that within the context of public and private sector in Nigeria, social exchange relationships exist between employees and their organizations rather than economic exchange relationships (Blau, 1964; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

On the whole, findings on the direct effect of HR practices and employee attitudes indicate that a significant relationship exists between HR practices and employee attitudes. Nevertheless, after accounting for control variables, the net effect of HR practices on employee attitudes was generally low and may be as a result of other variables – including other HR practices – that affect employee attitudes that were not examined in the present study. Moreover, in all cases, not all the HR practices contributed individually to employee attitudes thereby signifying, as observed by Darwish *et al*. (2016) in their Jordanian study that the optimum configuration of sets of HR practices may depend on the national context, industry and sector. The discussion of the findings on indirect effects and the moderation effect of sector will be the focus of subsequent sections.

#### 8.4.1 The Mediating Role of Procedural Justice and the Moderation Effect of Sector

The indirect effect of HR practices on employee attitudes through procedural justice was examined whilst the moderation effect of sector on this relationship was further examined. As a first step, the relationship between the mediating variable on each of the employee attitudes was examined. Findings indicate that contrary to results from previous studies (Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009; Ko & Hur, 2014; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016) there was no significant relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction. This means that within the context of public and private sector in Nigeria, the idea that employee perceptions of fairness of processes in the organization will result in improved job satisfaction (Ko & Hur, 2014) was not supported. However, consistent with previous studies, there was a positive significant effect of procedural justice on affective commitment (Moorman *et al*., 1993; Meyer & Smith, 2000; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009; Farndale *et al*., 2011*a*; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016) and normative commitment (Meyer & Smith, 2000). This means that the level of emotional attachment of public and private sector employees to their organizations is influenced by their fairness perceptions.

The effect of procedural justice on normative commitment was however higher than the effect on affective commitment which means that in the context of public and private sector in Nigeria, employee perceptions of fairness of processes is more related to their feeling of obligation to remain with their organization than their emotional attachment to the organization. Meanwhile, the effect of procedural justice on continuance commitment was negative and consistent with Meyer & Smith's (2000) Canadian study which further indicates the existence of social exchange relationship between employees and their organization rather than an economic exchange relationship (Blau, 1964; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Results of the mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction was not significant. This finding was inconsistent with results from previous studies (Meyer & Smith, 2000; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009; Farndale *et al*., 2011*a*; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016), thereby suggesting that in the context of public and private sector in Nigeria, HR practices do not result in improved job satisfaction through employee perceptions of fairness. The effects of training and employee benefits on affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment were however mediated by procedural justice. This finding is consistent with findings from previous studies establishing the mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment on one hand (Meyer & Smith, 2000; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009; Farndale *et al*., 2011; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016), and normative commitment on the other (Meyer & Smith, 2000).

Consistent with social exchange (Blau, 1964; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), the mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between training as well as employee benefits and continuance commitment was significant but negative. Meanwhile, the effect of employee participation on the three components of organizational commitment was however not mediated by procedural justice. This means that in both public and private sector in Nigeria, the perception of fairness was important in the relationship between training as well as employee benefits and organizational commitment components. This was however not the case with employee participation, perhaps as a result of differences in fairness perceptions on this relationship in public and private sector.

Further, results of the moderation effect of sector on the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes through procedural justice indicate that the mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and job satisfaction, normative commitment and continuance commitment was not influenced by sector. This means that there was no significant differences between public and private sector employees in terms of the effects of HR practices on each of job satisfaction, normative commitment and continuance commitment through procedural justice. It was however the mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment that was moderated by sector, with the effect higher in the public sector for all the three HR practices. Employee perceptions of procedural justice was higher in the public sector which in turn resulted in a higher mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between all the three HR practices and affective commitment.

This finding is unsurprising since as findings from study 1 indicate, public sector managers were more likely to consult employees on workplace decisions whilst the relative strength of trade unions in the public sector as also evidenced in study 1 means that employees have the opportunity to influence decisions at the higher level in the public sector. Of course, when employees have the opportunity to influence decisions, they are more likely to accept the outcome of the decision thereby increasing their procedural justice perceptions (Farndale *et al*., 2011*a*). This suggests that whilst HR practices contribute to affective commitment through procedural justice, this relationship is stronger in contexts where there are avenues for employee consultation and collective participation. The evidence from the public and private sector in Nigeria suggests that employee perceptions of procedural justice is more likely in institutional contexts where collective participation is encouraged (Paauwe & Boselie, 2007) and where employers adhere to labour laws.

Although the mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between each of the three HR practices (training, employee benefits and employee participation) on affective commitment was significantly moderated by sector, a noteworthy finding is the case of employee participation. Across the whole sample, the mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between employee participation and affective commitment was not significant. However, with the introduction of sector in the model, the relationship became significant and stronger in the public sector. There are two implications of this finding that need to be highlighted: First, the significant mediation effect of procedural justice in the public sector was cancelled out by the non-significant mediation effect of procedural justice on this relationship in the private sector, thereby resulting in an overall non-significant mediation effect. Second, and perhaps most importantly, the higher mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between employee participation and affective in the public sector suggests that employees are more likely to have positive perceptions of direct employee participation and fairness of processes where there are avenues for them to engage in collective participation in the shape of trade unions (Brewster *et al*., 2014).

#### 8.4.2 The mediating Role of HR Attributions and the Moderation Effect of Sector

The indirect effects of HR practices on employee attitudes through HR attributions was examined whilst the moderation effect of sector on this relationship was further examined. This relationship was tested for each of the three forms of HR attributions: commitment-focused HR attribution, control-focused HR attribution and union compliance HR attribution. Findings indicate that the effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on job satisfaction was significant. This indicates that the level of job satisfaction of both public and private sector employees in Nigeria will increase when they perceive that the HR practices implemented in their organizations were due to management’s desire to improve service delivery and employee wellbeing (Nishii *et al*., 2008). However, contrary to findings from previous studies (Nishii *et al*., 2008; Fontinha *et al*., 2012; Van De Voorde & Beijer, 2015), the effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on affective commitment was not significant and so was this relationship on normative and continuance commitment. This suggests that based on the context of the research, whilst commitment-focused HR attribution can result to positive attitudes towards the job, it is not a significant factor in employees’ decision to remain with the organization.

The mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes was examined. Results indicate that whilst the relationship between employee participation on job satisfaction was mediated by commitment-focused HR attribution, the effects of training as well as employee benefits on job satisfaction was not mediated by commitment-focused HR attribution. In fact, results presented in table 7.14 (chapter 7) indicate that commitment-focused HR attribution had 75.4% effect on the relationship between employee participation and job satisfaction. This means that the relationship between employee participation and job satisfaction will improve when employees perceive that the HR practices they encounter were due to the desire of management to improve service delivery and employee wellbeing; however, this was not the case with training and employee benefits.

So what could be responsible for this? A plausible explanation for this would be that on one hand, when employees encounter HR practices such as training or employee benefits, they receive favours from the organization. On the other hand, and in the case of employee participation – direct participation as conceptualized in this study – employees rather give back to the organization by contributing their knowledge and skills to decisions affecting their work. Whilst this form of participation, based on theories of job design (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), can make work more meaningful to employees thereby resulting in job satisfaction (Wright & Kim, 2004), there is evidence that it can also result in work intensification and heightened stress levels (Boxall & Macky, 2014). Therefore, when employees have course to believe that their participation in workplace decisions is borne out of the desire of management to improve service delivery and employee well-being rather than out of a motivation to reduce cost and exploit employees, this may result in positive job satisfaction (Nishii *et al*., 2008).

Meanwhile, the effect of HR practices on affective, normative and continuance commitment was not mediated by commitment-focused HR attribution. This suggests that the perception of commitment-focused HR attribution was not important to the extent of influencing the relationship between HR practices and organizational commitment within the context of the public and private sector in Nigeria. Further, results of the moderation effect of sector on the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes through commitment-focused HR attribution was not significant. This means that the mediation effect of commitment-focused HR attributions on the relationship between HR practices and each of job satisfaction, affective, normative and continuance commitment was not contingent on sector.

Findings on the effect of control-focused HR attribution on job satisfaction, affective commitment and continuance commitment were not significant. This means that contrary to results from previous studies (Nishii *et al*., 2008), within the context of Nigeria, employee perceptions that HR practices were implemented as a means of cost reduction and employee exploitation is not significantly related to job satisfaction and affective commitment; and so is it not significantly related to continuance commitment. However, counter-intuitively, the effect of control-focused HR attribution on normative commitment was positive and significant. This means that in the context of Nigeria, employee perceptions that HR practices were implemented as a means of cost reduction and employee exploitation was positively associated with their felt obligations to remain with their organizations. This may be due to the fact that in some organizations in Nigeria, some HR practices such as training and employee benefits may be tied to the tenure of employees with the organization.

In Nigeria, there may be instances where employees are required to commit their services to their organizations for a specified number of years as a result of the organization’s investment in their training. Similarly, employees may be under obligation to remain with their organizations in order for the organization to recoup their investment in providing certain employee benefits such as soft loans that are deductible from the wages of employees. In essence, whilst employees may recognise that such practices are aimed at cost reduction and are exploitative in nature, they nevertheless feel compelled or obligated to remain with their organization, thereby leading to a positive association between control-focused HR attribution and normative commitment. This is perhaps the result of the exploitation of labour in many African workplaces due to the continued dependence of employees on their employers earlier highlighted (Bischoff & Wood, 2012). Nevertheless, the interaction effect of tenure and HR practices on normative commitment could be examined in future research to establish whether the relationship between HR practices and normative commitment is influenced by tenure.

On the mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and employees, findings indicate that for each of the HR practices and employee attitudes, the mediation effect was not significant. This indicates that the effect of HR practices on employee attitudes is not affected through the influence of control-focused HR attribution. Similarly, this relationship was non-significant when sector was added to the model as a moderator. Nevertheless, the null hypotheses that the mediation effect of control-focused HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and each of the employee attitudes will be the same in both public and private sector was supported. Although not statistically significant, this indicates that both public and private sector employees in Nigeria had perceptions of some elements of cost reduction and employee exploitation embedded in the HR practices they experienced. This finding reflects the position taken by critical HRM researchers who argue that in reality, the distinction between commitment and control models of HRM is still a matter of rhetorics (Legge, 2005; Wilkinson *et al*., 2014). This indicates that on the surface, whilst organizations may appear to implement HR practices that demonstrate their concern for the well-being of employees, the overriding goal of such practices may be to enhance the efficiency of the organization.

The relationship between union compliance HR attribution and each of the employee attitudes was not significant. Similarly, contrary to the hypothesized relationships in chapter 6, union compliance HR attribution did not mediate the relationship between HR practices and each of the employee attitudes. Whilst it might be expected that this relationship was not significant due to the weak level or in some cases absence of trade unionism in the private sector (as evidenced in findings from study 1), which may cancel out the significant effect of union compliance HR attribution in the public sector, the introduction of sector in moderated mediation model still did not produce significant results. This means that the mediation effect of union compliance HR attribution on the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes is not contingent on sector. Whilst it is difficult to explain this finding, it might be that though trade unions are present in the public sector and employees recognize that some HRM decisions may be taken to comply with union agreements, public sector employees were not satisfied with the level of compliance with union agreements which may weaken their level of union compliance HR attribution and the concomitant effect on employee attitudes. Nevertheless, this is an issue that could be unravelled through in-depth qualitative research, given that the construct of HR attributions is complex and may be subject to the cultural interpretations of actors.

### 8.5 The Effect of Sector on Employee Attitudes

Although it was not one of the objectives of this research to examine the effect of sector on employee attitudes, findings from the research indicate the effect of sector on employee attitudes which cannot be ignored. Researchers have compared the levels of job satisfaction among public and private sector employees with contradictory findings. Whilst some studies have found higher levels of job satisfaction among employees or managers in the private sector compared to their counterparts in the public sector (Rainey, 1979; Solomon, 1986; Aryee, 1992), others have reported that public sector employees or managers were more satisfied with their jobs (Mirvis & Hackett, 1983; Steel & Warner, 1990; DeSantis & Durst, 1996; Demoussis & Giannakopoulos, 2007).

There are also studies that have reported differences in job satisfaction among public and private sector employees in different facets (Rainey, 1983; Blunt & Spring, 1991; Markovits *et al*., 2007; Wang *et al*., 2012; Top *et al*., 2015). Yet, other studies have found no difference in job satisfaction levels between public and private sector employees (Schneider & Vaught, 1993; Cho & Lee, 2001). Findings from the present study indicate that public sector employees in Nigeria were more satisfied with their jobs than their private sector counterparts. This finding therefore adds to the body of research on sectoral differences in job satisfaction reported above.

Similarly, studies conducted on the differences in organizational commitment levels between public and private sector employees have revealed mixed findings. Whilst the majority of studies have reported higher levels of organizational commitment among private sector employees (Buchanan, 1974; Goulet & Frank, 2002; Lyons *et al*., 2006), other studies have found that it was only some forms of commitment that were different among public and private sector employees (Cho & Lee, 2001). On the other hand, whilst Markovits *et al*. (2007) found higher organizational commitment levels among Greek public sector employees compared to their private sector counterparts, Top *et al*. (2015) found no difference in organizational commitment of public and private sector employees in Turkey.

In the current study, findings indicate that whilst the level of affective commitment was higher in public sector, normative commitment and continuance commitment levels were higher among private sector employees than their public sector counterparts. Thus, in the context of Nigeria, the difference in the level of organizational commitment between public and private sector employees depends on the nature of organizational commitment. This underscores the need for researchers to treat organizational commitment as a multi-dimensional construct (Gellatly *et al*., 2009; Meyer *et al*., 2012*b*).

### 8.6 Summary

The findings obtained from the present research were discussed in this chapter in line with the research questions addressed in the research. The conclusions drawn from these findings will form the basis of the next chapter.

# CHAPTER NINE

## CONCLUSIONS

### 9.1 Introduction

Following the discussion of research findings in the previous chapter, the aim of this chapter is to state the conclusions drawn from the research findings. The chapter begins with conclusions after which the research contributions are presented. Next is the presentation of practical implications of the research findings which is followed by a discussion of the limitations of this research and suggestions for future research. The chapter and indeed the thesis ends with a presentation of my final reflections.

### 9.2 Conclusions

The aim of this research was to examine the nature of HRM in public and private sector in Nigeria as well as the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes from an institutional perspective. The specific research questions addressed in the research were: how do institutions influence HRM in the public and private sector in Nigeria? What are the specific techniques of HRM used in the public and private sector in Nigeria? What are the effects of HR practices on employee attitudes in the public and private sector in Nigeria?

Based on the findings from the research, it is concluded that mimetic institutional mechanisms such as the influence of management consultants and imitation of practices from other organizations influenced HRM in public and private sector in the same direction. Similarly, normative institutional mechanisms in the shape of professional socialization also influenced HRM in both sectors in the same direction. However, the influence of these institutional forces was not enough to create homogeneity in the influence of institutions on HRM in public and private sector in Nigeria. This was due to the unequal influence of the more potent coercive institutional forces such as labour laws, trade unions, regulatory bodies, host community and influence of elites across industries and sectors in Nigeria. In particular, the influence of these coercive mechanisms was stronger in public sector than in private sector as well as in large than in small organizations.

In terms of industry, the influence of coercive institutional mechanisms was stronger in industries with professionalized employee groups such as the health industry. The diversity in the influence of institutions was due largely to a number of contextual factors which include the poor enforcement of labour legislation, the presence of corruption and the tendency of private sector organizations in particular to adopt neo-liberal approaches of HRM characterised by negative attitudes towards trade unionism. Equally influential on HRM in the public and private sector in Nigeria was the economic condition of the country arising from poor infrastructure and high level of poverty which force organizations to intervene by enacting policies to enable employees cope with economic hardships. Thus, whilst the sociological new institutionalism is in part, relevant to the understanding of HRM in Nigeria, the nature of the influence of institutions on HRM in Nigeria is more in line with the literature on segmented business system which accentuates differences in the influence of institutions on the basis of industries, sectors and size of the organization. This indicates the relevance of comparative institutional theories to the understanding of institutions in Nigeria since comparative institutional theories take cognisance of the role of national contextual differences on institutional configurations within nations (Wood *et al.*, 2012).

Arising from the unequal influence of coercive institutional mechanisms across organizations in Nigeria, there was diversity in the practices of HRM adopted across organizations. On the surface, whilst it may appear that generic practices such as recruitment and selection, training, employee benefits and employee participation were present across organizations in Nigeria, beneath these practices were a diversity of techniques ranging from informal to formal techniques in each domain of HRM. For most of the part, it was informal techniques that were dominant across organizations.

Although formal recruitment and selection techniques such as advertisement and selection interviews respectively were significantly in use, the use of these formal techniques was mostly for recruiting and selecting management and technical staff as opposed to clerical and manual staff. Training was largely informal-workplace based, with some elements of formal workplace based training also in use; although it was the uncertified variety of formal training that was mostly in use whilst minority of organizations also made use of external training in the shape of sponsoring courses with outside training bodies for different employee categories. Employee benefits were also largely informal with these informal techniques ranging from granting soft loans and salary advance to employees to providing support in time of family emergency whilst statutorily required benefits such paid vacation, paid sick leave, severance package among others were largely not provided. Moreover, the use of formal employee participation techniques ranging from information sharing to employee consultation techniques was low across organizations but was supplemented with informal techniques; mostly staff meetings.

Nevertheless, whilst this may appear to paint a gloomy picture of HRM practices across organizations in Nigeria generally, the use of informal versus formal techniques of HRM varied according to industry, sector and size of the organization. In particular, public sector organizations were more likely to lead the way in providing quality and formal techniques across all the domains of HRM than their private sector counterparts; this was also more likely in large organizations than small organizations; and to some extent, in industries such as health that are characterised by professionalised employee groups. Thus, compared to the public sector, private sector organizations were more likely to adopt HRM practices characterised by informality, cost-cutting, low employee voice and neglect of labour legislation – features that are typical of a segmented business system. This research therefore concludes that the difference in HRM between public and private sector and indeed across organizations in Nigeria is not in the generic labels attached to HR practices, rather, the difference lies in the specific techniques organizations use in delivering these practices.

Also, findings from the research indicate that HR practices (training, employee benefits and employee participation) have significant association with employee attitudes in public and private sector in Nigeria. Whereas this relationship was positive for job satisfaction, affective and normative commitment, it was negative for continuance commitment; thereby indicating the existence of social exchange relationship between public and private sector employees and their organizations. The findings also indicate that among the three HR practices examined in this research, only training and employee benefits had indirect effect on organizational commitment components (affective, normative and continuance) through procedural justice.

There was however no indirect effect of HR practices on job satisfaction via procedural justice. Also, procedural justice had significant effects on organizational commitment components but not with job satisfaction. This means that for public and private sector employees in Nigeria, the perception of fairness is associated with their decision to remain with their organization but not with their satisfaction with their jobs. Further, the indirect effect of all the three HR practices on affective commitment via procedural justice was moderated by sector, with the effect higher in the public sector. This suggests that public sector employees have more favourable perception of fairness of the practices they encounter than private sector employees. This is perhaps due to the likelihood of public sector employees to influence workplace decisions via employee consultation and collective participation schemes more than their private sector counterparts.

In terms of the effects of HR attributions (commitment-focused, control-focused and union compliance) on each of the employee attitudes, only commitment-focused HR attribution had a significant effect on job satisfaction whilst control-focused HR attribution had a significant positive effect on normative commitment. The positive effect of control-focused HR attribution on normative commitment indicate that although public and private sector employees may perceive that HR practices were aimed at cost reduction and employee exploitation, this would rather increase their perceived obligation to remain with their organization. This may underscore the indebtedness of employees to their organizations as a result of the continued dependence of employees on their organizations. In addition, among the forms of HR attributions, the three HR practices and the types of employee attitudes, only employee participation had an indirect effect on job satisfaction through commitment-focused HR attribution. This means that employee participation will influence the job satisfaction level of public and private sector employees in Nigeria to the extent that they perceive the desire of management to improve service delivery and employee well-being.

There was no mediation effect of the other HR attributions on the relationship between the other HR practices and each of the employee attitudes whilst there was no moderation effect of sector on the indirect effects of HR practices on employee attitudes via any of the three forms of HR attribution. Nevertheless, the fact that there was no sectoral differences in the indirect effects of HR practices on employee attitudes via control-focused HR attribution underscores the fact that employees in both sectors were likely to encounter some elements of HR practices aimed at labour cost reduction due to the influence neo-liberal policies on HRM in Nigeria.

### 9.3 Research Contributions

This research explored the influence of institutions on the HRM in public and private sector in Nigeria. The study also examined the specific techniques of HRM used in the public and private sector in Nigeria whilst the effect of HR practices on employee attitudes was also examined. In addition to examining the direct effect of HR practices on employee attitudes, the mediation effect of procedural justice and HR attributions were examined as well as the moderation effect of sector on these relationships. There are important research contributions drawn from the research that need highlighting.

First, the use of an institutional framework in examining HRM in Nigeria is in itself a useful contribution to the literature of African HRM since most studies on HRM in Africa are conducted using cultural frameworks. Indeed, many researchers on African HRM have called for the use of institutional frameworks in order to provide a better understanding of HRM in diverse cultural contexts of African countries (Adeleye, 2011; Wood *et al*., 2011; Cooke *et al*., 2015; Kamoche *et al*., 2015). This research is therefore a response to such calls, since the research has established a link between the institutional environment and the nature of HRM techniques adopted by organizations.

Second, the research has contributed to the literature on comparative capitalism generally which has focused largely on developed countries to the neglect of developing countries (Wood *et al*., 2011). Specifically, the research adds to the literature on institutional diversity (Lane & Wood, 2009) by showing that within a particular national context, organizational practices may be influenced differently by institutions, thereby resulting to a diversity in organizational practices based on industry, sector or size of the organization.

Relatedly, and perhaps most importantly, this research has provided support for the utility of the segmented business system theory (Wood & Frynas, 2006) as an institutional framework for understanding the nature of HRM in Nigeria. In line with the literature on segmented business system theory (Wood *et al*., 2011; Wood & Horwitz, 2015), this research found unequal influence of institutions on HRM across organizations in Nigeria thereby resulting in a diversity of HRM practices based on industry, sector and size of the organization. Moreover, whilst support has been provided for the segmented business system theory based on previous research in Mozambique (Wood *et al*., 2011), the present study is unique not only because it has provided support for the theory in another country in Africa (Nigeria), it is the first to do so by comparing the nature of HRM in public and private sector.

Another contribution of this research relates to the identification of diverse HRM techniques across organizations in Nigeria. The present research goes beyond identifying the presence or otherwise of the generic domains of HR practices such as recruitment and selection, training, employee benefits and employee participation as done by previous researchers on HRM in Nigeria (Anakwe, 2002; Okpara & Wynn, 2008) to identifying the *specific* techniques used in the various domains of HRM based on industry, sector and size of organization. By so doing, the research adds to the literature on HRM in Nigeria since the findings indicate that it is not just the presence of generic HR practices that count, it is the techniques used in implementing these HR practices that makes a difference.

Beyond Nigeria, the finding on the diversity in HRM techniques across organizations in Nigeria also adds to the convergence-divergence debate by establishing that whilst it may appear on the surface that organizations in Nigeria adopt similar HR practices, a deeper analysis of these practices indicates that the techniques used in implementing these practices may differ. This corresponds with the distinction made by Mayrhofer and colleagues between directional similarity and final convergence of HRM in their study of HRM in European countries (Mayrhofer *et al*., 2011). According to Mayrhofer *et al*. (2011), directional similarity in HRM occurs when organizations tend to use the same generic practices such as recruitment and selection, training, employee benefits or employee participation, as the case may be. On the other hand, final convergence in HRM occurs when the specific techniques adopted in the various domains of HRM are similar across organizations. Thus, the presence of generic practices such recruitment and selection or training across organizations in Nigeria may indicate directional similarity in HRM whilst the diversity in the specific techniques in each of these domains of HRM across organizations indicates that there is no final convergence in HRM across organizations in Nigeria (cf. Mayrhofer *et al*., 2011).

Moreover, this study adds to the literature on HR practices-employee attitudes relationship by establishing a link between HR practices and employee attitudes. Not only is this significant from an African context since most previous studies on this relationship have been conducted in North America (e.g. Appelbaum *et al*., 2000; Sinclair *et al*., 2005; Mohr & Zoghi, 2008; Artz, 2010; Yap *et al*., 2010; Fabi *et al*., 2015), Europe (e.g. Gould-Williams, 2004; Conway & Monks, 2009; Herrbach *et al*., 2009; Boselie, 2010; Chambel & Castanheira, 2012; Ohana *et al*., 2012; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016) and Asia (e.g. Qiao *et al*., 2009; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009; Guchait & Cho, 2010; Singh & Mohanty, 2011; Choi & Lee, 2013; Choi & Yoon, 2015, Zhu et al., 2015; Ismail, 2016), the present study utilized data from public and private sector.

Most studies examining this relationship have been conducted in private sector organizations (e.g. Appelbaum *et al*., 2000; Sinclair *et al*., 2005; Qiao *et al*., 2009; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009; Elorza *et al*., 2011; Choi & Lee, 2013; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Shamsudin & Ramalu, 2014; García-Chas *et al*., 2016; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016) whilst few have been conducted in public sector organizations (e.g. Piening *et al*., 2013; Ko & Hur, 2014; Mostafa & Gould-Williams, 2015; Vermeeren, 2015). The present study is unique as it compares this relationship in public and private sector which makes it, to the best of my knowledge, the first study to compare this relationship in public and private sector from an African context. This means that the present study adds both national and sectoral context to the literature on HR practices-employee attitudes relationship. The findings from the study indicate the relevance of HR practices in influencing employee attitudes in both public and private sector in Nigeria.

Further, the test of mediation effect of procedural justice and HR attributions on the relationship between HR practices and employee attitudes as well as the test of moderation effect of sector on these relationships is a major contribution to the literature on HR practices-employee attitudes relationship. The present study indicates that procedural justice mediates the relationship between training as well as employee benefits and affective, normative and continuance commitment but not with job satisfaction. Moreover, procedural justice did not mediate the relationship employee participation and employee attitudes. This means that in the context of public and private sector in Nigeria, the mediating role of procedural justice on HR practices-employee attitudes relationship depends not only on the type of HR practice but also on the type of employee attitude. More so, the mediation effect of procedural justice on HR practices-affective commitment relationship was further moderated by sector. This is a major contribution in the sense that it shows that the mediation effect of procedural justice is contingent on sector. But beyond sector, the finding indicates that the mediation effect of procedural justice on HR practices-affective commitment relationship will be stronger in organizational contexts where employees are provided avenues for employee consultation and collective participation.

Furthermore, the present study is the first to extend the construct of HR attributions to an African context. The effects of commitment-focused, control-focused and union compliance HR attributions on employee attitudes were examined with the mediation effect of HR attributions on HR practices-employee attitudes relationship also examined. Whilst support was provided for the positive effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on job satisfaction, there was no significant effect of commitment-focused HR attribution on organizational commitment components. This means that in the context of Nigeria, commitment-focused HR attribution is related to job satisfaction but not to organizational commitment. Also commitment-focused HR attribution mediated the relationship between employee participation and job satisfaction but not with the other practices or employee attitudes. This extends the literature on HR attributions by suggesting that in the context of Nigeria, where HR practices require employees to make contributions to the organization like the case of employee participation, the relationship between such a practice and job satisfaction could be mediated by employee perceptions of commitment-focused HR attribution. However, this may not be the case when HR practices require employees to receive favours from the organization like the case of training or employee benefits.

Moreover, previous research has reported a negative relationship between control-focused HR attribution and employee attitudes (Nishii *et al*., 2008). However, the finding from the present study that control-focused HR attribution has a positive effect on normative commitment adds to the literature on HR attributions by indicating that this relationship may, after all, be context-dependent. Additionally, this research is the first to examine the effect of HR attributions on all the three components of organizational commitment.

Finally, whilst previous studies have examined the effect of HR practices on employee attitudes, there have been calls for researchers to consider the significance of the institutional context when examining such relationships (Kim & Wright, 2011). The present study examined this relationship from an institutional perspective by firstly identifying the differences between the institutional environment of public and private sector organizations in Nigeria. This was followed by examining how the institutional environment influences HR practices in the public and private sector and how this may affect the attitudinal responses of employees. Apart from the fact that findings from the study were explained based on the institutional environment of public and private organizations in Nigeria, the finding that the mediation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment is further moderated by sector is an indication that the nature of the relationship between HR practices and affective commitment may be influenced by the institutional environment in which organizations operate.

### 9.4 Practical Implications

The findings from this research have vital implications for managers, trade unions and policy makers in Nigeria. The research has established the significance of HR practices in engendering positive employee attitudes in public and private sector organizations in Nigeria. Therefore, managers of public and private sector organizations should consider employees as important stakeholders and therefore invest in quality HR practices that will improve their skills and abilities as well as motivate employees. By so doing, it will engender positive attitudes of employees which are not only beneficial to employees but also to the organization. Although this may be difficult especially in the context of the private sector organizations that compete mostly on the basis of cost and who are more concerned about short term gains, those organizations that pursue the route recommended here will reap long term benefits that are more sustainable.

Also, managers of organizations in Nigeria, especially those in the private sector should provide avenues for employees to make contributions to workplace decisions through employee consultation schemes and collective participation schemes such as trade unionism. This will enable employees to have a voice in decisions affecting their work which will enhance their perception of fairness of decisions. When employees contribute to workplace decisions they are bound to accept the outcomes of such decisions. The resultant effect would be increased employee morale, positive attitudes and increased productivity; thus, creating a win-win situation for both employees and organizations.

Findings from the research suggest that compared to the private sector, public sector organizations have more decent employment practices that provide opportunities for collective participation through trade unionism. However, with pressures from the World Bank and IMF on the public sector to move fully towards neo-liberal approaches, it might be only a matter of time before such approaches are embraced in future, given Nigeria’s reliance on these institutions for financial and technical assistance. It therefore behoves on trade unions in Nigeria to be resilient in mobilising their members to confront such neo-liberal policies. The partnership between trade unions in Nigeria and civil society organizations in challenging some of the harsh economic policies is a step in the right direction. Nevertheless, trade unions in Nigeria must move quickly to resolve their internal crises in order for them to effectively confront a ‘common enemy’. A situation where there are factional leaderships in NLC as it is presently constituted will surely limit the ability of trade unions to mobilise and demand for workers’ rights.

Policy makers in Nigeria must ensure that institutions responsible for enforcement of labour legislation are well equipped and are allowed to function without political interference. In this way, there will be more institutional coverage across organizations in Nigeria which will result to improved conditions of employment and will in turn result to positive benefits to the society at large. This will require a war against corruption as the menace of corruption has weakened the efficacy of institutions in the country. The fight against corruption instituted by the current administration of President Buhari is commendable, although more needs to be done for the full benefits of anti-corruption to be reaped. This will require directing the searchlight to the public service that has been responsible for facilitating most of the corrupt deals for politicians.

Finally, policy makers in Nigeria must develop the political will to resist neo-liberal policies imposed on the country by Bretton Woods institutions. As at the time of this writing, there were discussions about the possible privatization of some of the public sector banks that participated in this study. Experience has shown that such policies have never impacted positively on the country but instead have led to untold hardship on the citizenry as a result of massive job cuts. Moreover, the advice from neo-liberal ideologists that emerging economies, including Nigeria, should weaken labour legislation ostensibly to attract FDI inflows is flawed and should be ignored. In fact, research evidence from Africa (Wood *et al*., 2014) and South Eastern Europe (Wood *et al*., 2016) suggest that countries with weakened labour legislation were less likely to attract FDI than countries whose labour legislation guarantee strong rights of workers. Thus, as the present administration in Nigeria attempts to diversify the economy and attract FDI, some aspects of labour legislation that protect workers’ rights should rather be strengthened in order to make the country an attractive FDI destination.

### 9.5 Research Limitations and Directions for Future Research

As with any research, the current research is not without some limitations, although pointing those out does not weaken the conclusions drawn from the research. Instead, it identifies research gaps that could be filled in future research. One of the limitations of this research is in the number of HR practices that were included in the research. Of course, there are numerous HR practices that could have been studied. The research however included only four HR practices in study 1 whilst three of these practices were carried onto study 2. Whilst it is possible that other practices could have been considered and hence this constitutes a limitation to the research, it was the view of the researcher and coupled with previous research evidence on HRM in Nigeria that the practices included in the research were some of the most important practices in the context of public and private sector in Nigeria. Nevertheless, future studies can expand on the present study by researching more HR practices. Moreover, by researching more HR practices, researchers can identify the cluster of practices that influence positive work outcomes in each sector.

As with cross-sectional designs, the issue of cause and effect cannot be established in the present research. Although the present research examined the effect of HR practices on employee attitudes, it might be that employees with positive attitudes have favourable ratings of HR practices in their organizations. Therefore, future researchers may consider conducting a longitudinal study to establish whether HR practices cause positive attitudes or vice versa.

More so, the fact that it was practically impossible to accurately sample all organizations in the 11 cities that were included in study 1 of this research constitutes a limitation to the research. Nevertheless, efforts were made to, as much as possible, access many organizations across diverse industries that met the criteria to participate in the research in order to avoid bias in sampling. As such, the conclusions drawn from the research are not necessarily affected by the sampling method. Further, there was a low response rate in some industries that participated in study 1 which constitutes a limitation to the research. Indeed, the gaining access to a large pool of organizations to participate in a research such as the present one constitutes a major challenge researchers face whilst researching developing or emerging countries.

Although the researcher examined the effect of procedural justice and HR attributions as mediating variables in order to understand the mechanism through which HR practices affect employee attitudes, there are other potential mediating variables such as organizational climate, perceived organizational support, person-organization fit, among others that can tested in future research on HR practices and employee attitudes in public and private sector in Nigeria. In addition, the present study focused on employee attitudes as outcome variables. Meanwhile, there are other outcome variables that such as job performance, organizational citizenship behaviours, work stress, organizational performance among others could be examined in future research within the context of public and private sector in Nigeria.

Moreover, whilst the present research provided support for the utility of the segmented business theory as an institutional framework for understanding the nature of HRM in Nigeria, the findings from the current study cannot be generalized across other African contexts. Therefore, researchers interested in African HRM should adopt a similar framework for studying HRM in other African contexts in order to compare the findings to be generated with those of the present study.

Whereas the present research examined statistically the effects of HR attributions on employee attitudes, the construct of HR attributions is complex and may be subject to cultural interpretations. Thus, future research should consider exploring the construct of HR attributions through in-depth qualitative research. This will enable researchers to identify whether there is the existence some context-dependent HR attributions.

Finally, as HRM is important to public and private sector organizations, so is it important to non-profit organizations. Therefore, future research should consider comparing the nature of HRM in these three sectors: public, private and non-profit sectors. This will enable researchers understand the types of practices employees encounter in these sectors. Moreover, whilst the present research focused on indigenous public and private sector organizations in Nigeria and hence a limitation to the research, future research should consider comparing HRM practices between indigenous organizations and subsidiaries of multinational companies in Nigeria.

### 9.6 Final Reflections

Having reflected on the PhD experience, I have come to the conclusion that although it was obviously challenging, it was a very rewarding experience. The skills I acquired through the process have positively impacted on me both as a researcher and as an individual. Whilst the PhD process honed my skills in quantitative research especially in the area of quantitative data analysis, the highlight of the process was my exposure to qualitative research. Prior to commencing the PhD, I had worked in a faculty where quantitative research was the norm. In fact, I had the orientation that all management research was quantitative! As a result, I had no prior knowledge about qualitative research. However, I learned from the PhD process that qualitative research is a very important aspect of management research and that there are certain complex research problems that are better understood via qualitative research. In addition, I understood that the divide between qualitative and quantitative research was also a matter of the research philosophy of the researcher.

It was therefore exciting to combine quantitative and qualitative methods in my PhD research. Through in-depth qualitative interviews, I was able to interact with HR managers who explained to me why certain HRM decisions were taken in their organizations – responses that were not possible to get via quantitative methods. Again, it was during this research process that I realised there were software for analysing qualitative data. My ability to use Nvivo for qualitative data analysis is one of the highlights of my exposure to qualitative research. This means that I have developed skills in both quantitative and qualitative data analysis which are very useful for my future research endeavours.

I also learned from the PhD experience how to effectively manage a research process. I was able to divide my research project into manageable tasks for which time was allocated whilst I was able to evaluate my progress. What is more, I learned the ethics of research, particularly in the aspect of access negotiation. Through the PhD experience, I realised that it was unethical to approach prospective respondents without first of all seeking access from the organization. Not only will this experience enable me to effectively manage research projects in future, I shall be conducting research that will be of high ethical standards. Moreover, through the field work experience, I now have contacts of key industry players in Nigeria that would be useful for conducting future research in the Nigerian context.

Finally, my knowledge about HRM has tremendously improved due to conducting my PhD research in this area. I have read many writings on HRM which has made me appreciate the multi-disciplinary nature of the subject and the fact that HRM differs from context to context. In general, I hope to share the knowledge gained from this process with researchers in my home country in order to advance research in that part of the world.

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# APPENDICES

## Appendix 1: Ethics Approval Letter



Downloaded: 02/04/2015

Approved: 01/04/2015

Darius Ikyanyon

Registration number: 130122298

Management School

PHD

Dear Darius

**PROJECT TITLE:** INSTITUTIONAL DYNAMICS AND THE EFFECT OF HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICESON JOB ATTITUDES IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTOR

**APPLICATION:** Reference Number 001916

On behalf of the University ethics reviewers who reviewed your project, I am pleased to inform you that on 01/04/2015 the above-named project was **approved** on ethics grounds, on the basis that you will adhere to the following documentation that you submitted for ethics review:

University research ethics application form 001916 (dated 30/03/2015).



Participant information sheet 005477 (19/02/2015)



Participant information sheet 005475 (19/02/2015)



Participant information sheet 005476 (19/02/2015)



Participant consent form 006905 (30/03/2015)



Participant consent form 006904 (30/03/2015)



Participant consent form 005182 (09/02/2015)



If during the course of the project you need to  [deviate significantly from the above-approved documentatio](https://www.shef.ac.uk/ris/other/gov-ethics/ethicspolicy/approval-procedure/review-procedure/changes-made-after-approval)n please inform me since written approval will be required.



Yours sincerely

Malcolm Patterson

Ethics Administrator

Management School

## Appendix 2: Information Sheet for HR Managers Completing Questionnaires only

**Title**

**INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT AND THE EFFECTS OF HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES ON EMPLOYEE ATTITUDES IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTOR**

**Information Sheet**

You are being invited to participate in this research study. Before you decide whether or not to participate, it is important for you to understand why this research is being conducted and what your participation will involve. This document provides useful information that will assist you to make an informed decision about participating in this study. Please take time to carefully read through the information provided and where appropriate discuss with your superiors or others if you wish. I am happy to be contacted if you find any part of the information unclear and would like more clarity before making a decision to take part in this study. Alternatively, you can contact the supervisors of this research if you wish to seek additional information about the research. Please take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part in this research.

Thank you for taking time to read this information.

**Purpose of the study**

This study seeks to explore the influence of institutions on HRM as well as the specific techniques of HRM used in organizations across industries and sectors in Nigeria and to examine the effects of human resource practices on job attitudes in public and private sector.

**Participant Selection**

This study is divided into 2 parts; part 1 involves human resource managers who shall provide information on the institutional factors that influence HRM as well as the specific techniques of HRM used in their organizations while part 2 involves non-managerial employees who shall provide information about their perceptions of human resource practices as well as their personal rating of job attitudes.

You are being invited to participate in part 1 of this study because you have been identified as someone in a position to give useful insight on this topic. You meet the requirements for inclusion as a participant because of your experience as someone responsible for administering human resource practices in your organization.

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part in this research. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to complete a questionnaire. It shall be stated on the questionnaire that by completing and returning the questionnaire, you are consenting for your data to be used for the research. Please note that you can still withdraw at any time without it affecting any benefits that you are entitled to in any way. You do not have to give a reason.

**Scope of participation**

By participating in this research, you are expected to provide information on the various institutional influences on the implementation of HR practices in your organization as well as the specific techniques of HRM used in your organization by completing a survey questionnaire. In some instances, you shall be required to simply tick the boxes provided in the questionnaire which reflect your views. In other cases however, you shall be required to write your responses in the spaces provided. It shall take approximately 20 minutes for you to complete the questionnaire. You are expected to seal the completed questionnaire in an envelope which shall be provided before returning same.

**Benefits**

Whilst there are no immediate and direct gains for your participation in this study, we do hope that in the long term, the findings from this study and the recommendations thereof shall help in improving the working conditions as well as the performance of your organization.

**Risks for participation**

There are no risks whatsoever for your participation in this research. Please be assured that all the information we collect about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. You will not be able to be identified in any reports or publications.

**Reporting complaints**

If for any reason you are unhappy with the research process as it involves your participation and wish to make a complaint, please contact the researcher or the supervisors. The contact details of the researcher and supervisors are provided at the end of this information sheet.

If you are happy to continue and participate in this research, please keep this information and sign the attached consent form any time before completing the questionnaire.

Thank you for your time and for taking part in this research.

**Researcher**

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## Appendix 3: Information Sheet for HR Managers Completing Questionnaires and Participating in Interviews

**Title**

**INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT AND THE EFFECTS OF HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES ON EMPLOYEE ATTITUDES IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTOR**

**Information Sheet**

You are being invited to participate in this research study. Before you decide whether or not to participate, it is important for you to understand why this research is being conducted and what your participation will involve. This document provides useful information that will assist you to make an informed decision about participating in this study. Please take time to carefully read through the information provided and where appropriate discuss with your superiors or others if you wish. I am happy to be contacted if you find any part of the information unclear and would like more clarity before making a decision to take part in this study. Alternatively, you can contact the supervisors of this research if you wish to seek additional information about the research. Please take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part in this research.

Thank you for taking time to read this information.

**Purpose of the study**

This study seeks to explore the influence of institutions on HRM as well as the specific techniques of HRM used in organizations across industries and sectors in Nigeria and to examine the effects of human resource practices on job attitudes in public and private sector.

**Participant Selection**

This study is divided into 2 parts; part 1 involves human resource managers who shall provide information on the institutional factors that influence HRM as well as the specific techniques of HRM used in their organizations while part 2 involves non-managerial employees who shall provide information about their perceptions of human resource practices as well as their personal rating of job attitudes.

You are being invited to participate in part 1 of this study because you have been identified as someone in a position to give useful insight on this topic. You meet the requirements for inclusion as a participant because of your experience as someone responsible for administering human resource practices in your organization.

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part in this research. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to complete a questionnaire. It shall be stated on the questionnaire that by completing and returning the questionnaire, you are consenting for your data to be used for the research. Before participating in the interview however, you shall be asked to sign a consent form before the start of the interview. Please note that you can still withdraw at any time without it affecting any benefits that you are entitled to in any way. You do not have to give a reason.

**Scope of participation**

By participating in this research, you are expected to provide information on the various institutional influences on the implementation of HR practices in your organization as well as the specific techniques of HRM used in your organization by completing a survey questionnaire. In some instances, you shall be required to simply tick the boxes provided in the questionnaire which reflect your views. In other cases however, you shall be required to write your responses in the spaces provided. It shall take approximately 20 minutes for you to complete the questionnaire. You are expected to seal the completed questionnaire in an envelope which shall be provided before returning same.

In addition, you are expected to participate in an in-depth interview which shall last for between 45 minutes to 1 hour. The aim of the interview is to seek a deeper understanding of some of the issues addressed in the questionnaire. The interview shall be structured and shall center on issues such as how institutional factors influence HRM in your organization; challenges faced in trying to respond to institutional pressures among other issues. These interviews shall be tape-recorded if you so permit. If you however do not want any part of the interview recorded, you are free to say so; in which case, we shall take notes as appropriate. If you allow us to record the interviews, please be assured that the recordings shall be destroyed once the information you provide is transcribed.

**Benefits**

Whilst there are no immediate and direct gains for your participation in this study, we do hope that in the long term, the findings from this study and the recommendations thereof shall help in improving the working conditions as well as the performance of your organization.

**Risks for participation**

There are no risks whatsoever for your participation in this research. Please be assured that all the information we collect about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. You will not be able to be identified in any reports or publications.

**Reporting complaints**

If for any reason you are unhappy with the research process as it involves your participation and wish to make a complaint, please contact the researcher or the supervisors. The contact details of the researcher and supervisors are provided at the end of this information sheet.

If you are happy to continue and participate in this research, please keep this information and sign the attached consent form any time before completing the questionnaire.

Thank you for your time and for taking part in this research.

**Researcher**

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## Appendix 4: Consent form for managers participating in interviews

****

**Title of Research Project:** Institutional Context and the Effects of Human Resource Practices on Employee Attitudes in Public and Private Sector

**Name of Researcher:** Darius N. Ikyanyon

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet explaining the above research project and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the project.

2. I understand that that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without there being any negative consequences. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline.

3. I understand that my responses will be kept strictly confidential. I give permission for members of the research team to have access to my anonymised responses. I understand that my name will not be linked with the research materials, and I will not be identified or identifiable in the report or reports that will result from the research.

4. I understand that the interview shall be recorded. However I have the right to stop any part of the interview from being recorded at any point in time in the course of the interview.

5. I understand that the recorded interviews shall be heard by the researcher only.

6. I agree for the data collected from me to be used in future research.

7. I agree to take part in the above research project.

Signature of Participant Date

Signature of Researcher Date

## Appendix 5: Information Sheet for Non-managerial Employees Participating in Study 2

**Title: INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT AND THE EFFECTS OF HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES ON EMPOLOYEE ATTITUDES IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTOR**

**Information Sheet**

You are being invited to participate in this research study. Before you decide whether or not to participate, it is important for you to understand why this research is being conducted and what your participation will involve. This document provides useful information that will assist you to make an informed decision about participating in this study. Please take time to carefully read through the information provided and where appropriate discuss with your superiors or others if you wish. I am happy to be contacted if you find any part of the information unclear and would like more clarity before making a decision to take part in this study. Alternatively, you can contact the supervisors of this research if you wish to seek additional information about the research. Please take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part in this research. Thank you for taking time to read this information.

**Purpose of the study**

This study seeks to explore the influence of institutions on HRM as well as the specific techniques of HRM used in organizations across industries and sectors in Nigeria and to examine the effects of human resource practices on job attitudes in public and private sector.

**Participant Selection**

This study is divided into 2 parts; part 1 involves human resource managers who shall provide information on the institutional factors that influence HRM as well as the specific techniques of HRM used in their organizations while part 2 involves non-managerial employees who shall provide information about their perceptions of human resource practices as well as their personal rating of job attitudes.

You are being invited to participate in part 2 of this study because you have been identified as someone in a position to give useful insight on this topic. You meet the requirements for inclusion as a participant because of you are a non-managerial employee in public or private bank; or in a public or private hospital.

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part in this research. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to complete a questionnaire. It shall be stated on the questionnaire that by completing and returning the questionnaire, you are consenting for your data to be used for the research. Please note that you can still withdraw at any time without it affecting any benefits that you are entitled to in any way. You do not have to give a reason.

**Scope of participation**

By participating in this research, you are expected to provide information on your perception of human resource practices in your organization as well as your personal rating of job attitudes by completing a survey questionnaire. You shall be required to simply tick the boxes provided in the questionnaire which reflect your views. It shall take approximately 20 minutes for you to complete the questionnaire. You are expected to seal the completed questionnaire in an envelope which shall be provided before returning same.

**Benefits**

Whilst there are no immediate and direct gains for your participation in this study, we do hope that in the long term, the findings from this study and the recommendations thereof shall help in improving the working conditions as well as the performance of your organization.

**Risks for participation**

There are no risks whatsoever for your participation in this research. Please be assured that all the information we collect about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. You will not be able to be identified in any reports or publications.

**Reporting complaints**

If for any reason you are unhappy with the research process as it involves your participation and wish to make a complaint, please contact the researcher or the supervisors. The contact details of the researcher and supervisors are provided at the end of this information sheet.

If you are happy to continue and participate in this research, please keep this information and sign the attached consent form any time before completing the questionnaire.

Thank you for your time and for taking part in this research.

**Researcher**

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## Appendix 6: Questionnaire for Study 1

****

**SURVEY OF INSTITUTIONAL INFLUENCES ON HRM POLICIES AND SPECIFIC TECHNIQUES OF HRM IN NIGERIA**

**Information & Instructions**

This questionnaire should be answered by HR Managers/Directors or those occupying equivalent positions and are responsible for people management practices in their organization.

The questionnaire is divided into 2 main parts. The first section seeks background information about the participating organization while the other section seeks information about the specific techniques of HRM in your organization as well as the institutional influences on HR policies and practices in your organization.

It is important that you respond to these questions as accurately and honestly as possible. **Your participation in this study is voluntary and by completing and returning this questionnaire, you are consenting to participate.** Remember that your responses shall be kept confidential and will be used strictly for research purposes.

Thank you for taking your time to participate in this study.

**PART I: BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

Please select the option that is applicable to your organization

1. Which of the following best describes the industry in which your organization operates?

(i) Banking/financial services (ii) Education (iii) Health (iv) Manufacturing (v) Hotels (vi) ICT/Media

(vii) Government ministries, departments and agencies (viii) Transport

2. In which sector does your organization operate?

(i) Private Sector (ii) Public Sector

3. What is the number of employees in your organization, including yourself?

(i) 50-99 (ii) 100-249 (iii) 250-500 (iv) Above 500

**PART II: SPECIFIC TECHNIQUES OF HRM & INFLUENCE OF INSTITUTIONS ON HRM**

**(A) SPECIFIC TECHNIQUES OF HRM**

This section relates to the specific techniques used in administering HRM practices in your organization. Please circle the response that is applicable to your organization. 1=Yes 2=No 3=I Don't Know

1. What type of information sharing system does your organization use?

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | | **Yes**  **1** | **No**  **2** | **I Don't Know**  **3** |
|  | Notice boards | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|  | Team briefings/cascade briefings | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|  | Shop steward/workplace representative briefings | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|  | Organization newsletter | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|  | Other (specify) | 1 | 2 | 3 |

2. Do you make use of the following forms of employee consultation/involvement?

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | | **Yes**  **1** | **No**  **2** | **I Don't Know**  **3** |
| 1 | Suggestion boxes | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2 | Workplace surveys | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3 | Briefings where feedback is solicited | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | Other (specify) | 1 | 2 | 3 |

3. Do you make use of any of the following forms of training and development?

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | | **Yes**  **1** | **No**  **2** | **I Don't Know**  **3** |
| 1 | Informal workplace based training | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2 | Formal workplace based training (uncertified) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3 | Formal workplace based training (certified) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | Sponsored courses with outside training body (technical) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 5 | Sponsored courses with outside training body (administrative) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 6 | Sponsored courses with outside training body (managerial) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 7 | Other (specify) | 1 | 2 | 3 |

4. For each category of staff, please indicate how staff are recruited in your organization. Please tick (√) the option(s) applicable.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | | Management Staff | Technical Staff | Clerical Staff | Manual Staff |
| 1 | Internally |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | Word of mouth |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | Recruitment agencies |  |  |  |  |
| 4 | Advertisement |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | Other (please specify) |  |  |  |  |

5. For each category of staff, please indicate which of the selection procedures your organization follows. Please tick (√) the option(s) applicable.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | | Management Staff | Technical Staff | Clerical Staff | Manual Staff |
| 1 | ''Walk-in'' i.e. employed without interview |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | Filling in an application form |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | Filling in an application form and interview |  |  |  |  |
| 4 | Psychometric test |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | Other (please specify) |  |  |  |  |

6. Does your organization provide any of the benefits listed below?

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | | **Yes**  **1** | **No**  **2** | **I Don't Know**  **3** |
| 1 | productivity awards or bonuses for increase in productivity | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2 | Pay for overtime worked | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3 | provide severance package | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | Allow breaks during a work day | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 5 | Paid vacation | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 6 | Paid sick leave | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 7 | Health insurance | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 8 | Other (Specify) | 1 | 2 | 3 |

**(B) INFLUENCE OF INSTITUTIONS ON HRM POLICIES AND PRACTICES**

How influential do you think the following institutions are to HRM policies and practices in your organization? Please circle the number the most closely reflects the level of influence by using the scale below:

1= not at all influential 2= slightly influential 3= somewhat influential 4= moderately influential 5= extremely influential

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | National Labour Laws | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2 | Trade Unions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3 | Professional Bodies | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 | Vocational education set-up | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5 | International Institutions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6 | Government Policy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**Please, go over the survey and ensure that all questions have been answered. Thank you very much for completing this survey. Please return this survey in the enclosed envelope to your administrator.**

## Appendix 7: Interview Questions for Study 1

1. How do national labour laws influence HRM policies and practices in your organization? Are there instances where labour laws prevented your organizations from adopting certain HRM policies you considered necessary to the success of your organization?
2. Are there standard rules and procedures guiding HRM issues in your organization? If yes, where do these rules and procedures emanate?
3. Has your organization had to adopt HRM policies and practices due to demands from social partners (trade unions, works council, funding bodies, etc)?
4. Have changes in government policy directly affected HRM policies and practices in your organization?
5. Does your organization adopt certain HRM policies and practices because others in the industry have adopted same?
6. Does your organization adopt HRM policies and practices based on the advice of consultants? If yes, when? Why?
7. Does your organization recruit HRM personnel from other organizations? Do you think the experience they bring create changes to HRM policies and practices in your organization?
8. Do your organization insist on recruiting HRM personnel with specific educational background? Why? How do you think their educational experience influence the nature of HRM in your organization?
9. Do HR managers in your organization participate in trade association workshops? How does this improve HRM in your organization?
10. Do HR managers in your organization undergo training with professional training institutions? Do you think such trainings are important for them to design and implement appropriate HRM policies in your organization?
11. Are there other factors you think influence HRM policies in your organization?
12. Is there any other information concerning HRM policies and practices in your organization you would like to share with me?

**[In each case, follow-up questions shall be asked to gain deeper insights on how HRM in their organization is shaped by the factors identified]**

## Appendix 8: Questionnaire for Study 2

****

**SURVEY OF EMPLOYEE PERCEPTIONS OF HRM PRACTICES AND JOB ATTITUDES**

**Information & Instructions**

This questionnaire is divided into 2 main parts. The first section seeks general information about the respondents while the other sections seek information about the human resource management practices in your organization and your attitudes toward the organization where you work.

There are no right or wrong answers to any part of this survey. Please try to respond to each question even if you are not completely sure of your answer.

It is important that you respond to these questions as accurately and honestly as possible. **Your participation in this study is voluntary and by completing and returning this questionnaire, you are consenting to participate.** Remember that your responses shall be kept confidential and will be used strictly for research purposes.

Thank you for taking your time to participate in this study.

**PART I: GENERAL INFORMATION**

Please select the option that is applicable to you

1. Your sex:

(i) Male

(ii) Female

2. What is your highest educational qualification?

(i) SSCE

(ii) Diploma or equivalent

(iii) Degree/HND

(iv) Postgraduate or professional Degree

3. What is your age?

(i) 18-29 years (ii) 30-39 years (iii) 40-49 years (iv) 50-59 years

4. How long have you worked in your current organization?

(i) 0-5 years (ii) 6-10 years (iii) 11-15 years (iv) 16-20 years (v) 20 years & above

5. Which of the following best describes your job category?

(i) Banking operations (ii) Marketing (iii) Clinical staff (iv) Hospital administration

6. How much is your monthly salary?

(i) Less or up to N50, 000

(ii) N50, 001-N125, 000

(iii) N125, 001-N200, 000

(iv) Above N200, 000

**PART II: HRM PRACTICES AND JOB ATTITUDES**

**A. EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION**

This relates to the opportunity employees have to participate in work-related decisions in your organization. In your organization, you may call it employee participation, employee involvement, consultation with employees or another similar name.

Please circle the number that most closely reflects your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements

1= strongly disagree 2= disagree 3= neither agree nor disagree 4= agree 5= strongly agree

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Employees are often asked by their superiors to participate in decisions affecting their work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2 | Individuals are often allowed to make decisions concerning their work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3 | Employees are often provided opportunity to make suggestions about the way work is done | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 | Superiors keep open communication with employees | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**B. HR ATTRIBUTION (Employee Participation)**

In this section, we would like to know your opinion on why your organization provides employees opportunity to participate in work-related decisions (employee participation). Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement using the scale provided. Circle the corresponding number beside each statement.

1= strongly disagree 2= disagree 3= neither agree nor disagree 4= agree 5= strongly agree

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | My present organization provides employees with opportunity to participate in work-related decisions in order to help employees deliver quality services to customers | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2 | My present organization provides employees with opportunity to participate in work-related decisions so that employees will feel valued and respected-to improve employee well-being | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3 | My present organization provides employees with opportunity to participate in work-related decisions in order to try to keep cost down | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 | My present organization provides employees with opportunity to participate in work-related decisions in order to get the most out of workers | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5 | My present organization provides employees with opportunity to participate in work-related decisions in order to comply with demands from trade unions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**C. EMPLOYEE BENEFITS**

This section deals with the benefits you receive from your organization such as paid vacation, paid sick leave, health insurance, housing, employee assistance programmes, child care, etc. In your organization, you may call it 'fringe benefits', 'employment benefits' or 'benefits'.

Please circle the number that most closely reflects your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements

1= strongly disagree 2= moderately disagree 3= slightly disagree 4= neither agree nor disagree 5= slightly agree 6= moderately agree

7= strongly agree

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | 1 | I am satisfied with the range of benefits my organization offers | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 2 | I am satisfied with the amount or value of the benefits my organization offers | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 3 | I am satisfied with the extent to which I choose my benefits | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 4 | I think I have more choice about benefits at this organization compared to other similar organizations | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 5 | The benefits at my organization are much better than those at other similar organizations, in terms of value or amount | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 6 | In general, the benefits at my organization are much better than those at other similar organizations | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |  | Please use the following scale to answer question 7 below: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | |  | 1=very dissatisfied 2=moderately dissatisfied 3=slightly dissatisfied 4=neutral 5=slightly satisfied 6=moderately satisfied 7=very satisfied |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | 7 | Overall, how satisfied are you with your benefits compared to those you think are offered at other similar organizations? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

**D. HR ATTRIBUTION (Employee Benefits)**

In this section, we would like to know your opinion on why your organization provides employees with benefits such as medical care, housing, child care, employee assistance programmes, etc. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement using the scale provided. Circle the corresponding number beside each statement

1= strongly disagree 2= disagree 3= neither agree nor disagree 4= agree 5= strongly agree

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | My present organization provides employees with benefits in order to help employees deliver quality services to customers | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2 | My present organization provides employees with benefits so that employees will feel valued and respected-to improve employee well-being | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3 | My present organization provides employees with benefits in order to try to keep cost down | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 | My present organization provides employees with benefits in order to get the most out of workers | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5 | My present organization provides employees with benefits in order to comply with demands from trade unions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**E. TRAINING**

This section relates to training provided within your organization or sponsored by your organization

Please circle the number that most closely reflects your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements

1= strongly disagree 2= moderately disagree 3= slightly disagree 4= neither agree nor disagree 5= slightly agree 6= moderately agree

7= strongly agree

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Did you receive any training when you joined the organization?  If yes, please respond to the following statement  The training I received when I joined the organization was sufficient | 1 | 2 | Yes  3 | 4 | 5 | No  6 | 7 |
| 2 | Did you receive further training later on?  If yes, please respond to the following statement  My further training was appropriate or sufficient for that time | 1 | 2 | Yes  3 | 4 | 5 | No  6 | 7 |
| 3 | I think my organization places the right amount of emphasis or importance on training | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4 | I am happy with the training opportunities provided for me in this organization | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5 | My training was helpful or useful to me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6 | I am satisfied with the training I have received so far | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|  | Please use the following scale to answer question 7 below: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 1=very dissatisfied 2=moderately dissatisfied 3=slightly dissatisfied 4=neutral 5=slightly satisfied 6=moderately satisfied 7=very satisfied |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7 | How satisfied are you with your training compared to the training you think you would receive at other similar organizations? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|  | Please use the following scale to answer question 8 below: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 1=much less 2=less 3=slightly less 4=the same 5=slightly more 6=more 7=much more |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 8 | How did the amount of training you received compare to the amount you think you would receive at other similar organizations? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

**F. HR ATTRIBUTION (Training)**

In this section, we would like to know your opinion on why your organization provides employees with training. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement using the scale provided. Circle the corresponding number beside each statement.

1= strongly disagree 2= disagree 3= neither agree nor disagree 4= agree 5= strongly agree

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | My present organization provides employees with training in order to help employees deliver quality services to customers | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2 | My present organization provides employees with training so that employees will feel valued and respected-to improve employee well-being | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3 | My present organization provides employees with training in order to try to keep cost down | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 | My present organization provides employees with training in order to get the most out of workers | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5 | My present organization provides employees with training in order to comply with demands from trade unions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT**

The following statements represent feelings that people might have about their organization. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement using the scale provided. Circle the corresponding number beside each statement.

1= strongly disagree 2= moderately disagree 3= slightly disagree 4= neither agree nor disagree 5= slightly agree 6= moderately agree

7= strongly agree

**G. Affective commitment**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2 | I really feel as if this organization’s problems are my own | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3 | I do not feel a sense of belonging to my organization (R) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4 | I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization (R) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5 | I do not feel like part of the family at my organization (R) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6 | This organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

**H. Normative Commitment**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current organization (R) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2 | Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3 | I would feel guilty if I left my organization now | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4 | This organization deserves my loyalty | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5 | I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to people in it | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6 | I owe a great deal to my organization | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

**I. Continuance Commitment**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Right now staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2 | It would be hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3 | Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4 | I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5 | If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6 | One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

**J. JOB SATISFACTION**

This relates to your feelings about the job that you do. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement using the scale provided. Circle the corresponding number beside each statement.

1= strongly disagree 2= disagree 3= neither agree nor disagree 4= agree 5= strongly agree

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | I feel fairly satisfied with my present work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2 | Most days I am enthusiastic about my work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3 | Each day at work seems like it will never end (R) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 | I find real enjoyment in work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5 | I consider my job rather unpleasant (R) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**K. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE**

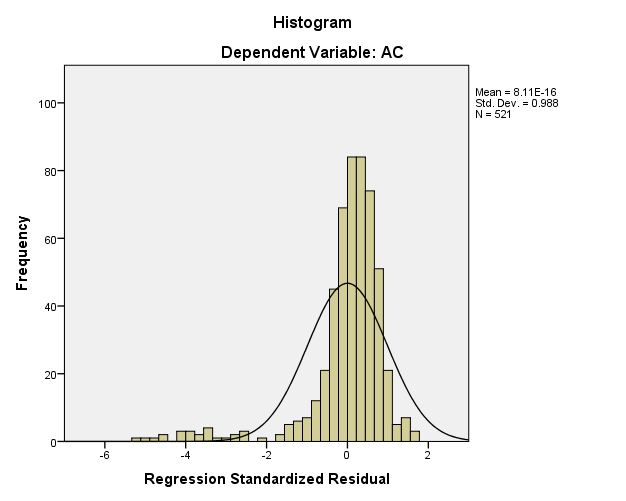
The purpose of this section is to examine your perception about fairness at your workplace. In answering the following questions, think about the day to day decisions made about worker responsibilities, schedules, rewards, and general treatment. For each statement, please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement by circling the appropriate response according to the following scale:

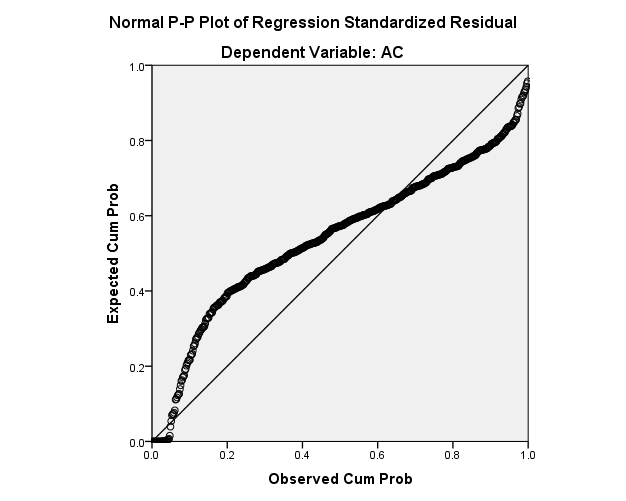
1= strongly disagree 2= moderately disagree 3= slightly disagree 4= neither agree nor disagree 5= slightly agree 6= moderately agree

7= strongly agree

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | My present organization has procedures designed to collect accurate information necessary for making decisions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2 | My present organization has procedures designed to provide opportunities to appeal or challenge decisions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3 | My present organization has procedures designed to have all the sides affected by decisions represented | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4 | My present organization has procedures designed to generate standards so that decisions could be made with consistency | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5 | My present organization has procedures designed to provide useful feedback regarding decisions and its implementation | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6 | My present organization has procedures designed to hear the concerns of all those affected by decisions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7 | My present organization has procedures designed to allow for requests for clarification or additional information about decisions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

## Appendix 9: Example of Regression Plots Showing Non-normality of Residuals





1. Mexico, Indonesia, Nigeria and Turkey [↑](#footnote-ref-1)
2. These two models of HRM have been referred to either as ‘instrumental versus stakeholder models’or ‘control versus commitment models’ of HRM respectively. [↑](#footnote-ref-2)
3. HIWS are a set of practices aimed at treating employees as partners in the organization through communication and involvement (Katou & Budhwar, 2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-3)
4. HPWS are a set of interrelated HR practices that together improve organizational performance (Katou & Budhwar, 2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-4)
5. Perhaps, a caveat is necessary here: I do not claim to sample all organizations that are located in the 11 cities selected for this research. This is because whilst the phone numbers of organizations were obtained from a national directory of public and private organizations, I am aware that some organizations in these locations were not enlisted on the directory. However, there was no other way I could contact these organizations. Again, even those that were enlisted, not all had active telephone lines whilst in some cases, even when the phone was active, the calls to the phone were not answered after repeated calls. As a result, the only feasible approach was to study organizations that were accessible. This underscores some of the challenges of conducting research in a developing country context. [↑](#footnote-ref-5)
6. Although the complete version of the questionnaire was not published in the research, the authors shared the questionnaire with me via an email communication with them. [↑](#footnote-ref-6)
7. A small research grant from Sheffield University Management School facilitated my accommodation and travel within Nigeria [↑](#footnote-ref-7)
8. These public banks are also referred to as development financial institutions due to the kind of services they offer. [↑](#footnote-ref-8)
9. The initial plan was to interview 3 HR managers in each category. However, because the employee surveys were to be administered in the organizations in which managers participated in the interviews, it was envisaged that it would be difficult to sample 250 respondents in only 3 private hospitals based on their size relative to other categories of organizations in this research. Therefore, the sample size for private hospitals was increased to 4 in order to accommodate the administration of employee surveys. [↑](#footnote-ref-9)
10. The corresponding author shared the complete measures for this construct with me via email correspondence. [↑](#footnote-ref-10)
11. Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-11)
12. The monthly pay is stated in Nigerian currency which is the Naira. Presently, £1 is exchanging for 407 Naira. The exchange rate however is unstable and continues to worsen against the local currency as a result of currency devaluation initiatives imposed on the country by the IMF. [↑](#footnote-ref-12)
13. Factor analysis was not conducted in study 1 because the items measuring the techniques of HRM were based on Yes/No responses therefore there was no question of unidimensionality or validity of the constructs. On the other hand, whilst the items measuring institutional variables in study 1 were based on Likert-type responses, each of the institutional variables were distinct, meaning that they were not intended to measure an underlying construct. Hence, it was not appropriate to conduct a factor analysis in study 1 (See Dawson, 2016). [↑](#footnote-ref-13)
14. Composite reliabilities (CR) versus AVE can also be used as an indicator for convergent validity whereby CR > AVE (Malhotra & Dash, 2011). Again, table 7.3 shows that CR >AVE for each construct which is a further confirmation of convergent validity. [↑](#footnote-ref-14)
15. As expected, multicollinearity was not an issue in the data since the Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) for each of the HR practices were less than 2 whilst the values for tolerance were up to 0.9 in each case. This means that the VIF and tolerance values were within the recommended threshold of ≤ 10 and ≥ 0.1 respectively (Hair *et al.,* 2010). [↑](#footnote-ref-15)
16. See [www.processmacro.org](http://www.processmacro.org) for details. [↑](#footnote-ref-16)
17. Model 4 in the PROCESS model was used to run the mediation analyses (see Hayes, 2013). [↑](#footnote-ref-17)
18. Model 14 in the PROCESS model was used to run the moderated mediation analyses (see Hayes, 2013). [↑](#footnote-ref-18)