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**HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN THE CAMEROON CUSTOMS
ADMINISTRATION:
A CASE STUDY FOCUSING ON SKILLS SHORTAGE AND PERSONNEL RETENTION**

By *ALOUMEDJO ZAM Thierry Farrel*

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CAMEROON CUSTOMS ADMINISTRATION:
A CASE STUDY FOCUSING ON SKILLS SHORTAGE
AND PERSONNEL RETENTION**

By

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**Under the supervision of
Professor Andreas RISSLER**

The Graduate School of Social
And Human Studies

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the Degree of Doctor of
philosophy (PhD)
In Human Resource
2018

DECLARATION

This is my original work and has not been submitted for a degree or any other award in any other university.

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This research project report has been submitted under my approval as the university supervisor.

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**To the master of the Universe, author and finisher of my faith and who
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ABSTRACT

The importance of the department in charge of human resource, which is represented in the customs administration by the Division of resources and Logistics cannot be overemphasized as its missions consists in managing with professionalism the personnel's welfare and output. This having an impact on the Customs department, the ministry of finance and the country as a whole. Thus attaining its goals by the organization relies greatly on its strategies designed to develop behaviors and skills of its workers, which is its greatest and most strategic resource. Therefore to meet up these obligations, the organization must continually strive towards identifying strategies to improve its performance. It is in light that, in order to ensure that its personnel evolve in a conducive environment that would condition organizational performance, there is a need to focus on the main difficulties faced in enhancing Knowledge, competence and professional aptitude (Barney, 1991 P. 116). As well personnel retention.

Key words

Personnel administration; human resource management; supervisor support, career development, rewards and recognition, work environment, work life balance; job satisfaction and personnel retention.

Variables

Independent variables

- remuneration;
- leadership;
- supervisor support;
- Recognition;
- Feedback;
- communication;
- Working environment;
- Job design;
- Career advancement;
- organizational climate;
- Work life balance, and;
- **Training and Development**



Dependent variables

Personnel Retention

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(Recreated from Armstrong)

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

- **HRM:** Human resource management
- **DGC:** Directorate General of Customs
- **MINFI:** Ministry of Finance
- **Hr:** Human resource

DEFINITION OF TERMS

- **Career development:** The lifelong process of managing your or your employee's work experience within or between organizations.
- **Human resource management:** The process of hiring and developing employees so that they become more valuable to the organization. Human Resource Management includes conducting job analyses, planning personnel needs, recruiting the right people for the job, orienting and training, managing wages and salaries, providing benefits and incentives, evaluating performance, resolving disputes, and communicating with all employees at all levels. Examples of core qualities of HR management are extensive knowledge of the industry, leadership, and effective negotiation skills. Formerly called personnel management.
- **job satisfaction:** the feeling of pleasure and achievement that you experience in your job when you know that your work is worth doing, or the degree to which your work gives you this feeling.
- **Personnel retention:** An effort by a business to maintain a working environment which supports current staff in remaining with the company. Many employee retention policies are aimed at addressing the various needs of employees to enhance their job satisfaction and reduce the substantial costs involved in hiring and training new staff.
- **Public administration:** According to L D White, Public administration consists of all those operations having for their purpose the fulfillment or enforcement of public policy. On the other hand as per Woodrow Wilson public administration is a detailed and systematic application of law. One can also say that public administration is nothing but the policies, practices, rules and regulation etc, in action.
- **Supervisor support:** Supervisor support is defined as the extent to which leaders value their employees' contributions and care about their well-being. A leader with high supervisor support is one that makes employees feel heard, valued, *and* cared about.
- **Work environment:** the work environment involves the physical geographical location as well as the immediate surroundings of the workplace, such as a construction site or office building. Typically involves other factors relating to the place of employment, such as the quality of the air, noise level, and additional perks and benefits of employment such as free child care or unlimited coffee, or adequate parking.
- **Work life balance:** the amount of time you spend doing your job compared with the amount of time you spend with your family and doing things you enjoy.

CHAPTER ONE

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

“The fact is that people are good, Give people affection and security, and they will give affection and be secure in their feelings and their behavior” says Abraham Maslow. This quotation brings out the importance of the psychological aspect of human beings in an organizational context. Henry Mintzberg is in line with that philosophy when he states that organizations are communities of human beings, not collections of human resource, whereby underlining the complexity of the management of organizations. The underlined complexity is more accentuated nowadays in a globalized world characterized by accelerated technological changes, globalization implying competitiveness, deregulation and revolution trending towards development of fast exchange of information, services and a fierce battle to win the best shares of the market (Kane 2003).

If yesterday, administration of personnel was the order of the day marked by the fact that workers were simply considered as a mere expenditure or a machine to produce results as revealed by classical theories, that leave the impression that the organization is a machine and that workers are simply parts to be fitted into the machine to make it run efficiently. Moreover employees were considered as a cost to be reduced. Today the situation has quite changed with the putting in place of new theories of management that led towards the ultimate fact that workers are a competitive advantage for any organization. In addition, in an era where skills and knowledge are among the main enablers, organizations value significantly the importance of attracting and retaining top performers or most talented workers (Minchington, 2010).

Cameroon is a developing country whose revenues depend greatly on taxes, the customs administration contribute in that purpose for almost one quarter of the budget of the state. The country is committed to a reform intending to make it emerge economically by 2035. This requires at all cost productivity for the customs

administration. For it appears obvious that the vitality of the economy of a country depend greatly on its productivity which in turn is conditioned by the well being of the workers who produce that result (Gerei, 2010). Therefore without a properly trained and motivated staff it would be impossible for any organization to attain its results and thereby contribute efficiently for the development of the nation (Mischa et al, 2008).

The customs administration is in a context of reducing trade barriers along with reforms of customs services as orientated most often by world custom organization (WCO), such reforms include simplified procedures, selective controls and up to date technology. Facing these challenges imposed by the globalization process, customs officers are not always sufficiently trained; this situation is coupled with the realities of budget constraints that do not always encourage personnel retention.

Given the rapidly changing economic environment, characterized by globalization as afore mentioned, the managers of the customs administration are trying to put in place strategies to curb the problem of shortage of skills and low retention therefore changing strategies has become the norm of most organization such as the customs department (Becker, 1996 P.779).

In Cameroon, efforts are done in all sectors especially the customs department to improve its performance in that regard. Directors and staff are working day and night with the hope to give an appropriate answer to the problem. Authors and consultants spin out flood of new answers and promising solutions to the issue. In addition policy makers develop laws and regulations to guide organizations on the right path in such a way as to give managers a broad overview of the overall wellbeing of their organization and its productivity which most often is linked with HR practices.

Though armed with computers and other panoply of tools and techniques, the solution is not always what was expected as a gap remains in between the expected situation and the present one. This implies that, the objective of any organization in general and of customs in particular is to fulfill its vision and mission. In this vein

therefore, there is need for more effort individually as well as collectively to merge and top perform in order to fulfill its missions.

The present thesis is in pursue of this objective as it aims at analyzing the impact of HR principles on the performance of the customs administration, focus being made on staff training and motivation of personnel which call for attention in that organization.

The customs administration is defined in its structuring and functioning by Decree N° 2013/066 du 28/02/2013 signed by the Head of State of Cameroon, organizing the Ministry of Finance in the Republic of Cameroon. The missions of the Customs administration are the followings:

- Tax mission: the Customs administration collects taxes and customs duties which are paid into the public treasury. Customs thus contributes to more than 30% in the realization of Cameroon's State budget;
- Economic mission: consists in the protection of the national economic space and the encouragement of the country's economic development. This involves the fight against fraud, smuggling, trade facilitation, management of customs economic regimes, the fight against compensatory measures and dumping, the control of competition rules;
- Assistance mission: Due to its presence at the borders, Customs is required to carry out missions on behalf of other administrations. It thus provides its assistance to various State services, notably: the Ministry of Defense in controlling the entry of weapons, munitions and harmful substances, and the Ministry of Public Health through the control of Drugs and the quality of food;
- Surveillance Mission: the surveillance of land, air, and maritime entry and exit points on the customs territory is provided by the DGC. This surveillance helps to fight against illegal trafficking (drugs, money laundering) and organized crime.

The organization of the Customs administration is structured as follows:

The Directorate General of Customs is comprised of the following services:

A Department of Resources and Logistics;

A Division of International Cooperation and Tax Bases;

A Division of Legislation and Litigation;

A Division of Customs Investigations and Surveillance;

A Division of Recovery, Statistics and Information System;

A Division for the Control of Financial Operations of External Trade and Exchange;

An information and communication Unit;

Division of Studies, Security and Trade facilitation;

A Customs Training Centre;

A Special Customs Intervention Squad.

The Personnel of the Customs is organized as follows:

Customs staff consists of civil servants and non civil servants. The civil servants include:

The sedentary personnel, working in principal offices in charge of the determination of the basis of calculation and collection of customs duties and taxes. It is the civilian personnel;

The active personnel, working in the surveillance units (subdivisions, Brigades, Posts). These personnel fulfill the mission of surveillance of land, sea and air frontiers, the conducting and putting of goods at customs disposal. They wear the uniform of the customs. We find these personnel at central services as well;

The other civil servants (of the Treasury, Statistics, Water and Forestry, Documentation ...), who perform various functions within the Customs Administration;

The non-civil servant staff is composed of contract officers of the administration and State agents, all governed by the Labor Code.

It must be underlined that customs officers of high rank received their training at the National School of Administration and Magistracy and this training is not generally followed by development. Therefore facing changing economic realities due to globalization, customs agents are not always up to the task. Moreover, the customs training center which should play the role of development and continuous staff training is not yet operational. This lead to a number of deviances such as lack of results, ethical problems such as bribery and corruption. It is therefore imperative for the department to implement strategies that will promote a good working environment and performance expected. Notwithstanding the various works undertaken in that regard, a lot remains to be done as the situation we can say has not really much changed. It is in this light that we have chosen to carry out a research on the theme entitled: **“Human resource Management in the Cameroon Customs Administration: A case study focusing on difficulties of skill shortages and personnel retention”**.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The importance of the department in charge of human resource, which is represented in the customs administration by the Division of resources and Logistics cannot be overemphasized as its missions consists in managing with professionalism the personnel's welfare and output. This having an impact on the Customs department, the ministry of finance and the country as a whole. Thus attaining its goals by the organization relies greatly on its strategies designed to develop behaviors and skills of its workers, which is its greatest and most strategical resource.

Therefore to meet up these obligations, the organization must continually strive towards identifying strategies to improve its performance. It is in light that, in order to ensure that its personnel evolve in a conducive environment that would condition organizational performance, there is a need to focus on the main difficulties faced in enhancing knowledge, competence and professional aptitude (Barney, 1991 P. 116).

This preoccupation about the performance of the personnel is usually reiterated among the main worries of the General Manager of Customs, who emphasizes on the competence, punctuality and assiduity¹ of personnel in order to be able to attain the objectives assigned to the Directorate General of Customs.

This concern by the general Manager of Customs finds its justification in the sense that a stable and competent and assiduous human resource is a key and critical element in an organization's performance. Notwithstanding all the measures that have been taken, it is observed that the level of absenteeism; late coming; departures and self training is increasing by the day. It goes to the extent of some agent abandoning work, preferring to stay at home or involve in other activities such as agriculture, teaching or traveling abroad for greener pastures. These regrettable phenomena find an answer in the following reasons: the workers stay for much time in the same position; there is no established training plan; no financial support for trainings; career advancement is not followed up. In clear the working environment is not always conducive for the well being and performance striving.

It implies that personnel get frustrated in routine work; they remain for a very long time in the same position with no progress in their know how; transfer or promotion seems to be based on subjectivity. Hence in applying HR policies and practices relating to training and motivation of personnel, employees will be more effective and this will help them to perform greatly and subsequently impact organizational performance (Finkelstein and Hambrick, 1996, P. 806).

1. State public service is governed by the general rules and regulations; - and a parallel civil service, to be created in the context of decentralization, governed by a Presidential decree, - State employees governed under the labor code and recruited by decision, that is to say a unilateral act of the administration.

Furthermore there is a need to assert the notion of human capital attributes which are: education; experiences and skills. Moreover the main target of any organization is its personnel and the state of their well being that will condition the attainment of goals or not. In order to achieve that objective, strategies will need to be cultivated and knowledge of employees developed. There is the requirement also of a motivation force that would focus the attention of workers on their duties, thereby improving their productivity and subsequently expected performance.

In this regard, the human resource department is expected to design policies that will motivate the personnel so as to enkindle their attention on the tasks assigned to them and to become top performers. This will have as advantage not only to boast them psychologically but also to stimulate know how in them.

It must be stated that the motivation and training strategy of an organization no matter its direction pave the way for alternative opportunities as experiencing new techniques, Knowledge development and conducive environment therefore implying more competence, know how or professional aptitude necessary to adapt to the realities of the ever changing environment of the organization. This is in line with the views of (Teece, 1998, P. 43 and Drucker, 1999, P. 62) who claim that knowledge and know how are variables to be taken in the realization of strategies of the organization and that the preoccupation of the Human Resource Management should be to cater for its human capital and its preservation.

Thus it would be advantageous to apply motivation; staff training and development, for it would focus the attention of personnel on their duties and increase performance but also to complete the gap of lacking knowledge and skills which are crucial and necessary, especially in a context of effectiveness of new kinds of professional activity (Zeer, 2003, cited in Mawdsley and Somaya, 2015, P. 88).

Therefore, motivation; staff training and development would serve, as an appropriate means to create a conducive environment for organizational performance. Moreover it will have a great effect on the knowledge and competency of the personnel as they involve in trainings and workforce activities; thereby

enhancing good results for customs administration and the ministry of finance as a whole.

Given the problem stated in the work: “Human resource Management in the Cameroon Customs Administration: A case study focusing on difficulties of shortage of skills and personnel retention”.

The following part of our work will reveal us in a more precise manner the preoccupations we want to bring out here.

1.3 Research questions

The stated problem above brings us to the following research questions:

- i. What is the role of work environment practices on retention of staff in the customs administration?
- ii. What is the role of work life balance in the retention of staff in the Customs Administration?
- iii. What is the coherence between staff training and development and organizational performance?
- iv. What is the link in between motivation; staff training and development and organizational performance?

1.4 Research objectives

This part of our work is subdivided into two parts which are: the general objectives and the specific ones.

1.4.1 The General Objectives

The main objective of this study is to investigate and identify areas of improvement on the productivity of the staffs as well as the general performance of the Cameroonian Customs Administration, through the use of mobility and staff training as strategies.

1.4.2 The Specific Objectives

Beside the main purpose of the study, the work has specific objectives as follows:

- To explore the role of work- environment management practices on the retention of staff in the Cameroon Customs Administration;
- To investigate the role of work-life balance practices on the retention of staff in the Cameroon Customs Administration;
- To analyze the impact of Staff training and development on the organizational performance;
- To appraise the role of HR practices on the retention of staff in the Cameroon Customs Administration.

1.5 Hypotheses

- i. Ho1: There is a significant relationship between remuneration practices and retention of staff in the Cameroon Customs Administration;

Ho2: There is no significant relationship between remuneration practices and retention of staff in the Cameroon Customs Administration;

- ii. Ho1: There is an important link in between career advancement and retention of Staff in the Cameroon Customs Administration;

Ho2: There is no important link in between career advancement and retention of Staff in the Cameroon Customs Administration;

- iii. Ho1: Work environment management practices and retention of staff in the Cameroon Customs Administration are greatly interconnected;

Ho2: Work environment management practices and retention of staff in the Cameroon Customs Administration are greatly interconnected;

- iv. Ho1: There is a significant relationship in between employee work life balance practices and retention of staff in the Cameroon Customs Administration;

Ho1: There is no significant relationship in between employee work life balance practices and retention of staff in the Cameroon Customs Administration.

1.6 Significance of the Study

This topic is relevant considering the expected level of productivity of the Cameroon Customs Administration. This is explained by the fact that an efficient management system is piloted by human beings that depend on a well defined platform such as a good flexible organizational structure.

The implication here is that if the human resource are judiciously employed and HR approved practices correctly applied, then the performance of the organization will be guaranteed.

This will enhance a strong interconnection in between the employees as they experience ameliorated conditions and a rise of the productivity and organizational performance (Drucker 1999, P.157).

Considering the fact that human resource conditions the development of an organization (Berker, 1996. P. 776), this research will demonstrate how the management of an organization can create motivation; focus at work; loyalty and development of its personnel. This is simply based on the fact that the success of an organization depends on the way its personnel have been developed and handled. (Takeuchi et al.2009, as cited in Kehoe & Wright, 2010: 367).

The work will help as a tool for the management of the Cameroon Customs Administration to lead its personnel to grow and broaden their scope so as to stimulate motivation and productivity in them. To get them performant and adapted to ever changing realities of a globalized and more and fast demanding economy for a country which wants to alleviate poverty for its population. Customs being an important contributor to the budget of the state.

The main objective of this study is therefore to improve on the productivity of staff and general performance of the organization through the use of training, motivation and mobility of personnel. This will be done by following the process under mentioned:

- Bringing out the benefits of mobilization of the personnel of the Cameroon Customs Administration;
- Bringing out the benefits of mobility of the personnel of the Cameroon Customs Administration;
- Identifying the factors hindering the proper development of human resource in the organization;
- Proposing solutions and recommendations to the aspects of quality management systems required in the Cameroon Customs Administration.

1.7 Scope of the study

This study was limited to Cameroon public administration and especially the Customs department. It comes from the observation that mobility and motivation of personnel are current issues in the organization (In the past 10 years, transfers and promotions have been done only once) thereby affecting the morale and focus of the staff in their day to day tasks. Therefore our work only covers the personnel of the central administration of the customs department.

It must be said that the HR practices that influence retention in the organization are numerous and varied. We can list for that purpose the followings:

- remuneration;
- leadership;
- supervisor support;
- Recognition;

- Feedback;
- communication;
- Working environment;
- Job design;
- Career advancement;
- organizational climate;
- Work life balance, and;
- Nature of the work, etc.

In order to enhance the effectiveness of the study, the focus was made on aspects relating to shortage of skills and personnel retention. Since they appear to be the main factors that seemed to adversely affect staff retention and a better organizational performance in the Customs administration.

1.8. Structure of the Study

The structure of the work is made up of two main axes divided into 05 chapters. The first part is constituted of a general introduction subdivided as follows: Background of the study: Statement of the problem ; Research questions ; Research objectives ; General objectives ; Specific objectives ; Hypotheses ; Significance of the study ; scope of the study and limitation of the study. It also brings out the conceptual framework, the theoretical and methodological approach.

The second main axis focuses on the analytical framework; diagnosis; solutions and recommendations. Which will permit us to verify the effectiveness of the theme in diagnosing the practices of the Customs department, and will propose solutions and recommendations based on the results of the diagnosis in enhancing performance in the Customs Administration? This will logically ends with a conclusion, which attempts to give a summary of the entire study.

CHAPTER TWO

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

In this chapter we shall be concerned with the theoretical frameworks relating to retention of personnel; staff training and development. We shall also focus on the conceptual framework of the study, a literature review on the role of HR; practices on staff training, staff retention and the research gap observed.

2.2. Theoretical Frameworks

2.2.1 Herzberg's two factor theory

The two-factor theory was developed from data collected by Herzberg from interviews with 203 engineers and accountants in the Pittsburgh area, chosen because of their professions' growing importance in the business world.

Herzberg (1969) two factor theory is given a theoretical framework in the literature (Basset, Jones and Lloyd). Herzberg (1964) states that *“Briefly, we asked our respondents to describe periods in their lives when they were exceedingly happy and unhappy with their jobs. Each respondent gave as many "sequences of events" as he could that met certain criteria—including a marked change in feeling, a beginning and an end, and contained some substantive description other than feelings and interpretations...”*

The proposed hypothesis by the author appears verified. In fact the factors on the right that led to satisfaction (achievement, intrinsic interest in the work, responsibility, and advancement) are mostly unipolar; that is, they contribute very little to job dissatisfaction. Conversely, the dis-satisfiers (company policy and administrative practices, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, and salary) contribute very little to job satisfaction.

Moreover, Attitudes and their connection with industrial mental health are related to Abraham Maslow's theory of motivation. His findings have had a considerable theoretical, as well as a practical, influence on attitudes toward administration.

According to Herzberg, individuals are not content with the satisfaction of lower-order needs at work; for example, those needs associated with minimum salary levels or safe and pleasant working conditions. Rather, individuals look for the gratification of higher-level psychological needs having to do with achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, and the nature of the work itself. This appears to parallel Maslow's theory of a need hierarchy.

However, Herzberg added a new dimension to this theory by proposing a two-factor model of motivation, based on the notion that the presence of one set of job characteristics or incentives leads to worker *satisfaction* at work, while another and separate set of job characteristics leads to *dissatisfaction* at work.

Thus, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not on a continuum with one increasing as the other diminishes, but are independent phenomena. This theory suggests that to improve job attitudes and productivity, administrators must recognize and attend to both sets of characteristics and not assume that an increase in satisfaction leads to decrease in dissatisfaction.

In his research works consisting of collecting data and analyzing them, he found that job characteristics related to what an individual performs that is, to the nature of the work one performs apparently have the capacity to gratify such needs as achievement, competency, status, personal worth, and self-realization, thus making him happy and satisfied.

However, the *absence* of such gratifying job characteristics does not appear to lead to unhappiness and dissatisfaction. Instead, dissatisfaction results from unfavorable assessments of such job-related factors as company policies, supervision, technical problems, salary, interpersonal relations on the job, and working conditions.

Thus, if management wishes to increase satisfaction on the job, it should be concerned with the nature of the work itself, the opportunities it presents for gaining status, assuming responsibility, and for achieving self-realization. If, on the other hand, management wishes to reduce dissatisfaction, then it must focus on the job environment — policies, procedures, supervision, and working conditions. If management is equally concerned with both, then managers must give attention to both sets of job factors.

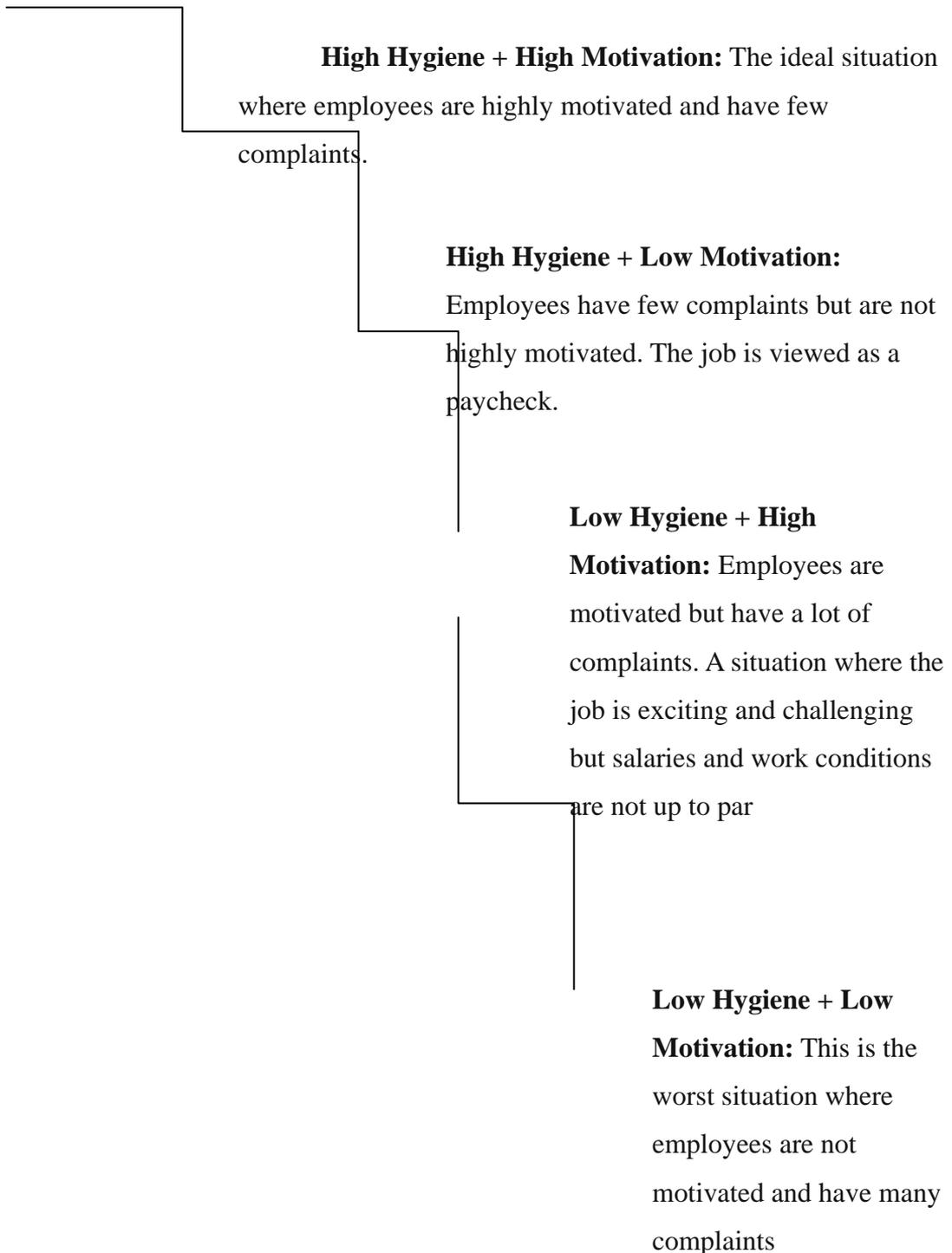
It must be noticed in clear that, the Two-factor theory distinguishes between the two factors illustrated in the following table.

Types of factors	Example of factors	Final objective
motivators	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • challenging work; • recognition for one's achievement; • responsibility, opportunity to do something meaningful; • involvement in decision making; • sense of importance to an organization 	Positive satisfaction, arising from intrinsic conditions of the job itself.
Hygiene/ maintenance ²	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Status; • job security; • salary; • fringe benefits; 	Do not give positive satisfaction or lead to higher motivation, though dissatisfaction results from their absence.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • work conditions; • good pay; • paid insurance; • Vacations 	
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2. Herzberg often referred to hygiene factors as "KITA" factors, which is an acronym for "kick in the ass", the process of providing incentives or threat of punishment to make someone do something. According to Herzberg, hygiene factors are what cause dissatisfaction among employees in a workplace. In order to remove dissatisfaction in a work environment, these hygiene factors must be eliminated. There are several ways that this can be done but some of the most important ways to decrease dissatisfaction would be to pay reasonable wages, ensure employees job security, and to create a positive culture in the workplace. Herzberg considered the following hygiene factors from highest to lowest importance: company policy, supervision, employee's relationship with their boss, work conditions, salary, and relationships with peers. Eliminating dissatisfaction is only one half of the task of the two factor theory. The other half would be to increase satisfaction in the workplace. This can be done by improving on motivating factors. Motivation factors are needed to motivate an employee to higher performance. Herzberg also further classified our actions and how and why we do them, for example, if you perform a work related action because you *have* to then that is classed as "movement", but if you perform a work related action because you *want* to then that is classed as "motivation". Herzberg thought it was important to eliminate job dissatisfaction before going onto creating conditions for job satisfaction because it would work against each other.

According to the Two-Factor Theory there are four possible combinations represented in the following scales, the lower we go, the lower the level of motivation and organizational performance.



Unlike Maslow, who offered little data to support his ideas, Herzberg has presented considerable empirical evidence to confirm the motivation-hygiene theory, although his work has been criticized on methodological grounds.

Herzberg's theory focuses more on the importance of internal job factors as motivating forces for employees. He designed it to increase job enrichment for employees. Herzberg wanted to create the opportunity for employees to take part in planning, performing, and evaluating their work. Removing some of the control management has over employees and increasing the accountability and responsibility they have over their work, which would in return increase employee autonomy. For Herzberg, it is important to allow employees to create complete and natural work units where it is possible. An example would be allowing employees to create a whole unit or section instead of only allowing them to create part of it. Providing regular and continuous feedback on productivity and job performance directly to employees instead of through supervisors. Encouraging employees to take on new and challenging tasks and becoming experts at a task.

The implication of this theory for the management of human resource in the Customs administration is that the leader should not only rely on motivators or hygiene factors separately, instead there must be a combination of the two, to succeed in personnel retention and organizational performance.

Therefore it is left for the leader to apply a policy taking into consideration both the hygiene and motivation factors put together, for they lead to the best situation in the functioning of an organization (Christ Argyris, 1970) and to organizational development.

This theory is therefore relevant to ensure the retention and performance of the organization alongside staff training and development. For without motivation personnel cannot focus on its tasks and perform the expected results.

2.2.2. Victor Vroom's Expectancy theory

Victor's Vroom Expectancy theory (or expectancy theory of motivation) is given a review in the Encyclopedia, this theory asserts that an individual will behave or act in a certain way because they are motivated to select a specific behavior over other behaviors due to what they expect the result of that selected behavior will be.

In other words, the motivation of the behavior selection is determined by the desirability of the outcome. However, at the core of the theory is the cognitive process of how an individual processes the different motivational elements. This is done before making the ultimate choice. The outcome is not the sole determining factor in making the decision of how to behave.

Expectancy theory is about the mental processes regarding choice, or choosing. It explains the processes that an individual undergoes to make choices. In the study of organizational behavior, expectancy theory is a motivation theory first proposed by Victor Vroom of the Yale School of Management.

Victor H. Vroom (1964), in his theory defines motivation as a process governing choices among alternative forms of voluntary activities, a process controlled by the individual. The individual makes choices based on estimates of how well the expected results of a given behavior are going to match up with or eventually lead to the desired results.

According to Vroom, motivation is a product of the individual's expectancy that a certain effort will lead to the intended performance, the instrumentality of this performance to achieving a certain result, and the desirability of this result for the individual, known as valence.

Expectancy theory is made up of three components: expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. Which are presented as follows:

- Expectancy: effort \rightarrow performance (E \rightarrow P)
- Instrumentality: performance \rightarrow outcome (P \rightarrow O)
- Valence: V(R) outcome \rightarrow reward

Vroom explains those three fundamental elements as follows:

Expectancy is the belief that one's effort (E) will result in attainment of desired performance (P) goals. Usually based on an individual's past experience, self-confidence (self efficacy), and the perceived difficulty of the performance standard or goal.

Self efficacy – the person's belief about their ability to successfully perform a particular behavior. The individual will assess whether they have the required skills or knowledge desired to achieve their goals.

Goal difficulty – when goals are set too high or performance expectations that are made too difficult. This will most likely lead to low expectancy. This occurs when the individual believes that their desired results are unattainable.

Perceived control – Individuals must believe that they have some degree of control over the expected outcome. When individuals perceive that the outcome is beyond their ability to influence, expectancy, and thus motivation, is low.

Instrumentality: Performance \rightarrow Outcome (P \rightarrow O)

The expectancy³ theory reveals that, Instrumentality is the belief that a person will receive a reward if the performance expectation is met. This reward may present itself in the form of a pay increase, promotion, recognition or sense of accomplishment. Instrumentality is low when the reward is the same for all performances given.

It must be stated that this theory is very important for management as it studies motivation of the employees. In the sense that it explains the behavioral process of why individuals choose one behavioral option over the other.

This theory explains that individuals can be motivated towards goals if they believe that there is a positive correlation between efforts and performance, the outcome of a favorable performance will result in a desirable reward, a reward from a performance will satisfy an important need, and/or the outcome satisfies their need enough to make the effort worthwhile.

3. Valence: the value an individual places on the rewards of an outcome, which is based on their needs, goals, values and Sources of Motivation. Influential factors include one's values, needs, goals, preferences and sources that strengthen their motivation for a particular outcome. Valence is characterized by the extent to which a person values a given outcome or reward. This is not an actual level of satisfaction rather the expected satisfaction of a particular outcome. The valence refers to the value the individual personally places on the rewards. -1 → 0 → +1 = avoiding the outcome 0 = indifferent to the outcome +1 = welcomes the outcome. In order for the valence to be positive, the person must prefer attaining the outcome to not attaining it. Valence is one behavioral alternative, where the decision is measured on the value of the reward. The model below shows the direction of motivation, when behavior is energized $Motivational\ Force\ (MF) = Expectancy \times Instrumentality \times Valence$. When deciding among behavioral options, individuals select the option with the greatest amount of motivational force (MF). Expectancy and instrumentality are attitudes (cognitions), whereas valence is rooted in an individual's value system. Examples of valued outcomes in the workplace include, pay increases and bonuses, promotions, time off, new assignments, recognition, etc. If management can effectively determine what their employee values, this will allow the manager to motivate employees in order to get the highest result and effectiveness out of the workplace.

Another way that instrumental outcomes work is commissions. With commissions performance is directly correlated with outcome (how much money is made). If performance is high and many goods are sold the more money the person will make.

Factors associated with the individual's instrumentality for outcomes are:

- Trust;
- Control and;
- Policies.

Therefore, the manager is called upon to pose the following actions:

- Trusting the people who will decide who gets what outcome, based on the performance;
 - Control of how the decision is made, of who gets what outcome;
 - Policies understanding of the correlation between performance and outcomes.
-

4. In order to enhance the performance-outcome tie, managers should use systems that tie rewards very closely to performance. Managers also need to ensure that the rewards provided are deserved and wanted by the recipients. In order to improve the effort-performance tie, managers should engage in training to improve their capabilities and improve their belief that added effort will in fact lead to better performance.

- Emphasizes self-interest in the alignment of rewards with employee's wants
- Emphasizes the connections among expected behaviors, rewards and organizational goals

Victor Vroom's expectancy theory is very important for the manager⁴ as one such management theory focused on motivation. According to Holdford and Lovelace-Elmore (2001, p. 8), Vroom asserts, "Intensity of work effort depends on the perception that an individual's effort will result in a desired outcome".

This theory can be justified in the personnel retention in the sense that only a motivated worker can bring the expected result which will depend on the three elements described by Vroom which are:

- Expectancy: effort \rightarrow performance (E \rightarrow P)
- Instrumentality: performance \rightarrow outcome (P \rightarrow O)
- Valence: V(R) outcome \rightarrow reward

2.2.3 Maslow's Pyramid theory

According to Saul McLeod (2017), Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a motivational theory in psychology comprising a five-tier model of human needs, often depicted as hierarchical levels within a pyramid.

Maslow (1943, 1954) stated that people are motivated to achieve certain needs and that some needs take precedence over others. Our most basic need is for physical survival, and this will be the first thing that motivates our behavior. Once that level is fulfilled the next level up is what motivates us, and so on. Psychologist Abraham Maslow (1943, 1954) stated that human motivation is based on people seeking fulfillment and change through personal growth. Self-actualized people are those who were fulfilled and doing all they were capable of.

It should be noted that according to Maslow, instead of focusing on psychopathology and what goes wrong with people, Maslow (1943) formulated a more positive account of human behavior which focused on what goes right. He was interested in human potential, and how we fulfill that potential.

This five-stage model can therefore be divided into deficiency needs and growth needs. The first four levels are often referred to as deficiency needs (D-needs), and the top level is known as growth or being needs (B-needs).

Deficiency needs arise due to deprivation and are said to motivate people when they are unmet. Also, the motivation to fulfill such needs will become stronger the longer the duration they are denied. For example, the longer a person goes without food, the more hungry they will become.

Maslow (1943) initially stated that individuals must satisfy lower level deficit needs before progressing on to meet higher level growth needs. However, he later clarified that satisfaction of a needs is not an «all-or-none» phenomenon, admitting that his earlier statements may have given “the false impression that a need must be satisfied 100 percent before the next need emerges” (1987, p. 69).

When a deficit need has been 'more or less' satisfied it will go away, and our activities become habitually directed towards meeting the next set of needs that we have yet to satisfy. These then become our salient needs. However, growth needs continue to be felt and may even become stronger once they have been engaged.

Growth needs do not stem from a lack of something, but rather from a desire to grow as a person. Once this growth needs have been reasonably satisfied, one may be able to reach the highest level called self-actualization.

Every person is capable and has the desire to move up the hierarchy toward a level of self-actualization. Unfortunately, progress is often disrupted by a failure to meet lower level needs. Life experiences, including divorce and loss of a job, may cause an individual to fluctuate between levels of the hierarchy. Therefore, not everyone will move through the hierarchy in a uni-directional manner but may move back and forth between the different types of needs.

Table 1: The original hierarchy of needs five-stage model includes:

Types of needs	Examples
1. Biological and physiological needs	- air, food, drink, shelter, warmth, sex, sleep
2. Safety needs	Protection from elements, security, order, law, stability, freedom from fear.
3. Love and belongingness needs	Friendship, intimacy, trust, and acceptance, receiving and giving affection and love. Affiliating, being part of a group (family, friends, work).
4. Esteem needs	(I) esteem for oneself (dignity, achievement, mastery, independence) and (ii) the desire for reputation or respect from others (e.g., status, prestige). Maslow indicated that the need for respect or reputation is most important for children and adolescents and precedes real self-esteem or dignity.
5. Self-actualization needs	- realizing personal potential, self-fulfillment, seeking personal growth and peak experiences.

According to Maslow (1987, p. 64). A desire to become everything one is capable of becoming is possible as illustrated in his pyramid⁵.

5. Hierarchy of needs summary

(a) Human beings are motivated by a hierarchy of needs.

(b) needs are organized in a hierarchy of prepotency in which more basic needs must be more or less met (rather than all or none) prior to higher needs.

(c) the order of needs is not rigid but instead may be flexible based on external circumstances or individual differences.

(d) Most behavior is multi-motivated, that is, simultaneously determined by more than one basic need.

The expanded hierarchy of needs

It is important to note that Maslow's (1943, 1954) five-stage model has been expanded to include cognitive and aesthetic needs (Maslow, 1970a) and later transcendence needs (Maslow, 1970b).

Changes to the original five-stage model are highlighted and include a seven-stage model and an eight-stage model; both developed during the 1960's and 1970s.

1. Biological and physiological needs - air, food, drink, shelter, warmth, sex, sleep, etc.

2. Safety needs - protection from elements, security, order, law, stability, etc.

3. Love and belongingness needs - friendship, intimacy, trust, and acceptance, receiving and giving affection and love. Affiliating, being part of a group (family, friends, work).

4. Esteem needs - which Maslow classified into two categories: (i) esteem for oneself (dignity, achievement, mastery, and independence) and (ii) the desire for reputation or respect from others (e.g., status, prestige).

5. Cognitive needs - knowledge and understanding, curiosity, exploration, need for meaning and predictability.

6. Aesthetic needs - appreciation and search for beauty, balance, form, etc.

7. Self-actualization needs - realizing personal potential, self-fulfillment, seeking personal growth and peak experiences.

8. Transcendence needs - A person is motivated by values which transcend beyond the personal self (e.g., mystical experiences and certain experiences with nature, aesthetic experiences, sexual experiences, service to others, the pursuit of science, religious faith, etc.).

For Maslow, human needs are arranged in a hierarchy. In that regard, he asserts that it is quite true that man lives by bread alone — when there is no bread. But what happens to man’s desires when there is plenty of bread and when his belly is chronically filled?

He tried to answer that question by saying that at once other (and “higher”) needs emerge and these, rather than physiological hungers, dominate the organism. And when these in turn are satisfied, again new (and still “higher”) needs emerge and so on. This is what he meant by saying that the basic human needs are organized into a hierarchy of relative prepotency" (Maslow, 1943, p. 375).

Maslow continued to refine his theory based on the concept of a hierarchy of needs over several decades (Maslow, 1943, 1962, 1987). Regarding the structure of his hierarchy, Maslow (1987) proposed that the order in the hierarchy “is not nearly as rigid” (p. 68) as he may have implied in his earlier description.

Maslow also noted that the order of needs might be flexible based on external circumstances or individual differences. For example, he notes that for some individuals, the need for self-esteem is more important than the need for love. For others, the need for creative fulfillment may supersede even the most basic needs.

Maslow (1987) also pointed out that most behavior is multi-motivated and noted that “any behavior tends to be determined by several or all of the basic needs simultaneously rather than by only one of them” (p. 71).

According to Maslow (1962), the growth of self-actualization refers to the need for personal growth and discovery that is present throughout a person’s life. Him, a person is always 'becoming' and never remains static in these terms. In self-actualization, a person comes to find a meaning to life that is important to them.

For the author, each individual is unique; the motivation for self-actualization leads people in different directions (Kenrick et al., 2010). For some people self-actualization can be achieved through creating works of science, for others through arts, in the classroom, or within a corporate setting.

Maslow (1962) believed self-actualization could be measured through the concept of peak experiences. This occurs when a person experiences the world totally for what it is, and there are feelings of euphoria, joy, and wonder.

It is important to note that self-actualization⁶ is a continual process of becoming rather than a perfect state one reaches of a 'happy ever after' (Hoffman, 1988).

6. Maslow offers the following description of self-actualization:

'It refers to the person's desire for self-fulfillment, namely, to the tendency for him to become actualized in what he is potentially.

The specific form that these needs will take will of course vary greatly from person to person. In one individual it may take the form of the desire to be an ideal mother, in another it may be expressed athletically, and in still another it may be expressed in painting pictures or in inventions' (Maslow, 1943, p. 382–38)

Although we are all, theoretically, capable of self-actualizing, most of us will not do so, or only to a limited degree. Maslow (1970) estimated that only two percent of people would reach the state of self-actualization. He was especially interested in the characteristics of people whom he considered to have achieved their potential as individuals.

For his experimentation, Maslow (1970), by studying 18 people he considered to be self-actualized (including Abraham Lincoln and Albert Einstein), he identified 15 characteristics of a self-actualized person. Which are as follows:

1. They perceive reality efficiently and can tolerate uncertainty;
2. Accept themselves and others for what they are;
3. Spontaneous in thought and action;
4. Problem-centered (not self-centered);
5. Unusual sense of humor;
6. Able to look at life objectively;
7. Highly creative;
8. Resistant to enculturation, but not purposely unconventional
9. Concerned for the welfare of humanity;
10. Capable of deep appreciation of basic life-experience;
11. Establish deep satisfying interpersonal relationships with a few people;
12. Peak experiences;
13. Need for privacy;
14. Democratic attitudes;
15. Strong moral/ethical standards.

According to Maslow, behavior leading to self-actualization is the followings:

- (a) Experiencing life like a child, with full absorption and concentration;
- (b) Trying new things instead of sticking to safe paths;
- (c) Listening to your own feelings in evaluating experiences instead of the voice of tradition, authority or the majority;
- (d) Avoiding pretense ('game playing') and being honest;
- (e) Being prepared to be unpopular if your views do not coincide with those of the majority;
- (f) Taking responsibility and working hard;
- (g) Trying to identify your defenses and having the courage to give them up.

The works of Maslow permitted to observe, characteristics of self-actualizers and the behaviors leading to self-actualization. It appeared that although people achieve self-actualization in their own unique way, they tend to share certain characteristics. However, self-actualization is a matter of degree, 'There are no perfect human beings' says Maslow (1970 a, p. 176).

Maslow drew the conclusions that, it is not necessary to display all 15 characteristics to become self-actualized, and not only self-actualized people will display them. Self-actualization should not be equated with perfection as self-actualization merely involves achieving one's potential. Thus, someone can be silly, wasteful, vain and impolite, and still self-actualize. Less than two percent of the population achieves self-actualization.

Therefore a manager, instead of focusing on psychopathology and what goes wrong with people, as Maslow (1943) formulated a more positive account of human behavior which focused on what goes right. The leader must be interested in human potential, and how its personnel fulfill his potential, what is their motivation or self-actualization, in order to develop high employee retention in the Customs Administration.

2.2.4 Stacey Adam's Equity theory

According to Decenzo and Robbins (2012) and Gupta (2011), Stacey Adam's Equity theory focuses on determining whether the distribution of resources is fair to both relational partners. Equity is measured by comparing the ratio of contributions (or costs) and benefits (or rewards) for each person.⁷

The Equity theory is based on the fact that people value fair treatment which causes them to be motivated to keep the fairness maintained within the relationships of their co-workers and the organization.

The structure of equity in the workplace grounded on the ratio of inputs to outcomes. Inputs are the contributions made by the employee for the organization.

7. Considered one of the justice theories, equity theory was first developed in the 1960s by J. Stacy Adams, a workplace and behavioral psychologist, who asserted that employees seek to maintain equity between the inputs that they bring to a job and the outcomes that they receive from it against the perceived inputs and outcomes of others (Adams, 1963).

Equity theory therefore focuses on determining whether the distribution of resources is fair to both relational partners. It proposes that individuals who perceive themselves as either under-rewarded or over-rewarded will experience distress, and that this distress leads to efforts to restore equity within the relationship.

Stacey Adam in his works focuses on determining whether the distribution of resources is fair to both relational partners. Equity is measured by comparing the ratios of contributions and benefits of each person within the relationship. Partners do not have to receive equal benefits such as:

- receiving the same amount of love;
- The same level of care, and;
- Equal financial security;
- Equal contributions (such as investing the same amount of effort, time, and financial resources).

-
8. It is the subtle variables that also play an important role in the feeling of equity. Just the idea of recognition for the job performance and the mere act of thanking the employee will cause a feeling of satisfaction and therefore help the employee feel worthwhile and have better outcomes.

Henceforth, as long as the ratio between these benefits and contributions is similar. Much like other prevalent theories of motivation, equity theory acknowledges that subtle and variable individual factors affect each person's assessment and perception of their relationship with their relational partners (Guerrero et al., 2005).

According to Adams (1965), anger is induced by underpayment inequity and guilt is induced with overpayment equity⁸ (Spector 2008). Payment whether hourly wage or salary, is the main concern and therefore the cause of equity or inequity in most cases.

Employees want to be treated with equity⁹ and want to feel that their contributions and work performance are being rewarded accordingly. If an employee feels underpaid then it will result in the employee feeling hostile towards the organization and perhaps their co-workers, which may result in the employee underperforming taking into consideration inputs¹⁰ and outcomes¹¹.

According to Walster, Traupmann & Walster (1978), individual traits such as boorishness and cruelty are seen as liabilities entitling the possessor to costs. Inputs in that vein typically include any of the following:

-
9. Individuals compare their job inputs and outcomes with those of others and then respond to eliminate any inequities
 10. Inputs are defined as each participant's contributions to the relational exchange and are viewed as entitling him/her to rewards or costs. The inputs that a participant contributes to a relationship can be either assets – entitling him/her to rewards – or liabilities - entitling him/her to costs. The entitlement to rewards or costs ascribed to each input varies depending on the relational setting. In industrial settings, assets such as capital and manual labor are seen as "relevant inputs" – inputs that legitimately entitle the contributor to rewards. In social settings, assets such as physical beauty and kindness are generally seen as assets entitling the possessor to social rewards.
 11. Outcomes are defined as the positive and negative consequences that an individual perceives a participant has incurred as a consequence of his/her relationship with another. When the ratio of inputs to outcomes is close, then the employee should have much satisfaction with their job. Outputs can be both tangible and intangible. Outcomes are also defined as rewards minus costs.

- Ability;
- Adaptability;
- Flexibility;
- Tolerance;
- Determination;
- Enthusiasm;
- Personal sacrifice;
- Trust in superiors;
- Support from co-workers and colleagues;
- Skills;
- Time;
- Education;
- Experience;
- Effort;
- Loyalty;
- Hard Work;
- Commitment;

In the same philosophy, when we refer to outcomes, it will imply the followings:

- Praise;
- Thanks;
- Stimuli;
- Propositions;

- Job security;
- Salary;
- Employee benefit;
- Expenses;
- Recognition;
- Reputation;
- Responsibility;
- Sense of achievement.

According to Walster, Traupmann and Walster (1978), Equity theory describes the relationship between an employee's motivation and his or her perception of equitable or inequitable treatment. Therefore in an organization, the relevant dyadic relationship is that between employee and employer. Equity theory assumes that employees seek to maintain an equitable ratio between the inputs they bring to the relationship and the outcomes they receive from it (Adams, 1965).

According to Carrell and Ditttrich (1978), Equity theory however, introduces the concept of social comparison, whereby employees evaluate their own input/output ratios based on their comparison with the input/outcome ratios of other employees. Inputs in this context include the employee's time, expertise, qualifications, experience, intangible personal qualities such as drive and ambition, and interpersonal skills. Outcomes include monetary compensation, perquisites ("perks"), benefits, and flexible work arrangements.

The implications of the Equity theory is that employees who perceive inequity will seek to reduce it, either by distorting inputs and/or outcomes in their own minds ("cognitive distortion"), directly altering inputs and/or outcomes, or leaving the organization (Carrell and Dittrich, 1978).

These perceptions of inequity¹² are perceptions of organizational justice, or more specifically, injustice. Subsequently, the theory has wide-reaching implications for employee morale, efficiency, productivity, and turnover.

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12. Employees expect a fair return for what they contribute to their jobs, a concept referred to as the "equity norm".

Employees determine what their equitable return should be after comparing their inputs and outcomes with those of their coworkers. This concept is referred to as "social comparison".

Employees who perceive themselves as being in an inequitable situation will seek to reduce the inequity either by distorting inputs and/or outcomes in their own minds ("cognitive distortion"), by directly altering inputs and/or outputs, or by leaving the organization. (Carrell and Dittrich, 1978).

Table 2: Equity theory consists of four propositions represented in the table below:

Types of propositions	Explanations
self-inside	Individuals seek to maximize their outcomes
self-outside	Groups can maximize collective rewards by developing accepted systems for equitably apportioning rewards and costs among members. Systems of equity will evolve within groups, and members will attempt to induce other members to accept and adhere to these systems. The only way groups can induce members to equitably behave is by making it more profitable to behave equitably than inequitably. Thus, groups will generally reward members who treat others equitably and generally punish (increase the cost for) members who treat others inequitably.
others-inside	When individuals find themselves participating in inequitable relationships, they become distressed. The more inequitable the relationship, the more distress individuals feel. According to

	<p>equity theory, both the person who gets "too much" and the person who gets "too little" feel distressed. The person who gets too much may feel guilt or shame. The person who gets too little may feel angry or humiliated.</p>
other-outside	<p>Individuals who perceive that they are in an inequitable relationship attempt to eliminate their distress by restoring equity. The greater the inequity, the more distress people feel and the more they try to restore equity.</p>

Equity theory has several implications for managers:

- Different employees ascribe personal values to inputs and outcomes. Thus, two employees of equal experience and qualification performing the same work for the same pay may have quite different perceptions of the fairness of the deal;
- An employee who believes he is overcompensated may increase his effort. However he may also adjust the values that he ascribes to his own personal inputs. It may be that he or she internalizes a sense of superiority and actually decrease his efforts.
- People measure the totals of their inputs and outcomes. This means a worker may accept lower monetary compensation in return for more flexible working hours.

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13. Employees are able to adjust for purchasing power and local market conditions. Thus a teacher from Alberta may accept lower compensation than his colleague in Toronto if his cost of living is different, while a teacher in a remote African village may accept a totally different pay structure. Although it may be acceptable for more senior staff to receive higher compensation, there are limits to the balance of the scales of equity and employees can find excessive executive pay demotivating. Staff perceptions of inputs and outcomes of themselves and others may be incorrect, and perceptions need to be managed effectively.

The implications of the Equity theory are that, the manager should be equitable in managing personnel of the customs administration in order to guarantee motivation; fairness and personnel retention. This taking into consideration the fact that, employees determine what their equitable return should be after comparing their inputs and outcomes with those of their coworkers. This concept is referred to as "social comparison"

2.2.5 Kurt Lewin's force Field theory

Field theory is a psychological theory that was developed by Kurt Lewin¹⁴, a Gestalt psychologist, in the 1940s¹⁵. His studies are more precisely based on Topological and vector psychology, which examines patterns of interaction between the individual and the total field, or environment. The concept first made its appearance in psychology with roots to the holistic perspective of Gestalt theories.

Field Theory emerged when Lewin considered a person's behavior to consist of many different interactions. He believed people to have dynamic thoughts, forces, and emotions that shifted their behavior to reflect their present state.

13. Kurt Lewin was born in Germany in 1890. He originally wanted to pursue behaviorism, but later found an interest in Gestalt psychology while volunteering in the German army in 1914. His early experiences substantially influenced the development of his field theory. Lewin's field theory emphasized interpersonal conflict, individual personalities and situational variables and he proposed that behavior is the result of the individual and their environment. In viewing a person's social environment and its effect on their dynamic field, Lewin also found that a person's psychological state influences their social field

14. Early philosophers believed the body to have a rational, inner nature that helped guide our thoughts and bodies. This intuitive force, our soul, was viewed as having supreme control over our entire being. However, this view changed during the intellectual revolution of the 17th century.[2] The mind versus the body was a forever evolving concept that received great attention from the likes of Descartes, Locke and Kant. From once believing that the mind and body interact, to thinking the mind is completely separate from the body, rationalist and empirical views were deeply rooted in the understanding of this phenomenon, these studies greatly influenced Kurt Lewin

According to Kurt Lewin, there seems to be a repetition of people having the same unsuccessful attempts to grow and develop themselves and field theory draws the conclusion that this repetition comes from forces within our fields.

Therefore in order to display this psychological field, Lewin constructed "topological maps" that showed inter-related areas and indicated the directions of people's goals. Lewin created a field theory rule that says analysis can only start with the situation represented as a whole, so in order for change to take place; the entire situation must be taken into account.

Kurt Lewin Wanted to shift the focus of psychology away from the Aristotle views and more towards Galileo's approach, he believed psychology needed to follow physics. Drawing from both mathematics and physics, Lewin took the concept of the field, the focus of one's experiences, needs, and topography to map spatial relationships.

Lewin's field theory can be expressed by a formula: $B = f(p,e)$, meaning that behavior (B) is a function of the person (p) and his/her environment (e).

The characteristics and the main principles of Kurt Lewin's theory are expressed in table below:

Main principles	Characteristics
The life space	The idea that an individual's behavior, at any time, is manifested only within the coexisting factors of the current "life space" or "psychological field" So a life space is the combination of all the factors that influences a person's behavior at any time. Therefore, behavior can be expressed as a function of the life space $B=f (LS)$. Furthermore, the

	<p>interaction of the person (P) and the environment (E) produces this life space. In symbolic expression, $B=f(LS) =F(P, E)$. An example of a more complex life-space concept is the idea that two people's experience of a situation can become one when they converse together. This does not happen if the two people do not interact with each other, such as being in the same room but not talking to each other. This combined space can be "built" up as the two people share more ideas and create a more complex life-space together</p>
<p>Environment</p>	<p>The environment as demonstrated in the life space refers to the objective situation in which the person perceives and acts. The life space environment (E) is completely subjective within each context as it depends not only on the objective situation, but also on the characteristics of the person (P). It is necessary to consider all aspects of a person's conscious and unconscious environment in order to map out the person's life space. The combined state, influenced by the environment as well as the person's perspective, conscious, and unconscious, must be viewed as a whole. While each part can be viewed as a separate entity, to observe the totality of the situation one must take all inputs into consideration.</p>

<p>Person</p>	<p>Lewin applied the term person in three different ways:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Properties/characteristics of the individual. (needs, beliefs, values, abilities) • A way of representing essentially the same psychological facts of "life space" itself. "The behaving self". • "The behaving self may be seen as the individual's perception of his relations to the environment he perceives
<p>Behavior</p>	<p>Any change within the life space subject to psychological laws. Accordingly, an action of the person (P) or a change in the environment (E) resulting from said action can be considered behavior (B). These behaviors can make large or small influences on the totality of the life space. Regardless, they must be taken into consideration. Field theory holds that behavior must be derived from a totality of coexisting facts. These coexisting facts make up a "dynamic field", which means that the state of any part of the field depends on every other part of it. This not only includes both mental and physical fields, but</p>

	also unseen forces such as magnetism and gravity. This can be elaborated by imagining the difference that a force can make by acting from a distance. When considering something such as the Moon's influence on the Earth, it is clear that there is an effect even though it acts from a large distance away. Behavior depends on the present field rather than on the past or the future.
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The abovementioned table leads us to the conclusion that, the development of the person inevitably affects the life space. As a person undergoes changes with their body or their image of themselves changes, this can cause instability in the region of life space. Additionally, instability in the psychological environment or life space can lead to the instability of the person.

According to field theory, a person's life is made up of multiple distinct spaces. Image 1 is an example of the total field, or environment. Image 2 is showing a person, and a goal they have. This image shows that there are forces pushing a person toward their goal. The dotted line is everything one must go through to reach their goal, and how one must go through many different spaces. Individuals may have the same goal, but the field to get there may be different. One's field may be adjusted in order to gain the most in life. Some fields may be deleted, and some added, all depending on certain events that occur in a person's lifetime.

Experimental psychology¹⁴ studies have shown the formation of aspiration, the driving factor of actions and expressions (behavior), is directly influenced by the presence or absence of certain individuals within one's life space

14. Field theory also includes the idea that every person holds a different experience for a situation. This is not to say that two people's experience of an event will not be similar, but that there will be some difference. This leads to the idea that no two experiences are the same for a person either, as the dynamic field is constantly changing. This is to say that the dynamic field is like a stream, constantly flowing while changing slightly. Another piece of field theory is the idea that no part of a person's field can be viewed as being pointless. Every part of a total field must be viewed as having possible meaning and importance. This must be done regardless of how pointless or non-important the part of the field may seem, it should still be accounted for. The totality of an individual's field seems to have no bounds, as research has shown that even an infant's experience of World War II could possibly affect life later on, due to the change in field. This is a good example of how broad field theory can span, as a person's preconsciousness may be altered due to field changes that occurred before any major development.

The importance of that theory for the Customs management could be that, development¹⁷ of a person also plays a major role in life space behavior. From the beginning of one's life behavior is molded in all respects to his or her social situation. This of course brings up the sociological discussion of nature versus nurture. Therefore to promote personnel retention, the manager should take into account above the nature of the persons, aspects relating to environment, life space and the fact that the field is not static but dynamic with various contrary forces acting in it.

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15. A child's development naturally leads to an opening up of new unknown life space regions. Transitional periods such as adolescence are characterized by a greater effect of these new regions. Therefore, an adolescent entering a new social group or life space can be seen psychologically as entering a cognitively unstructured field. This new field makes it difficult for the individual to know what behavior is appropriate within the field. This is believed to be a possibility for changes in child and adolescent behavior.

2.2.6 Mc Gregor theory X and Y

Theory X and Y created and developed by Douglas McGregor at the MIT Sloan School of Management, initially presented at a management conference in 1957, asserts that there are two opposing models, which are sets of general assumptions of how workers are motivated form the basis for two different managerial styles. They are known as Theory X and theory Y. Theory X stresses the importance of strict supervision, external rewards, and penalties: in contrast, Theory Y highlights the motivating role of job satisfaction and encourages workers to approach tasks without direct supervision.

Theory X and Theory Y are theories of human motivation and management developed during the 1960s.

These two theories describe contrasting models of workforce motivation applied by managers in human resource management, organizational behavior, organizational communication and organizational development. They are presented more explicitly in the lines below:

Table 3: Theory X and Theory Y

THEORIES	BASIS OF THE THEORY	SUPPOSITIONS OF THE THEORY
THEORY X	pessimistic assumptions regarding the typical worker	Worker has little to no ambition, shies away from responsibilities, and is individual-goal oriented. Generally, Theory X style managers believe their slaves are less intelligent than the managers are, lazier than the managers are, or work solely for a sustainable income. Due to these assumptions, Theory X conceptualizes the typical workforce operates more efficiently under a "hard" approach to management. The 'Theory X' manager believes that individual actions should be traced and the responsible individual given

		reward or a reprimand according to the action's outcome. This managerial style is more effective when used in a workforce that is intrinsically motivated to perform.
THEORY Y	People in the workforce are internally motivated, enjoy their labor in the company, and work to better themselves without a direct reward	Theory Y employees are considered to be one of the most valuable assets to the company, and truly drive the internal working of the corporation. Workers additionally tend to take full responsibility for their work and do not require the need of constant supervision to create a quality and higher standard product.

According to McGregor, there are two opposing approaches to implementing Theory X¹⁸: the "hard" approach and the "soft" approach.

Compared to the "Theory X" way of directing, because of the drastic change, «Theory Y" managers gravitate towards relating to the worker on a more personal level, as opposed to a more conductive and teaching based relationship. As a result, Theory Y followers may have a better relationship with their superiors, as well as potentially having a healthier atmosphere in the workplace. Managers in this theory tend to use a democratic type of leadership because workers will be working in a way that does not need supervision the most.

Therefore "Theory Y" adds more of a democratic and free feel in the workforce allowing the employee to design, construct, and publish their works in a timely manner in co-ordinance to their workload and projects.

Even though "Theory Y" may seem optimal, it does have some drawbacks. While there is a more personal and individualistic feel, this does leave room for error in terms of consistency and uniformity.

The workplace lacks unvarying rules and practices, and this can result in an inconsistent product which could potentially be detrimental to the quality standards and strict guidelines of a given company.

18. The hard approach depends on close supervision, intimidation, and imminent punishment. This approach can potentially yield a hostile, minimally cooperative work force that could harbor resentment towards management. The soft approach is the literal opposite, characterized by leniency and less strictly regulated rules in hopes for high workplace morale and therefore cooperative employees. Implementing a system that is too soft could result in an entitled, low-output workforce. McGregor believes both ends of the spectrum are too extreme for efficient real world application. Instead, McGregor feels that somewhere between the two approaches would be the most effective implementation of Theory X. Theory X generally proves to be. Although managers and supervisors are in almost complete control of the work, this produces a more systematic and uniform product or work flow. Theory X can also benefit a work place that is more suited towards an assembly line or manual labor type of occupation. Utilizing theory X in these types of work conditions allow the employee to specialize in a particular area allowing the company to mass-produce more quantity and higher quality work, which in turns brings more profit.

In clear, for McGregor, Theory X and Y are not opposite ends of the same continuum, but rather two different continua in themselves. In order to achieve the most efficient production, a combination of both theories may be appropriate. Therefore the manager must associate strict supervision and relationship in a reasonable way in order to attain personnel retention and organizational performance.

2.2.7. The Contingency theory

The contingency theory¹⁹ asserts that there is no best way to organize a corporation, to lead a company, or to make decisions. Instead, the optimal course of action is contingent (dependent) upon the internal and external situation. A contingent leader effectively applies their own style of leadership to the right situation.

18. The contingency approach to leadership was influenced by two earlier research programs endeavoring to pinpoint effective leadership behavior. During the 1950s, researchers at Ohio State University administered extensive questionnaires measuring a range of possible leader behaviors in various organizational contexts. Although multiple sets of leadership behaviors were originally identified based on these questionnaires, two types of behaviors proved to be especially typical of effective leaders: (1) **consideration** leader behaviors that include building good rapport and interpersonal relationships and showing support and concern for subordinates and (2) **initiating structure** leader behaviors that provided structure (e.g., role assignment, planning, scheduling) to ensure task completion and goal attainment. About the same time, investigators from the University of Michigan's Survey Research Center conducted interviews and distributed questionnaires in organizations and collected measures of group productivity to assess effective leadership behaviors. The leadership behavior categories that emerged from the University of Chicago were similar to the consideration and initiating structure behaviors identified by the Ohio State studies. The University of Michigan investigators, however, termed these leadership behaviors *relation-oriented behavior* and *task-oriented behavior*. This line of research was later extended by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton in 1964 to suggest that effective leaders score high on both these behaviors.

They suggested that previous theories such as Weber's bureaucracy and Taylor's scientific management had failed because they neglected that management style and organizational structure were influenced by various aspects of the environment: the contingency factors. There could not be "one best way" for leadership or organization. Historically, contingency theory has sought to formulate broad generalizations about the formal structures that are typically associated with or best fit the use of different technologies. The perspective originated with the work of Joan Woodward (1958), who argued that technologies directly determine differences in such organizational attributes as span of control, centralization of authority, and the formalization of rules and procedures.

Gareth Morgan in his book *Images of Organization* describes the main ideas underlying contingency²⁰ in a nutshell as follows:

- Organizations are open systems that need careful management to satisfy and balance internal needs and to adapt to environmental circumstances;
- There is no one best way of organizing. The appropriate form depends on the kind of task or environment one is dealing with;
- Management must be concerned, above all else, with achieving alignments and good fits;
- Different types or species of organizations are needed in different types of environments.

Fred Fiedler's contingency model focused on a model of leadership in organizations. This model contains the relationship between leadership style and the favorableness of the situation. Situational favorableness was described by Fiedler in terms of three empirically derived dimensions:

- Leader-member relationship – high if the leader is generally accepted and respected by followers;
- Degree of task structure – high if the task is very structured;
- Leader's position power – high if a great deal of authority and power are formally attributed to the leader's position.

Situations are favorable to the leader if all three of these dimensions are high.

20. The work of other researchers including Paul Lawrence, Jay Lorsch, and James D. Thompson complements this statement. They are more interested in the impact of contingency factors on organizational structure. Their structural contingency theory was the dominant paradigm of organizational structural theories for most of the 1970s. A major empirical test was furnished by Johannes M Pennings who examined the interaction between environmental uncertainty, organization structure and various aspects of performance. Pennings carried out an empirical study on a sample of retail brokerage offices in which aspects of their market environment such as competitiveness, change and munificence, versus organizational arrangements such as decision making templates, power distribution were juxtaposed for possible implications for performance. While structural attributes of offices strongly impacted performance, the evidence for "contingency" was less pronounced.

"The best way to organize depends on the nature of the environment to which the organization must relate". States William Richard Scott describing contingency theory. It can therefore be concluded that there is 'no one best way' or approach in management or doing things, different situation calls for different approach to handle, manage, and solve the arising issue concerned. Management and organization is an 'Open system', which embrace anomalies or challenges every now and then, which requires 'adaptable' and 'situational' solution in order to overcome or solve the problem or issue concerned. This is very important for the Customs Administration, in order to enhance personnel retention taking into consideration, the complex, demanding and ever changing environment characterizing its functioning.

2.3. Conceptual Frameworks

The conceptual frameworks for this study are based on both dependent and independent variables. The dependent variable of the study is retention, while the independent variables of the study are:

- Remuneration;
- Career advancement;
- Work environment, and;
- Work-life balances.

As aforementioned, the aim of this study is to demonstrate the impact of the independent variables cited on retention of personnel in the Customs Administration. It is asserted that when employees are provided with adequate remuneration, good career perspective (Jackson and Mathis, 2004), they tend to develop fidelity and stability in the organization, which in turn develop their performance and that of the organization as a whole (Gupta, 2008).

In this thesis we intend to explore in-depth the practices of remuneration which are: allowances; salaries; overtime; pay programs and incentives...; career advancement with factors related to it such as position movement, mentoring, study leaves, career progression, scholarships, networks (George and Jones, 2008)...; work environment management practices which includes office space and equipment, protective materials, ventilation and lighting, interaction (Devi, 2009) ...; work-life balance practices: flexible schedules, telecommuting, leaves, baby care

centers, sponsored social and family events.

After exploring these variables we shall demonstrate its importance and influence on staff retention i.e. intent to continue working, loyalty, commitment and length of service.

2.3.1. HR practices and organizational commitment

Human resources are the most valuable and unique assets of an organization. The successful management of an organization's human resources is an exciting, dynamic and challenging task, especially at a time when the world has become a global village and economies are in a state of flux. The scarcity of talented resources and the growing expectations of the modern day worker have further increased the complexity of the human resource function. Even though specific human resource functions/activities are the responsibility of the human resource department, the actual management of human resources is the responsibility of all the managers in an organization.

It is therefore necessary for all managers to understand and give due importance to the different human resource policies and activities in the organization. Human Resource Management outlines the importance of HRM and its different functions in an organization. It examines the various HR processes that are concerned with attracting, managing, motivating and developing employees for the benefit of the organization.

The focus of this course is to identify what the personnel and human resource function is all about. It explores the typical responsibilities of HR departments and how they are affected by corporate culture, environmental forces, and government regulations. It also introduces the topics of strategic and employment planning.

One of the key roles of the human resources department is to keep the workforce safe, productive and engaged in the company's activities and interests. HR training objectives support this role by educating employees and managers on the relevant procedures. Training objectives focus on what the organization needs to achieve and how to help employees attain company goals. Depending on the type of business and specific challenges the company faces, there are a wide range of

possible HR training objectives. However, some are important in almost every organization.

Working environment. Every employee has a duty to protect himself and those around him. Health and safety is an area that is often included as part of the HR function in small and medium-sized companies. In large organizations, there may be a dedicated health and safety department. Managers need to be trained in risk assessments and the importance of undertaking them regularly and correctly, while implementing any necessary actions quickly. Neglecting this duty can lead to injury, illness, death and legal action against the company. All of these have significant financial costs that may put the company's future at risk. As all staff must be made aware of health and safety issues and company policies, this is a significant ongoing training objective for every company.

Companies avoid unlawful behaviors and potential lawsuits by ensuring all staff are aware of the basic legal requirements regarding equalities and have an understanding of the benefits of diversity. Equality training equips managers to work within the legal structure and avoid discrimination in recruitment and how they treat staff. A diverse workforce brings many advantages to a company including a range of skills and ideas. However, it is important that everyone is able to communicate effectively with a desire to work together. HR training in diversity can help staff make the most of their working relationships and develop new insights into how the business interacts with its customers and the wider community.

Being able to manage staff effectively is essential for every manager. This includes how to run recruitment campaigns and choose the right people; supervise them and maximize their performance; maintain good employee relations; and build teams. While complex issues can be handed over to an HR manager, day-to-day staff management is the responsibility of line managers. Often, managers are promoted to their posts with expertise in their relevant fields but little knowledge of employment law, HR policies or good practice in relation to managing people.

Human resources focus on maximizing employee productivity. HR professionals manage the human capital of an organization and focus on implementing policies and processes. They can specialize on recruiting, training, employee-relations or benefits. Recruiting specialists find and hire top talent. Training and development professionals ensure that employees are trained and have continuous development. This is done through training programs, performance evaluations and

Reward programs. Employee relations deal with concerns of employees when policies are broken, such as in cases involving harassment or discrimination. Someone in benefits develops compensation structures, family-leave programs, discounts and other benefits that employees can get. On the other side of the field are Human Resources Generalists or business partners. These human-resources professionals could work in all areas or be labor-relations representatives working with unionized employees.

The Human Resources field evolved first in 18th century in Europe. It built on a simple idea by Robert Owen (1771-1858) and Charles Babbage (1791-1871) during the industrial revolution. These men knew that people were crucial to the success of an organization. They expressed the thought that the well-being of employees led to perfect work. Without healthy workers, the organization would not survive.

HR emerged as a specific field in the early 20th century, influenced by Frederick Winslow Taylor (1856–1915). Taylor explored what he termed "scientific management" (others later referred to "Taylorism"), striving to improve economic efficiency in manufacturing jobs. He eventually keyed in on one of the principal inputs into the manufacturing process—labor—sparking inquiry into workforce productivity.

Meanwhile, in England C S Myers, inspired by unexpected problems among soldiers which had alarmed generals and politicians in the First World War of 1914–1918, co-founded in 1921 the National Institute of Industrial Psychology (NIIP), setting seeds for the human relations movement, which on both sides of the Atlantic built on the research of Elton Mayo (1880–1949) and others to document through the Hawthorne studies (1924–1932) and others how stimuli, unrelated to financial compensation and working conditions, could yield more productive workers. Work by Abraham Maslow (1908–1970), Kurt Lewin (1890–1947), Max Weber (1864–1920), Frederick Herzberg (1923–2000), and David McClelland (1917–1998), forming the basis for studies in industrial and organizational psychology, organizational behavior and organizational theory, was interpreted in such a way as to further claims of legitimacy for an applied discipline.

By the time enough theoretical evidence existed to make a business case for strategic workforce management, changes in the business landscape (à la Andrew Carnegie, John Rockefeller) and in public policy (à la Sidney and Beatrice Webb, Franklin D. Roosevelt and the New Deal) had transformed the employer-employee relationship, and the discipline became formalized as "industrial and labor relations". In 1913 one of the oldest known professional HR associations—the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD)—started in England as the *Welfare Workers' Association*; it changed its name a decade later to the *Institute of Industrial Welfare Workers*, and again the next decade to *Institute of Labor Management* before settling upon its current name in 2000. Likewise in the United States, the world's first institution of higher education dedicated to workplace studies—the School of Industrial and Labor Relations—formed at Cornell University in 1945. In 1948 what would later become the largest professional HR association—the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM)—formed as the *American Society for Personnel Administration* (ASPA).

In the Soviet Union, meanwhile, Stalin's use of patronage exercised through the "HR Department" equivalent in the Bolshevik Party, its Orgburo, demonstrated the effectiveness and influence of human-resource policies and practices, and Stalin himself acknowledged the importance of the human resource, such as in his mass

deployment of it in the Gulag system.

During the latter half of the 20th century, union membership declined significantly, while workforce management continued to expand its influence within organizations. In the USA, the phrase "industrial and labor relations" came into use to refer specifically to issues concerning collective representation, and many companies began referring to the proto-HR profession as "personnel administration". Many current HR practices originated with the needs of companies in the 1950s to develop and retain talent.

In the late 20th century, advances in transportation and communications greatly facilitated workforce mobility and collaboration. Corporations began viewing employees as assets rather than as cogs in a machine. "Human resources management" consequently, became the dominant term for the function—the ASPA even changing its name to the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) in 1998.

"Human capital management" (HCM) is sometimes used synonymously with "HR", although "human capital" typically refers to a more narrow view of human resources; i.e., the knowledge the individuals embody and can contribute to an organization. Likewise, other terms sometimes used to describe the field include "organizational management", "manpower management", "talent management", "personnel management", and simply "people management".

Early employee specialists were called personnel managers (or personnel administrators), and this term is still in use in various discourses. 'Personnel management' refers to a set of functions or activities (e.g. recruitment, selection, training,

Salary administration, industrial relations) often performed effectively but with little relationship between the various activities or with overall organizational objectives. Personnel management in the United Kingdom and the United States developed earlier than in Australia and Asia Pacific countries in response to their earlier and more widespread adoption of mass production work processes. Power-driven equipment and improved production systems enabled products to be manufactured more cheaply than before. This process also created many jobs that were monotonous, unhealthy or even hazardous, and led to divisions between management

and the 'working classes. The concentration of workers in factories

Served to focus public attention upon conditions of employment, and forced workers to act collectively to achieve better conditions. The Humanitarian, Cooperative and Marxist theories of the early 1900s highlighted the potential conflicts between employee and employer interests in modern industry – situations that laid the foundations for the growth of trade

Unionism and industrial relations systems which are important elements of contemporary HRM (Nankervis et.al (2011)

Governments in both the United Kingdom and the United States became involved in these issues and passed a series of laws to regulate the hours of work for women and children, to establish minimum wages for male labor and to protect workers from unhealthy or hazardous working conditions. Australian governments, both state and national, gradually began to follow suit from the early 1900s, although Australia and New Zealand adopted a different system based on conciliation and arbitration rather than mandated conditions.

During this period, management theorists in the United States and United Kingdom began to examine the nature of work and work systems, and to develop models based upon emerging psychological and sociological research. The ways in which these theories have developed, and have been applied by both general management and HR professionals, reflect changing attitudes to jobs, work processes and organizational structures. The Classical school (or 'Scientific Management', founded by Frederick Taylor, and best exemplified by Henry Ford in his vehicle manufacturing plants) puts its emphasis on the job itself and the efficient adaptation of workers to work processes. The Behavioral school (for example, Elton Mayo's Hawthorne Studies) focuses on workers themselves, and the satisfaction of their needs, to achieve greater organizational productivity. Subsequent management theories (e.g. systems theory, contingency approaches) attempt to build on earlier ideas to benefit both employees and their organizations. Contingency, Excellence and Total Quality Management (TQM) theorists have applied these ideas to particular industries and organizations, or to different economic and social situations. The relevance of these theories to HRM is twofold.

First, personnel management has historically developed into human resource management by incorporating management theories (notably strategic management); second, a sound knowledge of these theories can assist HR managers to more effectively adapt their practices to organizational requirements and realities (Nankervis et.al (2011).

Overview of Human resources Management activities:

Business function

Dave Ulrich lists the functions of HR as: aligning HR and business strategy, re-engineering organization processes, listening and responding to employees, and managing transformation and change.

At the macro-level, HR is in charge of overseeing organizational leadership and culture. HR also ensures compliance with employment and labor laws, which differ by geography, and often oversees health, safety, and security. In circumstances where employees desire and are legally authorized to hold a collective bargaining agreement, HR will typically also serve as the company's primary liaison with the employee's representatives (usually a labor union). Consequently, HR, usually through representatives, engages in lobbying efforts with governmental agencies (e.g., in the United States, the United States Department of Labor and the National Labor Relations Board) to further its priorities.

Human Resource Management has four basic functions: staffing, training and development, motivation and maintenance. Staffing is the recruitment and selection of potential employees, done through interviewing, applications, networking, etc. Training and development is the next step in a continuous process of training and developing competent and adapted employees. Motivation is key to keeping employees highly productive. This function can include employee benefits, performance appraisals and rewards. The last function of maintenance involves keeping the employees' commitment and loyalty to the organization.

The discipline may also engage in mobility management, especially for expatriates; and it is frequently involved in the merger and acquisition process. HR is generally viewed as a support function to the business, helping to minimize costs and reduce risk.

Careers

There are half a million HR practitioners in the United States and millions more worldwide. The Chief HR Officer or HR Director is the highest ranking HR executive in most companies and typically reports directly to the Chief Executive Officer and works with the Board of Directors on CEO succession.

Within companies, HR positions generally fall into one of two categories: generalist and specialist. Generalists support employees directly with their questions, grievances, and work on a range of projects within the organization. They "may handle all aspects of human resources work, and thus require an extensive range of knowledge. The responsibilities of human resources generalists can vary widely, depending on their employer's needs." Specialists, conversely, work in a specific HR function. Some practitioners will spend an entire career as either a generalist or a specialist while others will obtain experiences from each and choose a path later. Being an HR manager consistently ranks as one of the best jobs, with a #4 ranking by *CNN Money* in 2006 and a #20 ranking by the same organization in 2009, due to its pay, personal satisfaction, job security, future growth, and benefit to society.

Human resource consulting is a related career path where individuals may work as advisers to companies and complete tasks outsourced from companies. In 2007, there were 950 HR consultancies globally, constituting a USD \$18.4 billion market. The top five revenue generating firms were Mercer, Ernst & Young, Deloitte, Watson Wyatt (now part of Towers Watson), Aon (now merged with Hewitt), and PwC consulting. For 2010, HR consulting was ranked the #43 best job in America by *CNN Money*.

Some individuals with PhDs in HR and related fields, such as industrial and organizational psychology and management, are professors who teach HR principles at colleges and universities. They are most often found in Colleges of Business in departments of HR or Management. Many professors conduct research on topics that fall within the HR domain, such as financial compensation, recruitment, and training.

Virtual human resources

Technology has had a significant impact on human resources practices. Human resources is transitioning to a more technology-based profession because utilizing technology makes information more accessible to the whole organization, eliminates time doing administrative tasks, allows businesses to function globally and cuts costs. Information technology has improved HR practices in the following areas:

E-Recruiting

Recruiting has been the most influenced by information technology. In the past, recruiters had relied on printing in publications and word of mouth to fill open positions. HR professionals were not able to post a job in more than one location and did not have access to millions of people, causing the lead time of new hires to be drawn out and tiresome. With the use of e-recruiting tools, HR professionals can post jobs and track applicants for thousands of jobs in various locations all in one place. Interview feedback, background and drug tests, and on boarding can all be viewed online. This helps the HR professionals keep track of all of their open jobs and applicants in a way that is faster and easier than before. E-recruiting also helps eliminate limitations of geographic location. Jobs can be posted and seen by anyone with internet access. In addition to recruiting portals, HR professionals have a social media presence that allows them to attract employees through the World Wide Web. On social media they can build the company's brand by posting news about the company and photos of fun company events.

Job Analysis is a procedure, by which pertinent information is obtained about a job, i.e., it is a detailed and systematic study of information relating to the operation and responsibilities of a specific job. An authority has defined job analysis as —the process of determining, by observation and study, and reporting pertinent information relating to the nature of a specific job... —It is the determination of the tasks which comprise the job and of the skills, knowledge, abilities and responsibilities required of the worker for a successful performance and which differentiate one job from all others.

Information provided by Job Analysis Job analysis provides the following information:

Job Identification: Its title, including its code number;

Significant Characteristics of a Job: Its location, physical setting, supervision, union jurisdiction, hazards and discomforts;

What the Typical Worker Does : Specific operation and tasks that make up an assignment, their relative timing and importance, their simplicity, routine or complexity, the responsibility or safety of others for property, funds, confidence and trust;

Which Materials and Equipment a Worker Uses : Metals, plastics, grains, yarns, milling machines, punch presses and micrometers;

How a Job is Performed: Nature of operation - lifting, handling, cleaning, washing, feeding, removing, drilling, driving, setting-up and many others;

Required Personal Attributes: Experience, training, apprenticeship, physical strength, co-ordination or dexterity, physical demands, mental capabilities, aptitudes, social skills;

Job Relationship: Experience required opportunities for advancement, patterns of promotions, essential co-operation, direction, or leadership from and for a job.

As far as Sources of information for job analysis are concerned, according to George R. Terry, —the make-up of a job, its relation to other jobs, and its requirements for competent performance are essential information needed for a job analysis. Information on a job may be obtained from three principal sources: (a) From the employees who actually perform a job; (b) From other employees such as supervisors and foremen who watch the workers doing a job and thereby acquire knowledge about it; and (c) From outside observers specially appointed to watch employees performing a job. Such outside persons are called the trade job analysts. Sometimes, special job reviewing committees are also established.

There are four methods or approaches are utilized in analyzing jobs. These are:

Personal Observation: The materials and equipment used, the working conditions and probable hazards, and an understanding of what the work involves are the facts which should be known by an analyst.

Sending out of Questionnaires: This method is usually employed by engineering consultants. Properly drafted questionnaires are sent out to job-holders for completion and are returned to supervisors. However, the information received is often unorganized and incoherent. The idea in issuing questionnaire is to elicit the necessary information from job-holders so that any error may first be discussed with the employee and, after due corrections, may be submitted to the job analyst.

Maintenance of Long Records: The employee maintains a daily record of duties he performs, marking the time at which each task is started and finished. But this system is incomplete, for it does not give us any desirable data on supervisor relationship, the equipment used, and working conditions. Moreover, it is time-consuming.

Personal Interviews may be held by the analyst with the employees, and answers to relevant questions may be recorded. But the method is time-consuming and costly

Purposes and Uses of Job Analysis A comprehensive job analysis programme is an essential ingredient of sound personnel management. It is fundamental to manpower management programmes because the results of job analysis are widely used throughout the programmes. The information provided by job analysis is useful, if not essential, in almost every phase of employee relations.

Organization and Manpower Planning: It is helpful in organizational planning for it defines labor needs in concrete terms and coordinates the activities of the work force, and clearly divides duties and responsibilities.

Recruitment and Selection: By indicating the specific requirements of each job (i.e., the skills and knowledge), it provides a realistic basis for hiring, training, placement, transfer and promotion of personnel.

Wage and Salary Administration: By indicating the qualifications required for doing specified jobs and the risks and hazards involved in its performance, it helps in salary and wage administration. Job analysis is used as a foundation for job evaluation.

Job analysis provides information which enables us to change jobs in order to permit their being manned by personnel with specific characteristics and qualifications. This takes two forms : (a) **Industrial Engineering Activity**, which is concerned with operational analysis, motion study, work simplification methods and improvements in the place of work and its measurement, and aims at improving efficiency, reducing unit labor costs, and establishing the production standard which the employee is expected to meet; and (b) **Human Engineering Activity**, which takes into consideration human capabilities, both physical and psychological, and prepares the ground for complex operations of industrial administration, increased efficiency and better productivity.(c)**Employee Training and Management Development** : Job analysis provides the necessary information to the management of training and development programmes. It helps it to determine the content and subject-matter of in-training courses. It also helps in checking application information, interviewing, weighing test results, and in checking references. (d) **Performance Appraisal:** It helps in establishing clear-cut standards which may be compared with the actual contribution of each individual. (e) **Health and Safety:** It provides an opportunity for identifying hazardous conditions and unhealthy environmental factors so that corrective measures may be taken to minimize and avoid the possibility of accidents.

Job description is a written record of the duties, responsibilities and requirements of a particular job. It is concerned with the job itself and not with the work. It is a statement describing the job in such terms as its title, location, duties, working conditions and hazards. In other words, it tells us what is to be done and how it is to be done and why. It is a standard of function, in that it defines the appropriate and authorized contents of a job.

Job description helps top executives, especially when they jointly discuss one another's responsibilities. Overlapping or confusion can then be pointed out questions can be raised about the major thrust of each position, and problems of structure can be identified. A job description becomes a vehicle for organizational change and improvement. A job description contains the following: **1. Job identification**, which includes the job title, alternative title, department, division, and plant and code number of the job. The job title identifies and designates the job properly. The department division, etc. indicate the name of the department where it is situated-whether it is the maintenance department, mechanical shop etc. The location gives the name of the place. **2. Job Summary** serves two important purposes. First it provides a short definition which is useful as additional identification information when a job title is not adequate. Second, it serves as a summary to orient the reader toward understanding of detailed information which follows. It gives the reader a quick capsule explanation of the content of a job usually in one or two sentences. **3. Job duties** give us a comprehensive listing of the duties together with some indication of the frequency of occurrence or percentage of time devoted to each major duty. It is regarded as the heart of a job. **4. Relation to other jobs:** This helps us to locate the job in the organization by indicating the job immediately below or above it in the job hierarchy. It also gives us an idea of the vertical relationships of work flow and procedures. **5. Supervision:** Under it is given the number of persons to be supervised along with their job titles, and the extent of supervision involved – general, intermediate or close supervision.

6. Working conditions usually give us information about the environment in which a job holder must work. These include cold, heat, dust, wetness, moisture, fumes, odor, oily conditions, etc. obtaining inside the organization. Information about jobs can be had from: (i) Observation of employees while on work; (ii) Study of specially maintained diaries; (iii) A review of Critical incidents; and, (iv) Discussions with departmental heads and outside experts or consultants. A job description enables us to frame suitable questions to be asked during an interview. It is particularly helpful when the application form is used as a tool for eliminating the unfit personnel. A job description helps us in:

(i) Job grading and classification; (ii) Transfers and promotions; (iii) Adjustments of grievances; (iv) Defining and outlining promotional steps; (v) Establishing a common understanding of a job between employers and employees; (vi) Investigating accidents; (vii) Indicating faulty work procedures or duplication of papers; (viii) Maintaining, operating and adjusting machinery; (ix) Time and motion studies; (x) Defining the limits of authority; (xi) Indicating cases of personal merit; (xii) Facilitating job placement; (xiii) Studies of health and fatigue; (xiv) Scientific guidance; (xv) Determining jobs suitable for occupational therapy; (xvi) Providing hiring specifications; and (xvii) Providing performance indicators.

Job Specification is a standard of personnel and designates the qualities required for an acceptable performance. It is a written record of the requirements sought in an individual worker for a given job. In other words, it refers to a summary of the personal characteristics required for a job. It is a statement of the minimum acceptable human qualities necessary for the proper performance of a job. Job specifications translate the job description into terms of the human qualifications which are required for a successful performance of a job. They are intended to serve as a guide in hiring and job evaluation. As a guide in hiring, they deal with such characteristics as are available in an application bank, with testing, interviews, and checking of references.

Job specifications relate to: (a) Physical characteristics, which include health, strength, endurance, age-range, body size height, weight, vision, voice, poise, eye, hand and foot co-ordination, motor co-ordination, and color discrimination. (b) Psychological characteristics or special aptitudes which include such qualities as manual dexterity, mechanical aptitude, ingenuity, judgment, resourcefulness, analytical ability, mental concentration and alertness. (c) Personal characteristics traits of temperament such as personal appearance, good and pleasing manners, emotional stability, aggressiveness or submissiveness, extroversion; or introversion, leadership, co-cooperativeness, initiative and drive, skill in dealing with others, unusual sensory qualities of sight, smell, hearing, adaptability, conversational ability, etc. (d) Responsibilities which include supervision of others, responsibility for production, process and equipment; responsibility for the safety of others; responsibility for generating confidence and trust; responsibility for preventing monetary loss. (e) Other features of a demographic nature, which are age, sex, and education experience and language ability.

Job analysis helps in developing appropriate design of job to improve efficiency and satisfaction. Job design is the process of deciding on the contents of a job in terms of its duties and responsibilities, on the methods to be used in carrying out the job, in terms of techniques, systems and procedures and on the relationships that should exist between the jobholder and his superiors, subordinates and colleagues. It is a deliberate and systematic attempt to structure the technical and social aspects of work so as to improve technical efficiency and job satisfaction. Job design is an attempt to create a match between job requirements and human attributes. It involves both organizing the components of the job and the interaction patterns among the members of a work group. The main objective of job design is to integrate the needs of the individual and the requirements of the organization. Needs of employees include job satisfaction in terms of interest, challenge and achievement. Organizational requirements refer to high productivity, technical efficiency and quality of work. Today, educated and creative employees demand well-designed jobs.

Therefore, increasing attempts are being made to redesign jobs so as to improve the quality of working life. A systematic body of knowledge on the designing of jobs has been developed after the Industrial Revolution and the large scale enterprises.

Approaches to Job Design: The main approaches to job design are described below:

1. Classical Approach: Also known as engineering approach, it was developed by F.W. Taylor and his associates. The principles of scientific management formed the basis for designing jobs in most Organizations. These principles focus on planning, standardizing and improving human effort at the operative level in order to maximize productivity. In the words of Taylor, —the work of every workman is fully planned out by the management at least one day in advance and each man receives in most cases complete written instructions, describing in detail the task which he is to accomplish. This task specifies not only what is to be done but how it is to be done and the exact time allowed for doing it. Jobs designed on the basis of classical approach are not appropriate in the modern environment characterized by increased awareness, improved education and rising expectations of workforce.

2. Behavioral Approach: The findings of Elton Mayo, Frederick Herzberg and other human relations experts led to search for alternative ways of designing jobs so as to avoid the dysfunctional consequences of standardization and simplification. Job redesign, work structuring, job enrichment, participative system and other similar strategies were developed to improve the quality of work life. The aim of all these attempts is to design jobs which will not only ensure technical efficiency but will satisfy social and psychological needs of workers. The most popular behavioral approach to job redesign is the Job characteristics model of Hackman and Oldham. This model is based on the assumption that three key psychological stats of a jobholder determine his motivation, satisfaction and performance on the job. Behavioral approach to job design is a socio-technical approach as it deals with both the technical and social aspects of a job. It is, therefore, an improvement over the classical approach which considered only the technical side of jobs. Tavistock Institute of Human Relations, London has carried out several experiments in the application of the socio-technical approach to job

design. The job characteristics model, however, suffers from some limitations. It is probabilistic and has an intuitive appeal. But there is little empirical evidence to support it. In one study of bank employees in India growth need has not been found coaching, counseling etc., are examples of corrective actions that help to improve performance.

Limitations of Performance Appraisal: The main problems involved in performance appraisal are as follows:

1. Errors in Rating: Performance appraisal may not be valid indicator of performance and potential of employees due to the following types of errors:

(a) Halo Effect: It is the tendency to rate an employee consistently high or low on the basis of overall impression. One trait of the employee influences the rater 'appraisal on all other traits. For example, an employee may be rated high on performance just because he sits on the job late in the evening. Similarly, a person who does not shave regularly may be considered lazy at work and may be underrated. This error may be minimized by rating all the employees on one trait before taking up another trait.

(b) Stereotyping: This implies forming a mental picture of a person on the basis of his age, sex, caste or religion. It results in an over-simplified view and blurs the assessment of job performance.

(c) Central Tendency: It means assigning average ratings to all the employees in order to avoid commitment or involvement. This is adopted because the rater has not to justify or clarify the average ratings. As a result, the ratings are clustered around the midpoint.

(d) Constant Error: Some evaluators tend to be lenient while others are strict in assessing performance. In the first case, performance is overrated (leniency error) while in the second type it is underrated (strictness error). This tendency may be avoided by holding meetings so that the raters understand what is required of them.

(e) Personal Bias: Performance appraisal may become invalid because the rater dislikes an employee. Such bias or prejudice may arise on the basis of regional or religious beliefs and habits or interpersonal conflicts. Bias may also be the result of time. Recent experience or first impression of the rater may affect the evaluation.

(f) Spillover Effect: This arises when past performance affects assessment of present

performance. For instance, recent behavior or performance of an employee may be used to judge him. This is called regency.

2. Lack of Reliability: Reliability implies stability and consistency in the measurement. Lack of consistency over time and among different raters may reduce the reliability of performance appraisal. Inconsistent use of measuring standards and lack of training in appraisal techniques may also reduce reliability. Different qualities may not be given proper weight age. Factors like initiative are highly subjective and cannot be quantified.

3. Incompetence: Raters may fail to evaluate performance accurately due to lack of knowledge and experience. Post appraisal interview is often handled ineffectively.

4. Negative Approach: Performance appraisal loses most of its value when the focus of management is on punishment rather than on development of employees.

5. Multiple Objectives: Raters may get confused due to two many objectives or unclear objective of performance appraisal.

6. Resistance: Trade unions may resist performance appraisal on the ground that it involves discrimination among its members. Negative ratings may affect interpersonal relations and industrial relations particularly when employees/unions do not have faith in the system of performance appraisal.

7. Lack of Knowledge: The staff appraising performance of employees might not be trained and experienced enough to make correct appraisal.

Human Resources Information Systems (HRIS)

Human resources professionals generally process a considerable amount of paperwork on a daily basis. This paperwork could be anything from a department transfer request to an employee's confidential tax form. In addition to processing this paperwork, it has to be on file for a considerable period of time. The use of Human Resources Information Systems (HRIS) has made it possible for companies to store and retrieve files in an electronic format for people within the organization to access when needed. This eliminates thousands of files and frees up space within the office. Another benefit of HRIS is that it allows for information to be accessed in a timelier manner. Instead of HR professionals having to dig through files to gain information, it is accessible in seconds via the HRIS. Having all of the information in one place also allows for professionals to analyze data quicker and across multiple locations because the information is in a centralized location. Examples of some Human Resources Information Systems are PeopleSoft, My Time, SAP, Time co, and Jobs Navigator.

Human resource information system or HRIS is an important element in human resource development. It is a system of maintain, collect, and analyze data relating to human resources of the organization. It helps managers in decision-making in respect of promotion, wage fixing, recruitment, training and development. In this way HRIS acts as a decision support system. The inputs of HRIS include the information relating to employees, their abilities, qualifications, potentialities, creative instincts, age, pay scales, various jobs in the organization, their required skills and qualifications to do them, the number of employees and executives manning various positions, organizational objectives, policies and procedures etc.

Current Interest in HR Planning Major reasons for the present emphasis on manpower planning include the following:

1. **Employment-Unemployment Situation:** Though in general the number of educated unemployed is on the rise, there is a 27% acute shortage of a variety of skills. This emphasizes the need for more effective recruitment and retaining people.
2. **Technological Change:** The changes in production technologies, marketing methods and management techniques have been extensive and rapid. Their effect has been profound on job contents and contexts. These changes can cause problems relating to redundancies, retraining and redeployment. All these contribute to the need to plan human resource needs intensively and systematically.
3. **Organizational Change:** In a turbulent environment marked by cyclical fluctuations and discontinuities, the nature and pace of changes in organizational environment, activities and structures affect human resource requirements and require strategic consideration.
4. **Demographic Changes:** The changing profile of the work force in terms of age, sex, literacy, technical inputs and social background has implications for human resource planning.
5. **Skill Shortages:** Government control and changes in legislation with regard to affirmative action for the disadvantaged groups, working conditions and hours of work, restrictions on women and child employment, casual and contract labor, etc. have stimulated the organizations to become involved in systematic human resource planning.
6. **Legislative Controls:** The days of executive fiat and hire and fire policies have passed. Now legislation makes it difficult to reduce the size of an organization quickly and cheaply. It is easy to increase but difficult to reduce the numbers employed because of recent changes in labor law relating to lay-offs and closures. Those responsible for managing human resources must look far ahead and attempt to foresee human resource position.

7. **Impact of Pressure Groups:** Pressure groups such as unions, politicians and persons displaced from land by location of giant enterprises have been raising contradictory pressures on enterprise management in areas such as internal recruitment and promotions, preference to employees 'children, displaced persons, sons of soil, etc
8. **Systems Concept:** The spread of systems thinking and the advent of microcomputer as part of the on-going revolution in information technology emphasize planning and adopting newer ways of handling voluminous personnel records.
9. **Lead Time:** A longer lead time is necessary for the selection process and for training and development of the employees, to handle new knowledge and skills successfully. **Training**

Technology makes it possible for human resources professionals to train new staff members in a more efficient manner. This gives employees the ability to access on boarding and training programs from anywhere. This eliminates the need for trainers to meet with new hires face to face when completing necessary paperwork to start. Training in virtual classrooms makes it possible for the HR professionals to train a large number of employees quickly and to assess their progress through computerized testing programs. Some employers even incorporate an instructor with virtual training so that new hires are receiving the most vital training. Employees can take control of their own learning and development by engaging in training at a time and place of their choosing, helping them manage their work-life balance. Managers are able to track the training through the internet as well, which helps to reduce redundancy in training and training costs. Skype, virtual chat rooms, and interactive training sites are all resources that enable a more technological approach to training to enhance the experience for the new hire.

The main functions of human resource management are classified into two categories: (a) Managerial Functions and (b) Operative Functions

(a) Managerial Functions

The Following are the managerial functions of Human Resources Management:

1. **Planning:** The planning function of human resource department pertains to the steps taken in determining in advance personnel requirements, personnel programmes, policies etc. After determining how many and what type of people are required, a personnel manager has to devise ways and means to motivate them.
2. **Organization:** Under organization, the human resource manager has to organize the operative functions by designing structure of relationship among jobs, personnel and physical factors in such a way so as to have maximum contribution towards organizational objectives. In this way a personnel manager performs following functions: (a) preparation of task force; (b) allocation of work to individuals; (c) integration of the efforts of the task force; (d) coordination of work of individual with that of the department.
3. **Directing:** Directing is concerned with initiation of organized action and stimulating the people to work. The personnel manager directs the activities of people of the organization to get its function performed properly. A personnel manager guides and motivates the staff of the organization to follow the path laid down in advance.
4. **Controlling:** It provides basic data for establishing standards, makes job analysis and performance appraisal, etc. All these techniques assist in effective control of the qualities, time and efforts of workers.

(b) Operative Functions

The following are the Operative Functions of Human Resource Management

1. **Procurement of Personnel:** It is concerned with the obtaining of the proper kind and number of personnel necessary to accomplish organization goals. It deals specifically with such subjects as the determination of manpower requirements, their recruitment, selecting, placement and orientation, etc.
2. **Development of Personnel:** Development has to do with the increase through training, skill that is necessary for proper job performance. In this process various techniques of training are used to develop the employees. Framing a sound promotion policy, determination of the basis of promotion and making performance appraisal are the elements of personnel development function.
3. **Compensation to Personnel:** Compensation means determination of adequate and equitable remuneration of personnel for their contribution to organization objectives. To determine the monetary compensation for various jobs is one of the most difficult and important function of the personnel management. A number of decisions are taken into the function, viz., job-evaluation, remuneration, policy, incentive and premium plans, bonus policy and co-partnership, etc. It also assists the organization for adopting the suitable wages and salaries, policy and payment of wages and salaries in right time.
4. **Maintaining Good Industrial Relation:** Human Resource Management covers a wide field. It is intended to reduce strifes, promote industrial peace, provide fair deal to workers and establish industrial democracy. If the personnel manager is unable to make harmonious relations between management and labor industrial unrest will take place and millions of man-days will be lost. If labor management relations are not good the moral and physical condition of the employee will suffer, and it will be a loss to an organization vis-à-vis a nation. Hence, the personnel manager must create

harmonious relations with the help of sufficient communication system and co-partnership.

5. **Record Keeping:** In record-keeping the personnel manager collects and maintains information concerned with the staff of the organization. It is essential for every organization because it assists the management in decision making such as in promotions.
6. **Personnel Planning and Evaluation :** Under this system different type of activities are evaluated such as evaluation of performance, personnel policy of an organization and its practices, personnel audit, morale, survey and performance appraisal, etc.

Here we shall identify the strongholds and the weak points of the human resource management system at the various levels of intervention.

Human resources management systems offer efficient digital management of your employee data. You can monitor everything from benefits to payroll and paid time off with a few clicks on your computer. This makes your HR functions quick, but it doesn't always make them better. In fact, your company can run into serious problems if you forget that employees are more than numbers and symbols on a screen.

The advantages of having a sophisticated HRIS or HRMS are many. An HRIS or HRMS monitored by qualified specialists who know technology and HR functional and tactical processes can manage compliance with federal and state laws, streamline processes for recruitment and selection, and produce analyses, data and reports for internal and external use. Other advantages of an HRIS include the ease of use for qualification computer technology specialists, accuracy of information and the ability to perform HR audits using any combination of parameters. The employee and manager self-service features are excellent ways to free up the time of your human resources staff members for project work and other duties. Employees and managers can locate answers and information quickly without the need to consult an HR representative every time.

However we can observe a certain number of inconvenient such as the fact that our employees entrust you with personal information. Everything from Social Security numbers to private health information and marital status gets stored in your HR management system. Several layers of management may have access to that information. In addition, a non-management employee may engage in identity theft and access a fellow employee's sensitive data. Such a breach of security with your management system can embroil you in legal problems and create poor employee relations.

In addition Because HR management systems do such a good job of listing employee accomplishments, certifications and degrees, managers may be tempted to promote based on the objective data your system provides. This may discourage supervisors from taking the time to get to know employees on a personal basis as part of their evaluation of what staff members can contribute to your company. The U.S. Office of Personnel Management points out that computerized employee evaluations can result in an impersonal narrative from the supervisor. Such evaluations may not be the most reliable guides for making decisions about promotions.

Your system can contain so much data that you may find it difficult to analyze. You may need a separate analysis system just to sort the data into meaningful chunks. For example, if you want to analyze employee turnover in relation to levels of compensation and your system is not sophisticated enough, you may have difficulty generating reports that identify patterns. This could require the help of advanced software outside of your HR management system, which means additional expense.

An HRIS also can be a problematic for small businesses in which some employees must wear many hats. If your company isn't big enough to have a dedicated human resources technology specialist, consider outsourcing. Some of the disadvantages of an HRIS involve human error during information input, costly technology to update your system and malfunctions or insufficient applications to support your human resources needs. There is a demand for computer and technology specialists with general information technology knowledge, and finding a qualified specialist with human resources functional area knowledge can be difficult. With such a demand, your cost to hire an HRIS specialist may be far above the average salary for a computer technology specialist. The cost per-hire for another employee in a specialized field may be a stretch for some small businesses.

Notwithstanding the strategic character of HRM and its evolution recently, the HRM department still finds it difficult to compete with other departments in the Cameroonian public administration such as finance and accounting just to name but a few.

It appears though that its importance in the performance of the administration is obvious for the following reasons:

- Its widespread nature;

- It is practiced by all the posts holder of the organization;

- Its strategic character is recognized;

- HRM guarantees social climate balance;

- The relations with personnel delegates are still followed up by the HRM department;

- The economic, social and cultural demands that require efficient human resource practices;

- HRM is a competitive advantage for the organization.

In Cameroon the planning is done through the strategic plans; the growth and employment strategic document; sectors strategies; ministries strategies; performance budget.

It is necessary to understand these processes, and in so doing redefine Human Resource Management in the context of developing countries. To do this it is first necessary to look at the post-colonial factors in people management that predominate in the literature. Current Perceptions of HRM in Developing Countries: The Developing-Developed World Paradigm. Descriptions of management in ‘developing’ countries, informed by the developed-developing world dichotomy, contrast ‘western’ management styles involving teamwork, empowerment, and participation with the centralized, bureaucratic, authoritarian styles found in ‘developing’ countries (e.g. Jaeger and Kanungo, 1990; Blunt and Jones, 1992). However these are mostly representative of a colonial heritage, reflecting a theory X style of management (from McGregor, 1960) which generally mistrusts human nature with a need to impose controls on workers, allowing little worker initiative, and rewarding a narrow set of skills simply by financial means. This system has been ‘tacked on’ to the society originally by the colonial power (for example in Africa: Carlson, 1998, and Dia, 1996), and has been perpetuated after independence, perhaps as a result of vested political and economic interests, or purely because this was the way managers in the colonial era were trained.

Those aspects of management that predominate in the literature are characterized as being representative of ‘developing’ countries, but can be better described as ‘post-colonial’ are as follows:

- Top-down management with authoritarian and paternalistic decision styles with centralized control and decision-making (Kiggundu, 1989; Blunt and Jones, 1997).

Associated with this is,

- Bureaucracy with an emphasis on control mechanisms, rules and procedures rather than performance, with a high level of conservatism and risk aversion, and a lack of a clear mission statement or sense of direction in organizations. Reluctance to judge performance makes appraisal systems problematic (Blunt and Jones, 1992, 1997;

Kiggundu, 1989). This may be associated with,

- An emphasis on inputs through increasing expenditure on health, education and housing after independence in, for example African states, to the exclusion of outputs such as quantity, quality, service and client satisfaction (Blunt and Jones, 1992). Best use is not being made of inputs or the supply to organizations (generated through improvement in education and training) through capacity utilization within organizations (Dia, 1996). This, together with a bureaucratic focus may lead to,

- Inefficiencies, including lack of clear objectives, over-staffing, lack of job descriptions and job evaluation, lack of incentives, and political interference, as well as poor infrastructure and lack of systems. (Balogun, 1989; Kiggundu, 1988; Jorgensen, 1990). In addition,

- Internal policies may be discriminatory as a result of preferences given to in-group or family members (this is well documented in the collectivism-individualism literature, e.g. Triandis 1990). This may lead to decisions (such as promotion and appointments) based on relationships rather than the application of universal rules.

All these factors may lead to,

- Employee alienation. Understaffing, poor motivation, risk aversion and unwillingness to take independent action; close supervision of subordinates with little delegation; operations often inefficient and high cost with low productivity, over-staffing, under-utilizations, poor pay and poor morale indicated by high turnover and absenteeism (Kiggundu, 1989; Jackson and Bak, 1998, in China).

Through the general underdevelopment of the economy and the tenuous status of many jobs, unions are likely to be weak and often subjugated to wider political interests (Fashoyin and Matanmi, 1996). This may also be associated with,

- Lack of management skills. Kiggundu (1989), although top managers are typically learned, articulate and well travelled, at middle management levels there are weak systems and controls, inadequate managerial skills and a lack of industrial knowledge. This is reflected in the general low levels of managerial expertise. This, together with the control-orientation of organization may encourage,

•Management motivated by control rather than results. While little research has been undertaken on management motivation, those few studies undertaken in Africa do seem to support this supposition (Blunt and Jones, 1992, report one study in Kenya by Blunt in 1976 and one undertaken in Malawi by Jones in 1986). Management commitment may ignore means in favor of ends, although not reflecting an achievement orientation (Montgomery, 1987). This may reflect an ethical disregard for wider stakeholders, and a pursuit of corporate objectives as they dovetail with own objectives (Kiggundu, 1989, underlines the political nature of this agenda; and de Sardan, 1999, argues that corruption is embedded in the logics of such practices as negotiation and gift giving in Africa). In addition,

•Management principles reflect an external locus of control where events are considered not within the individual's control, where creative potential is regarded as being limited, and people are generally fixed in their ways and not malleable or changeable (Kanungo and Jaeger, 1990). This may well reflect also a mistrust of human nature and a belief in the undisciplined attitudes of workers to industrial life (for example in Nigeria: Abudu, 1986). Decisions are focused in the past and present rather than the future (Kanungo and Jaeger, 1990; Montgomery, 1987) and therefore may be deontological in nature rather than teleological. Action is focused on the short term, and success orientation may be moralistic rather than pragmatic as a result. This may reflect a passive-reactive orientation (Kanungo and Jaeger, 1990) is. These principles then may lead to,

•Authoritarian Management practices with reliance on the hierarchy, use of rank, low egalitarianism, and a lack of openness in communication and information giving (Montgomery, 1987; Blunt and Jones, 1992; Blunt and Jones, 1997), with the main management orientations within post-colonial management systems are towards managing internal processes, and managing power relations.

The way these aspects relate to personnel practices in developing countries is through an administrative emphasis on control. HRM systems (at least in the western sense) are likely to be underdeveloped. These aspects are compared in Table 2 with other systems of people management operating within ‘developing’ countries. Western practices are often introduced in order that ‘modern’ HRM principles may challenge the predominant control and process focus of personnel administration in developing countries. Yet the appropriateness of those principles and practices summarized under ‘post-instrumental’ management systems in Table 2 should also be challenged within the context of ‘developing’ countries. It is to this aspect that I now turn.

The perceptions created by the conceptualization presented above, and summarized under ‘post-colonial’ in Table 2, of management in ‘developing’ countries is not useful (fatalistic, resistant to change, reactive, short-termist, authoritarian, risk reducing, context dependent, associative and basing decisions on relationship criteria, rather than universalistic criteria) when directly contrasted with management in the ‘developed’ world, however much it may reflect the realities of many organizations operating in Africa, India and other post-colonial regions. Yet this is a perception that is often employed by Western multinational companies operating in developing countries, and is accepted by indigenous managers often through the influence of their own management education in Western-style programmes and institutions. It is a pejorative view that if accepted, the only logical solution to such inefficiently bureaucratic, authoritarian and relationship-driven management, is to introduce ‘modern’ management: western style, results-driven, customer focused and ‘participative’ and accountable Human Resource Management.

Such a conclusion may not only affect organizations in the private sector in 'developing' countries, but also those in the public sector, state owned enterprises and those recently privatized enterprises which are in the process of refocusing as a result of downsizing and other major organizational change (in fact this is often a condition of World Bank/IMF led structural adjustment programmes in both the developing world and former Soviet bloc countries: e.g. Barrett Brown, 1998; Glenny, 1993). If one accepts the developing-developed world paradigm this is wholly appropriate, and represents the inevitable march towards 'modernization' or emulation of the successful 'developed' world. However, in order to understand the pitfalls of this approach it is necessary to understand the cultural boundedness of the concept of Human Resource Management by making a distinction between the two very different cultural perceptions of the value that is placed on a human being in different cultural settings: one perception being instrumental and seeing people as a means to an end (seeing people as human resources); the other being humanistic and seeing people as an end in themselves.

The cultural perception of human beings as a resource used in the pursuit of shareholder value may be challenged by a perception of people with a value in their own right (Jackson, 1999). Hence, a developmental approach towards people, as an integral part of the organization, and as a direction of its objectives, may be implicit within, for example, Japanese approaches to managing people (Allinson, 1993). There has been increasingly an emphasis in western literature on the stakeholder approach to managing organizations, and a hard instrumental approach had already been challenged in a limited way within the context and conceptual framework of western human resource management (Legge, 1989, Ellig, 1997). Hence a distinction has been made in the strategic human resource management literature between the 'hard' perspective reflecting utilitarian instrumentalism which sees people in the organization as a mere resource to achieving the ends of the organization, and the 'soft' developmental approach which sees people more as valued assets capable of development, worthy of trust, and providing inputs through participation and informed choice (Beer and Spector, 1985; Tyson and Fell, 1986; Hendry and Pettigrew, 1990; Storey, 1992; Vaughan, 1994).

From the above discussion and summarized, it is possible to identify at least three major cultural/historical influences on the management of people within most emerging countries:

- Post-colonial influences: historical and political influences as hangovers from colonial times, and reflected in authoritarianism and theory X managing, quite often with inefficiencies and corruption in public and ‘indigenous’ sectors, and most often identified in the literature on management in emerging countries.

- Western, instrumental or functionalist influences: hegemonic influences through economic pressures for ‘modernization’ or liberalization of the economy (often by the World Bank and International Monetary Fund), from western multinationals, and western or western-style educated managers. This often includes a drive towards more results and customer focus, and to narrow forms of ‘participatory’ management.

- Humanistic influences: cultural and social influences through such as the ‘Ubuntu’ movement in South Africa, and other aspects of African Renaissance; and Indian Human Resource Development. These influences seem to be better articulated in India and South Africa than in other post-colonial countries. In the latter, ‘empowerment’ in some organizations has led to a wider stakeholder focus.

The consequences of introducing western-style HRM practices in emerging countries appear to be:

- A narrow focus on participatory management that is: focused on the tactical implementation of strategy decided by top (and sometimes foreign) management not inclusive of a wider stakeholder base, including community, government and trade unions and other employee representation does not give better access to decision processes within the organization by those that have been discriminated against: e.g. non-dominant ethnic or gender groups

- An individual basis for performance management systems, rewarding individual’s initiative, and under-emphasizing the importance of the group

- A contractual basis for employing people that makes a distinction between the world of work, and the home/community life; and alienating home culture from work culture

- A lack of emphasis on the cross-cultural aspects of operating in a emerging country

that: Ignores the cultural content of western principles and practices, and their often inappropriateness in a different cultural context Ignores the implications of the cultural divorce between home/community life and work, so that managers and staff step outside their culture when they go to work in the morning Plays down the need to provide equitable access to organizational resources, promotion opportunities and the decision process by different ethnic and gender groups. De-emphasizes the need to manage a multicultural workforce, and to draw synergies and strength from developing multicultural teams through training and development processes.

2.3.2 Leadership, job satisfaction and organizational commitment

Performance and Leadership Management (PLM) is a management process that aims to establish bilateral and transparent communication with staff, to understand together what type of contribution each can offer to the company and to ensure working in the right direction to achieve the agreed objectives.

PLM works on two dimensions of professional skill, namely performance and leadership abilities, and guides the objectives, the relevant outcomes as well as the personal attitudes and individual behaviors, empowering people and involving them directly in their own path of development. The process of this evaluation model consists of two main parts: defining goals and assessment.

Designed to spread a culture of excellence in performance throughout Fiat Industrial and its companies, Performance & Leadership Management (PLM) enables the evaluation and channeling of individual and organizational results attitudes and behaviors, giving individuals responsibility for and involvement in their own development. Starting with the top management, at the beginning of the year managers share objectives and possible development initiatives with their staff in order to promote their professional growth. At the end of the year, each individual is evaluated on their performance (i.e., achievement of business objectives) and leadership (i.e., the ability to lead change, manage people and work as part of a team). Upon completion of this process, the appraisal places the employee on a nine-square grid.

Through a continuous dialog, PLM strives to establish open, two-way communication. Our model requires that leaders demonstrate their skills and abilities along two distinct venues: leading the change process and leading people.

Performance management is not a new concept, despite the fact that it has become more popular in the last two decades. D.Gresty (2010:15) on his work on performance management states that "performance management has been much researched and discussed since the early 1990's".

According to a research by ACCA global, performance management can be traced back to the 1940's where the process was developed by managers to justify whether the salary that was being paid to the individual was justified.

Several sources suggest that performance appraisals were invented by WD Scott as early as World War I. Although possibly the earliest documented use of performance appraisals, however, WD Scott's system was not a widely-recognized concept, and it wasn't until around mid-century that more formal appraisal systems became implemented by a large number of businesses.

By the mid-1950s, formal performance appraisals were much more commonly known, with companies using personality-based systems for measuring performance. Towards the end of the 1950s however, unease at these systems began to develop, as not only was there no element of self-appraisal, but the personality-based approach did very little in terms of monitoring performance – rather, it monitored the person's inherited personality, instead.

By the 1960s, there was a much greater focus on self-appraisal, and most performance appraisal systems were geared more towards looking at what an individual might be able to achieve in the future (as opposed to how competent their personalities appeared to be at the time of being assessed).

As the 1960s progressed, performance appraisals began to do a better job of actually assessing performance, by focusing more on goals and objectives, and including much more by way of self-appraisal.

During the 1970s, there was a lot of criticism about how appraisals were being conducted, and several cases were even taken to court. A lot of this was down to how subjective and opinion-based most appraisal systems were, and so as the 1970s progressed, companies started including a lot more psychometrics and rating scales.

The next 20 years saw an increase in companies focusing on employee motivation and engagement, which led to a more holistic approach to performance management and appraisals. Companies began measuring brand new metrics as part of their appraisal process, such as self-awareness, communication, teamwork, conflict reduction and the ability to handle emotions. Many of these are still very relevant in performance reviews to this day.

In recent years, performance management has evolved even further, with many companies pulling down the traditional hierarchy in favor of more equal working environments. This has led to an increase in performance management systems that seek multiple feedback sources when assessing an employee's performance – this is known as 360-degree feedback.

With mobile technology giving us more flexibility, and with more companies recognizing the value of a great company culture, we believe that the definition of what good performance is will continue to shift, and that the people who drive an organization will continue to have an even greater input into how their peers are assessed.

PLM is therefore a system designed to identify the ways to achieve organizational goals through constant assessment and feedback leading to improvement of employee performance. Performance management, unlike the performance appraisal or annual evaluation process, is an ongoing assessment of employees in a manner geared to match their goals to the organizational goals. It also makes strong use of goal-setting and metrics to identify progress and areas of individual strengths.

Performance management systems, in various forms, have been employed for nearly two millennia. In the third century AD, the Chinese were not only using performance appraisal systems but were critiquing each other's biases in their evaluations of their

employees (Murphy and Cleveland, 4; Evans, 3). During the Industrial Revolution of the 18th century, factory managers became aware of the importance of their employees' performance on their production outputs (Grote and Grote, 3; Murphy and Cleveland, 4). The development of the philosophy of performance evaluation systems in America has been attributed to such researchers and philosophers as Peter Drucker and Douglas McGregor, who developed ideas of management by objectives (MBOs) and employee motivation (Evans, 4; Murphy and Cleveland, 3). Spreigel reported in 1962 that by the early 1960s more than 60% of American organizations had a performance appraisal system. The system's popularity stemmed from the Army's implementation of a performance management system for its officers (Murphy and Cleveland, 3). Since then, researchers have continued to develop theories of how different performance evaluation methods can contribute to the success of the organization

There have been many literatures in the last decade about performance management. Elaine D. Pulakos (2009:3) defines performance management "as the "Achilles' Heels" of human capital management, and it is the most difficult Human Resource system to implement in organizations." In his book on performance management, Armstrong (2009:55) defines performance management as "a process for establishing shared understanding about what is to be achieved, and an approach to managing and developing people that improves individual, team and organizational performance."

For this purpose, performance management can be defined as an important tool for an organization to achieve organizational success. Performance management will enable organizations to review.

The purpose of performance management is to transform the raw potential of human resource into performance by removing intermediate barriers as well as motivating and rejuvenating the human resource. (Kandula, 2006)

"Performance management is creating a shared vision of the purpose and aims of the organization, helping each individual employee to understand and recognize their part in contributing to them and hereby managing and enhancing the performance of both individuals and organization."(Fletcher, 1997:36)

Performance management is a continuous process of identifying, measuring and

developing performance in organizations by linking each individual's performance and objectives to the organization overall mission and goals. Performance management is a system by which an organization evaluates and develops its worker's skills, behaviors and individual performance in order to improve the organizational performance.

"Performance management is a means of getting better results from the organization, teams and individuals by understanding and managing performance within an agreed framework of planned goals, standards and competence requirements. It is a process for establishing shared understanding about what is to be achieved, and an approach to managing and developing people in a way that increases probability that it will be achieved in the short and long term. It is driven and owned by line managers."(Armstrong, 2001)

Performance management is a good tool to prevent problems from occurring during the year. Most people think performance management involves looking backwards, because they focus on the appraisal, but in fact, goal setting, and communication about performance all year long, helps to identify barriers to performance before they impact on performance. The result is better productivity, and less "fire-fighting" or dealing with performance problems after the fact.

The first difference between performance management and performance appraisal is definition. Performance management is a set of activities and evaluations that ensure the company is being effective and efficient in the process of meeting its goals. It analyzes and concentrates on various elements inside the company structure, such as the overall performance of the company, the performance of a specific department, phases of producing a product or service and employee performance. Performance appraisal is the specific analysis of the performance of employees inside the company. It evaluates the employee's work and quality for the year. Performance appraisal can be considered one step in the greater effort of performance management--a step that focuses on the employee's past performance--while performance management is an ongoing process that evaluates day to day performances.

The table below shows some of the differences between performance appraisal and performance management.

Employees, as well as supervisors, are often confused by the differences between performance management systems and performance appraisals. Performance appraisals, also called performance evaluations, are tools used to measure the effectiveness of an employee; most organizations conduct performance appraisals once a year during an annual evaluation process. A performance management system, however, is much more dynamic. It can use the performance evaluation tool but also incorporates other elements into the performance management cycle.

A. Elements of Performance Management:

Armstrong identifies the five elements of performance management as agreement (of employee, unit, and organizational goals), measurement, feedback, positive reinforcement and dialogue (3). These elements ensure that the performance management process is positive, successful and a spur to employee improvement. Key to the performance management process are continued feedback and assessment, depicted shown in the performance management cycle (Figure 1).

There are four main elements of the planning portion of the performance management cycle: role creation and development, objective planning, assessment and development planning. The first step, role creation and development, is important because an employee must understand his or her role in the organization before the performance of that role can be fairly assessed. By first defining the employee's goal, a supervisor can then align the employee's objectives with the organizational goals.

In performance management, employers provide continuous appraisal through feedback and re-alignment of goals based on performance. Unlike the annual evaluation process, most performance management systems are designed to meet the changing needs of both the organization and the employee. Armstrong identifies that performance assessment can include the following:

- discussing what the job holder has done and achieved;
- identifying any shortfalls in achieving objectives or meeting standards;
- establishing the reasons for any shortfalls, including changed circumstances;

- agreeing to any changes required to objectives and work plans in response to changed circumstances;
- Agreeing to any actions required by the individual or the manager to improve performance (71-72).

The organizations that have chosen to use a performance management process have often done so because the annual evaluation process has failed to meet their appraisal needs. The constant communication loop of performance management enables organizations to meet both the goals of their organization and the development and feedback needs of their employees. In contrast, the annual evaluation process, which is retrospective in nature, provides no formal opportunity for employees to receive feedback about their performance, request development to increase their efficiency or ask for new goals during the year.

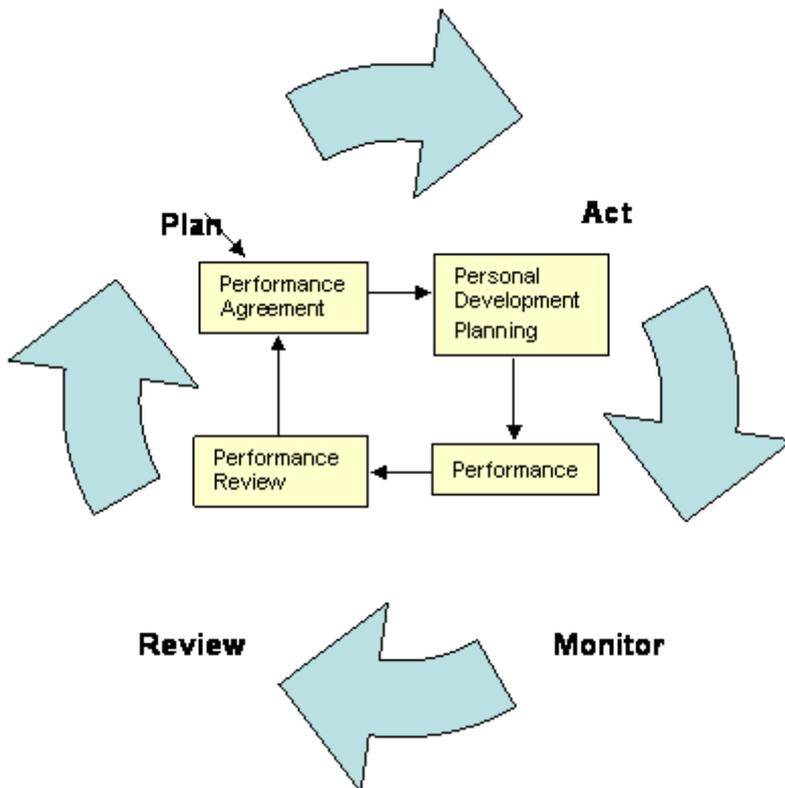


Figure 1. The performance management cycle (recreated from Armstrong)

A. Role Creation and Development:

In order for performance management to be effective, an employee must have a clear understanding of his or her organizational role and responsibilities. Armstrong says that the role profile “defines the role in terms of the key results expected, what role holders are expected to know and be able to do and how they are expected to behave in terms of behavioral competencies and upholding the organizations’ core values” (50). Defining the core competencies for each employee is one step in effective goal creation because it allows the supervisor to communicate personalized feedback.

B. Effective and “SMART” Goal Creation:

There are many different kinds of objectives in an organization. Armstrong identifies that effective objective-setting “results in an agreement on what the role holder (employee) has to achieve” and “is an important part of the performance management processes of defining and managing expectations and forms the point of reference for performance reviews” (54). He also identifies the following types of objectives :

1. ongoing role or work objectives: based on the job description (e.g. an outreach librarian would publish a newsletter for distribution to patrons)
2. targets: quantifiable goals that should be met (e.g. provide support for 45 reference transactions each week)
3. tasks/projects: specified results or product (e.g. a new subject guide to be developed in 2 weeks)
4. behavioral expectations: outlines desirable and undesirable behaviors (e.g. excellent customer service to be provided at the circulation desk at all times)
5. values: outlines the values of the organization

6. performance improvement: areas that need improvement (e.g. improvement needed in database management)

7. developmental/learning: provide specific areas to meet improvement needs

Luecke notes that effective goals are recognized as important; clear; written in specific terms; measurable and framed in time; aligned with organizational strategy; achievable but challenging; and supported by appropriate rewards. Armstrong provides the “SMART” mnemonic: S = specific/stretching; M = measurable; A = achievable; R = relevant; T = time framed. The creation of appropriate, measurable goals is key to the performance management process; they provide a framework for assessment and, without them, the performance management system would fail.

E. Assessment of Goal Achievement:

After defining roles and setting goals, the manager and the employee must determine whether the employee had been successful during the assessment period. If the goals are “SMART,” then assessing the employee’s performance will be simple: if the employee met the specific goal within the time frame designated, then the assessment would be a positive one. The most important aspect of the assessment is the performance review.

There are many ways to conduct performance reviews. Some organizations conduct reviews at certain intervals throughout the year; others create a timeline based on the goals developed (e.g. develop a new subject guide in April; meet May 1 to discuss results). Many organizations have employees conduct a self-evaluation prior to the evaluation meeting; Aguinis identifies that “self-appraisals can reduce employees’ defensiveness during an appraisal meeting and increase employee satisfaction with the performance management system, as well as enhance perceptions of accuracy and fairness and therefore acceptance of the system”.

Both employees and employers have historically disliked the performance review process. Armstrong reports that most appraisals have existed in a vacuum, with little or no relation to the workplace: “employees have resented the superficial nature with which appraisals have been conducted by managers who lack the skills required, tend to be biased and are simply going through the motions”. In order to have a productive, positive performance review, Aguinis identifies six recommended steps:

1. Identify what the employee has done well and poorly by citing specific positive and negative behaviors.
2. Solicit feedback from your employee about these behaviors. Listen for reactions and explanations.
3. Discuss the implications of changing, or not changing, the behaviors. Positive feedback is best, but an employee must be made aware of what will happen if any poor performance continues.
4. Explain to the employee how skills used in past achievements can help him overcome any current performance problems.
5. Agree on an action plan. Encourage the employee to invest in improving his performance by asking questions such as “What ideas do you have for _____?” and “What suggestions do you have for _____?”
6. Set up a meeting to follow up and agree on the behaviors, actions, and attitudes to be evaluated.

C. Development Planning:

After creating goals and assessing progress, the employee and employer have identified areas that can be improved; the action plan for this improvement is called development planning. This development plan ensures that employees will continue to meet the needs of the organization through the identification of their weaknesses and the opportunity to address them through workshops, classes, and other educational channels.

D. Benefits of Performance Management:

Performance management has many benefits that the traditional annual evaluation does not. Luecke identifies three reasons “why performance management matters:”

1. Shareholders (those with a vested interest in the organization) observe better results, because the human assets of the organization are top-notch and working in unison toward key goals.
2. Managers are more successful, because their subordinates are doing the right things correctly.
3. Employees experience greater job security, career advancement, and fatter paychecks, thanks to outstanding performance (xiii).

E. Problems with Performance Management:

The performance management system is designed to benefit the organization, but like any system it may meet with resistance or be unconstructively applied. Many supervisors resist the change from a simple annual performance evaluation process or no process at all to the performance management system for many reasons: a dislike of criticizing employees; lack of skill in the appraisal process; dislike of new procedures; and mistrust of the validity of the appraisal instrument. Other reasons the performance management system may fail because of lack of support from the supervisors and the employees, unclear goals or lack of support for professional development.

If performed incorrectly, an unsuccessful performance management system can have negative consequences on the organization. Aguinis identifies the following dangers of a poorly executed system:

1. Increased turnover
2. Use of misleading information (if performed improperly, an employee's performance appraisal can be incorrect)
3. Lowered self-esteem
4. Wasted time and money
5. Damaged relationships
6. Decreased motivation to perform
7. Employee burnout and job dissatisfaction
8. Increased risk of litigation
9. Unjustified demands on managers' resources
10. Varying and unfair standards and ratings
11. Emerging biases
12. Unclear ratings systems.

Because of these incredibly negative effects that an improperly conducted performance management system can have on an organization, the system must be implemented thoughtfully and executed consistently.

F. performance team work:

When talking about teamwork, it is important to first properly define the term "team" – many people think they work in teams when really, they work in so-called pseudo teams – groups of co-workers put together and called a team, but without fulfilling basic requirements for effective teamwork. Basic requirements for effective teamwork are an adequate team size (best seems to be about 6-8 members); a clearly defined and measureable goal (such as the creation of a new product in innovative jobs, a high patient survival rate in healthcare jobs, or customer satisfaction in service-oriented jobs) (see also Motivation and Cohesion), as well as autonomy, authority and resources needed to fulfill the team goal. Furthermore, roles within the team should be clearly defined

A high-performance team can be defined as a group of people with specific roles and complementary talents and skills, aligned with and committed to a common purpose, which consistently show high levels of collaboration and innovation that produce superior results. The high-performance team is regarded as tight-knit, focused on their goal and has supportive processes that will enable any team member to surmount any barriers in achieving the team's goal

Within the high-performance team, people are highly skilled and are able to interchange their roles. Also, leadership within the team is not vested in a single individual. Instead the leadership role is taken up by various team members, according to the need at that moment in time. High-performance teams have robust methods of resolving conflict efficiently, so that conflict does not become a roadblock to achieving the team's goals. There is a sense of clear focus and intense energy within a high-performance team. Collectively, the team has its own consciousness, indicating shared norms and values within the team. The team feels a strong sense of accountability for achieving their goals. Team members display high levels of mutual trust towards each other.

To support team effectiveness within high-performance teams, understanding of individual working styles is important. This can be done by applying DISC assessment, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and the Herrmann Brain Dominance Instrument to understand behavior, personalities and thinking styles of team members. Using Tuckman's stages of group development as a basis, a HPT moves through the stages of forming, storming, norming and performing, as with other teams. However, the HPT uses the storming and norming phase effectively to define who they are and what their overall goal is, and how to interact together and resolve conflicts. Therefore, when the HPT reaches the performing phase, they have highly effective behaviors that allow them to overachieve in comparison to regular teams. Later, leadership strategies (coordinating, coaching, empowering, and supporting) were connected to each stage to help facilitate teams to high performance.

Different characteristics have been used to describe high-performance teams. Despite varying approaches to describing high-performance teams there is a set of common characteristics that are recognized to lead to success.

- Participative leadership – using a democratic leadership style that involves and engages team members
- Effective decision-making – using a blend of rational and intuitive decision making methods, depending on that nature of the decision task
- Open and clear communication – ensuring that the team mutually constructs shared meaning, using effective communication methods and channels
- Valued diversity – valuing a diversity of experience and background in team, contributing to a diversity of viewpoints, leading to better decision making and solutions
- Mutual trust – trusting in other team members and trusting in the team as an entity
- Managing conflict – dealing with conflict openly and transparently and not allowing grudges to build up and destroy team morale
- Clear goals – goals that are developed using SMART criteria; also each goal must have personal meaning and resonance for each team member, building commitment and engagement
- Defined roles and responsibilities – each team member understands what they must do (and what they must not do) to demonstrate their commitment to the team and to support team success
- Coordinative relationship – the bonds between the team members allow them to seamlessly coordinate their work to achieve both efficiency and effectiveness

- Positive atmosphere – an overall team culture that is open, transparent, positive, future-focused and able to deliver success

Given the importance of team-based work in today's economy, much focus has been brought in recent years to use evidence-based organizational research to pinpoint more accurately to the defining attributes of high-performance teams. The team at MIT's *Human Dynamics Laboratory* investigated explicitly observable communication patterns and found *energy*, *engagement*, and *exploration* to be surprisingly powerful predictive indicators for a team's ability to perform.

Other researchers focus on what supports group intelligence and allows a team to be smarter than their smartest individuals. A group at MIT's *Center for Collective Intelligence*, e.g., found that teams with more women and teams where team members share "airtime" equally showed higher group intelligence scores.

Here for a thorough analysis of PLM as a tool for the organizational leader, we have used the swot analysis.

Strengths:

Performance evaluations can provide meaningful feedback to employees to help them better themselves professionally and personally. Managers and employees who use the evaluation process to set performance goals can steadily increase job performance and overall human resources productivity over time. Making personal development a priority in your human resources department can help garner deeper loyalty in your workforce, as well. Evaluating individual and group performance can also help ensure that pay raises and other incentives are distributed equitably to high performers, rather than being based on politics, nepotism or simply length of service.

Weaknesses:

Performance evaluations must be performed by people, which always leave room for human error. Using people to judge and assess other people brings a range of challenges to the table, such as political influences, emotional influences and interpersonal issues. Even when managers truly wish to act unbiased in evaluations, human handicaps, such as the propensity to place more emphasis on recent events than events further in the past, can dampen the equity of a review. Companies can counteract the human element of the process by requiring managers to keep records and attach them to reviews to back up their results. Soliciting feedback from more than one person in evaluations can also help keep evaluations fair by reducing personal influences on final results.

Opportunities:

Records-based performance evaluations can help companies identify rising stars in their ranks, allowing them to choose the hardest working, most dedicated and most skilled employees to place on advancement tracks or even groom for executive leadership. Evaluations also grant companies the opportunity to continually reduce costs by improving efficiency in operations.

Threats:

Performance evaluation weaknesses can introduce threats to the process. If employees feel they're being treated unfairly in an evaluation, especially when pay raises and incentives are on the line, they can become extremely dissatisfied. An inaccurate performance review system can cause high performers to leave the organization, or it can spread discontent throughout the informal communications network of the company.

Performance management has been applied by the general manager of Cameroon customs as from the year 2007 through a tool that is called “performance contract”. In the following development it will be possible to observe how it was implemented and for which objectives as well as its strengths and eventually its flaws.

Many Customs administrations have suffered from corruption and struggled to identify options for ameliorating this malady. In seeking to reduce corruption, while simultaneously strengthening performance (such as raising revenue collection and enhancing trade facilitation); policymakers should conduct experiments that can assist in identifying constructive policies. Such an experiment has been tested for Cameroon Customs, with some preliminarily positive results. In 2007, Cameroon launched a reform of its Customs administration, which included the installation of ASYCUDA (an automated Customs clearance system). In February 2010, as a continuation of the reform, Cameroon Customs introduced a system of performance contracts signed between the Director General and a number of front-line officers in the port of Douala. The core of the performance contracts is an agreement that the practices of the customs officers will be recorded and reported to the Director General. After four months of their implementation, initial results are encouraging (including lower corruption, higher revenue collection, and shorter clearance times) and may point to the birth of a new professional culture.

In 2007, Cameroon Customs launched a reform and modernization initiative. In particular, the reform was intended to reduce corruption which had long been a constant stain on the reputation of the administration and hindered fulfillment of its mandates. The reform began with the installation of ASYCUDA, a Customs clearance system, which would enable the administration to not only track the processing of each consignment, but also to measure a substantial number of criteria relevant to the reform, such as compliance with the deadline for recording the manifest by consignees.

For almost two years, upper management and front-line officers shared the same reality thanks to ‘figures’ (performance indicators) to measure how the reforms initiated by the former were applied by the latter. While this initial quantification phase bore fruit, its impact gradually declined. In identifying this problem, a possible solution was adopted: beginning in 2010 quantification became prescriptive in that objectives have been set for the customs officers. More specifically, Cameroon Customs introduced a system of individual performance contracts to comprehensively measure the actions and behaviors of customs officers operating at two Douala port bureaus using indicators extracted from ASYCUDA.

Preliminarily, the results from this experiment are encouraging. The Cameroon Customs bureaus that are the experimental group have generated better results than the control group on matters such as revenue collection, reducing corruption, and trade facilitation.

These contracts have had a positive impact on inspectors’ professional practices as well as facilitating border-crossing and strengthening law enforcement.

Not everyone in Douala celebrated 1 January 2007. On that day, the head of the IT Division of Cameroon Customs became, in the eyes of his colleagues and of freight forwarders, the main agent of a mini-revolution: by disconnecting the PAGODE5 computerized customs clearance system, he put an end to 20 years of sometimes tormented history of a software system which processed 90% of customs revenue. The following day, not without some apprehension, he launched Customs activities on ASYCUDA, a system developed by UNCTAD. This seemingly exclusively IT switchover was, in reality, the culmination of an opportunity taken over the previous eight months to prepare a reform of customs procedures

All customs procedures have been automated using the options offered by ASYCUDA. This process of automation abolished the ‘release note’, which obliged customs brokers or importers to return to the customs inspector once they had paid their customs debt in order to obtain that document.

Automation has been accompanied by a process of greater empowerment on the part of customs clearance actors who have been obliged to use the customs computer system to carry out their operations from their own premises. This refocused customs officials on their job. The common customs clearance halls were closed; customs officials no longer jointly manage customs warehouses and areas in the port together with their private owners, and they no longer manage the connections to the customs network.

Greater empowerment and automation constituted advances in themselves, but it is the combination of the two which consolidated change. The rapid assessment and increased monitoring of front-line services bore fruit: the system took off and, despite the rumors, in January 2007 it recorded revenue 15% higher than in January 2006, 18% higher than in January 2005 and 24% higher than in January 2004. January 2007 was also a very good month in terms of processing times.

Nevertheless, no solution was found to other problems in 2007. Shipping agents did not comply with the new rule requiring submission of the manifests 24 hours before the vessel's arrival, which slowed down the process and prevented any targeting. Front-line control was ineffective; some bad practices saw the light.

Performance management, unlike traditional annual evaluation, provides employees with feedback throughout the year. The system allows constant re-evaluation of goals, progress and performance. This process requires more interaction between the supervisor and supervisee and encourages the professional development of the employee to meet the organization's changing needs. While this more dynamic evaluation process is time-consuming, the increased productivity levels resulting from performance management have proven to be valuable to many organizations.

You can't have a performance management system without someone that oversees the everyday happenings around the office. However, just because the organization's management has a hand in the performance of their employees doesn't mean that's where the buck stops. Organizational leadership has to be involved in the performance management system as well, as *they* ultimately dictate the performance culture of the organization. Performance reviews give leaders the information they need to analyze the data and help improve their team's performance. They promote high-performance standards through regular performance feedback and goal-setting through coaching. Organizational leadership has to set these changes in motion.

There are many moving parts to performance management that need oversight including aspects like performance reviews to make sure employees stay on track. As a leader, your responsibility in any given performance appraisal is to motivate, coach, and mentor through effective means of communication and recognition.

SHRM defines performance reviews and performance improvement as a standard for performance management.

Employees need to understand where their team is headed. That means as a leader, you have to be the one that gets them to that end point. Unfortunately, however, 55% of organizations say that the business leadership is not entirely engrossed in performance management as they should be [2]. Employee alignment, goal coordination, and subsequently strategy suffer when leadership takes a step back from performance management integration.

When leadership has an active role in performance management and creates a strategy for their system, employees are more likely to stay on track with their personal goals as well as organization goals. Not to mention, their managers take accountability for their team's overall alignment and correct performance issues as they arise. A strategic performance plan keeps the entire team focused on one end goal.

Even though leaders may not aggregate these numbers themselves, they are responsible for understanding what these numbers mean for the performance of their team and the overall success of the organization. With the plethora of talent management systems, 56.3% leadership has begun to recognize the need to integrate their performance management and plan to do so in the next 12 months.

Aspects of the performance management system like employee performance reviews can shed light onto practices that need to be altered or areas where employees need training across the board. Unfortunately, the performance appraisal process isn't approved by everyone; 58% of employees said it wasn't an effective use of anyone's time. With communication and collaboration as a part of the company culture however, you can ensure this data and the changes that are made thereafter stick and actually improve the performance standards throughout your organization.

Leadership needs a heavy hand in performance management. Organizational leadership sets the standards for employee performance standards and company culture quality. Your employees look to you to set examples and to keep them focused on achieving company goals. You can't do this without an effective performance management strategy and the information to track from that performance management system. Through a strategic performance management system, leaders can identify developmental and training needs throughout the organization and adjust their programs accordingly.

2.3.3 Staff training and organizational performance

The evolution of Organizations, the permanent necessity to adapt to ever changing realities and the need to improve living conditions and better employment are some of the reasons that make of training a very serious issue in the broad scope of HRM.

The jobs of nowadays will not be those of tomorrow. Competencies and skills are ever changing day after day. For the workers to maintain their employment in an organization they constantly need to update their capabilities and potentials. And for that he must adapt to change.

These realities have brought forth a new notion called “employability” which refers to the ability of the worker to adapt to change and to remain up to date in terms of job skills and competencies.

As far as the employer is concerned, employability is the ability for him to grant training sessions and means of all sorts for the improvement of the worker’s capacities in such a way that he remains competent and employable.

In other words, employability is the capacities building given to the worker in order for him to remain employable internally or externally in the conditions and time frames available.

It must be stressed out here that training is not the simple fact of acquiring knowledge but also to change behaviors in order to cope in front of situations that require higher skills and competencies.

Like other policies, training policy must be in line with the goals of the organization where it is put in place. Human resource management considers training and development as a function concerned with a set of activities aimed at bettering the job performance of individuals and groups in the organization. Training and development can be described as "an educational process which involves the sharpening of skills, concepts, changing of attitude and gaining more knowledge to enhance the performance of employees".

As far as the historical background of the concept is concerned, it must be stated that the name of the discipline has been debated, with the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development in 2000 arguing that "human resource development" is too evocative of the master-slave relationship between employer and employee for those who refer to their employees as "partners" or "associates" to feel comfortable with.² "learning" being an over-general and ambiguous name, most organizations refer to it as "training and development".

Training and development encompasses three main activities: training, education, and development.

- Training: This activity is focused on the job that an individual currently holds and can be assessed;
- Education: This activity focuses upon the jobs potentially held in the future and is possibly evaluated;
- Development: This activity focuses upon the activities that the organization employing the individual may partake in the future, and is almost impossible to evaluate.

The objectives of training and development are usually the following:

1. The integration and On boarding of new workers in their duty post;
2. To guarantee coherence in between the capacities of the workers and their duty posts;
3. The improvement of existing skills and competencies;
4. The acquisition of new skills and competencies;
5. Preparing to new professional challenges;
6. Change of behaviors and creating more opportunities and openness;
7. Facilitating exchange of working experiences;
8. A means of social communication;
9. An answer to a specific need.

Training and development is a wide and rich concept whose exploration requires our utmost attention.

In this part we shall focus on: The activities of staff training and development (1); the diagnosis of the need for training (2); the designing of a training program (3); dashboard training (4); skills and competencies development (5) training and organizational culture (6); change management (7); mobility (8) and potentials and development training (9).

1-The activities of staff training and development:

Staff training and development encompasses 03 mains activities which are: training, education and development.

a. Training:

Training can be defined as teaching or developing in oneself or others, any skills and knowledge that relate to specific useful competencies. Training has specific goals of improving one's performance. Generally above the basic training required for a job, the need to continue training beyond initial qualifications is very important. We identify various types of training which the following are:

- Physical training;
- On job training;
- Religion and spirituality.

The tools used for training could be:

- Instructor's guide;
- Lessons plans;
- Parochial schools;
- Artificial intelligence feedback.

b. Education:

Etymologically, the word "education" is derived from the Latin *ēducātiō* ("A breeding, a bringing up, a rearing") from *ēducō* ("I educate, I train") which is related to the homonym *ēducō* ("I lead forth, I take out; I raise up, I erect") from *ē-* ("from, out of") and *dūcō* ("I lead, I conduct". Education began in prehistory, as adults trained the young in the knowledge and skills deemed necessary in their society.

Education is the art of training or raising up in order to facilitate learning, the acquisition of knowledge, skills, values, beliefs, and habits. The methods used in education are generally storytelling, discussion, teaching, training, and directed research. Education requires the guidance of educators, but self education remains possible. Education be formal or informal Education is commonly divided formally into such stages as preschool or kindergarten, primary school, secondary school and then college, university, or apprenticeship.

Education is very important in HRM as it provides workers with required basic skills and competencies in order to perform properly their duties and to adapt to change in a complex environment.

c. Development:

Human Resource Development (HRD) is the framework for helping employees develops their personal and organizational skills, knowledge, and abilities.

HRD is highly related to the employability of a worker that is his capacity to remain competent and useful in his organization. It includes the following aspects:

- employee training;
- employee career development;
- Performance management and development;
- coaching ;
- Mentoring;
- succession planning ;
- Key employee identification;
- tuition assistance, and;
- Organization development.

The focus of Human Resource Development is to develop the workforce so that the employees and the company can perform and attain efficiently their goals. HRD can be formal or even informal.

One of the most important aspects of HRD is career development. It encompasses the following:

- Current information about the organization and future trends helps employees create more realistic career development goals;
- Focus on skill development contributes to learning opportunities;
- Opportunities for promotion to the employee's career satisfaction;
- A greater sense of responsibility for managing one's own career contributes to self-confidence;
- Career planning and development clarifies the match between organizational and individual employee goals;
- It's cost-effective to use your own staff talent to provide career development opportunities within your organization;
- Career development increases employee motivation and productivity;

- Attention to career development helps you attract top staff and retain valued employees;
- Supporting career development and growth of employees.

2- Diagnosis of the need for training:

Training and development of staff is a responsibility shared in between the various departments of the organizations that is hierarchical departments, functional departments and the department of human resource.

The hierarchical departments determine the needs in terms of training in order to attain the goals of performance and the assessment of operational results.

The functional departments assist the first ones in the determination of their training needs, of those of the organization and performance goals. They play a key role in the definition of the quality of the content of the training, the required means for the training process especially pedagogical needs.

The human resource department is in charge of the harmonization of training needs and budget of the organization.

The training needs should not be isolated but should instead be identified as an answer to the objectives and goals fixed by the organization. It is in that angle that the training process is a means to attain the organizational goals.

Training is a very important investment that turns out to be a strategic advantage for the organization. It includes both individual and collectives needs.

Training diagnostics is therefore the process of examining and evaluating training and organizational performance through systematic assessments, analysis and data collection. It is conducted by training professionals; the function is considered a critical competency of training leadership and an important organizational capability of training organizations.

Training diagnostics improves success probability of the organizations and helps them to link solutions to the needs of the business. It is often regarded as the bridge between understanding a training client's needs and performance problems and thereby delivering needed requirements or specifications to resolve it.

The training diagnostics done by managers is to determine and evaluate the performance levels of their organizations, as well as the impact of training on the overall enterprise. In short, managers determine what is working and also what is not functioning well. They must to that effect carry out examinations of key performance to enable them to determine the causes of problems and create solutions to enhance organizational performance.

Diagnostic activities must always be aligned to the process of organizational strategy, in order to determine needs and understand client objectives. In addition, strategic alignment allows learning leaders to identify milestones in the organization so as to execute successfully the missions of the organization.

Training diagnostic includes the following tools:

- Data collection;
- Needs assessment;
- Gap analysis;
- Root cause analysis;
- Surveys;
- Interviews;
- Focus groups, and;
- Key performance and training consumption metrics used to design curricula.

The following best practices are recommended in the execution of diagnostics:

- Focus on getting to the root causes rather than accepting the word of others;
- diversify solutions beyond merely training;
- Conduct a systematic analysis to develop a plan;
- Employ multiplicity of techniques such as:

1. Fact-finding interviews;
2. Field surveys;
3. Focus groups;
4. Formal analytical tools;
5. Benefiting from the experience of others.

3- The designing of a training program:

When developing a training plan, there are a number of factors to be taken into considerations in advance which are: needs assessments; learning objectives; learning styles; delivery methods; budgeting; delivery style; establishing job responsibilities; the training content; the training duration and information and communication.

- **Needs assessments:**

This part helps us determine what kind of training is needed in our organization. Once it is done, the learning objectives can be set.

There are three levels of training need assessments which are:

1. Organizational assessment: skills, knowledge, and abilities a company needs to meet its strategic objectives.
2. Occupational (task) assessment: This type of assessment looks at the specific tasks, skills knowledge, and abilities required to do jobs within the organization.
3. Individual assessment: Refers to the performance of an individual employee and determines what training should be accomplished for that individual.

- **Learning objectives:**

After need assessment comes setting learning objectives. They must be performance based and clear. Examples of learning objectives might include the following:

- explain the company policy on sexual harassment;
- show the proper way to take a customer's order;
- Perform customer needs analyses, etc.

Once the learning objectives have been set, we can utilize information on learning styles to then determine the best delivery mode for our training.

- **Learning styles:**

Most people have a different style depending on the information being taught. In fact Understanding learning styles is an important component to any training program. The three different learning styles¹ are as follows:

1. Visual learner ;
2. Auditory learner;
3. Kinesthetic learner

- **Delivery methods:**

The following delivery methods of training are generally recommended:

- On-the-job coaching ;
- Mentor ;
- Brown bag lunch ;
- Web-based ;
- Vestibule training ;
- Job swapping ;
- Job shadowing.

- **Budgeting:**

The type of training performed will depend greatly on the budget. More than the actual cost of training, another cost consideration is people's time. The actual cost for materials, snacks, and other direct costs, but also the indirect costs, such as people's time should be thoroughly analyzed.

- **Delivery style :**

It is all about the best style to deliver this training. It can be through:

1. Online videos;
2. podcasts, and;
3. Other interactive media in their training sessions.

All These different learning styles are meant to make the training more interesting.

- **Audience:**

Considering your audience is an important aspect to training. For example, if it appears after analysis or observation that all the people attending the training are from the HRM department, the focus and examples you provide in the training can be focused on this type of job. If you have a mixed group, examples and discussions can touch on a variety of disciplines.

- **Content Development**

It refers to the learning objectives that are the goals you want to attain at the end of the training program. In this regard we can cite the following examples:

1. Be capable of defining efficiently and explaining the handling of chemicals in a laboratory;
2. Capacity to utilize the team decision process model with utmost performance;
3. Defining of sexual harassment and recognizing it in the workplace;
4. Understand and be able to explain the company policies and structure.

After you have developed the objectives and goals, you can begin to develop the content of the training.

- **Training duration**

Time lines are required to ensure that the training has been done. Another important aspect is all about the time needed to give the training. Another aspect may also be to offer orientation training so that the trainees are trained at the same time.

Development of a schedule for training might be relevant in the following cases:

1. Orientation is offered on the first Friday of every month.
2. The second and third Monday will consist of training on management skills and leadership.
3. Thrice yearly, in January, august and December, safety and sexual harassment training will be given to meet the legal company policy on the matter.

- **Communication**

Communicating the available training to employees after developing your training is extremely important. For instance:

1. For orientation, you will need to communicate to managers, staff, and any other actors involved in the training to make sure that your training plan matches with their schedule;
2. In case of an informal training, this will involve determining the days and times that most people will be able to participate.

The following tools can be used for communication purposes:

- Company's intranet;
- e-mail;
- Old-fashioned posters;
- Listservs.

4-The dashboard training:

The HR Dashboard training is the visual representation of the metrics that an HR manager needs to keep a track of to judge the performance of different organizational departments, the level of competencies of workers and consequently the training need the HR. The dashboard is generally used for gathering, verifying, sorting the necessary information for the consumption of the top management. It may include the following data:

- The records of personnel;
- The business performance dashboard;
- The marketing dashboard;
- The sales dashboard;
- The financial information;
- The number of employees working in different departments;
- Recruitment and Staffing;
- The payroll cost;
- absenteeism is recorded;
- The amount of incentives to be paid;
- Exit Interviews;
- The individual competencies;
- The amount of compensation to be paid to each employee;
- Termination;
- The training programmes to be carried out to incorporate essential skills and abilities in an individual.

5- Skills and competencies development:

Developing a competency framework is essential for the organization. It is all about linking company objectives with both personal and organizational performance. At this point what is relevant is how to determine skills and to develop them. The skills that are usually identified and which must be subject to development usually have the following sources:

- Education;
- On-the-job training;
- Years of experiences.

The necessary traits and behaviors to reach solicited performance are meant to ensure that the organization will be successful. In that regard developing a competency framework is important for the following reasons:

- Ensuring that your people demonstrate sufficient expertise;
- Recruit and select competent workers;
- Identify gaps in terms of skills and competencies required;
- Provide more adapted training and development of skills and competencies;
- Successful plan succession;
- Apply efficient change management.

For developing a competency framework, 03 principal criteria must always be respected that is:

- Involve the people doing the work;
- Communicate and inform everyone involved;
- Define relevant skills and competencies required.

The steps to develop a competency and skills framework are these:

1. Define the objectives;
2. Involve everyone in the process through team spirit;
3. Collect data;
4. Make analysis of the data;
5. Identifying skills and competencies;
6. Training and development;
7. Managing training plan;
8. Validate and revise the competencies as necessary;
9. Implement;
10. Communicate.

6-training and organizational culture:

Organizational culture has a considerable influence over training in a company or administration. But training can turn also to have an impact on the culture of an organization. Culture being the customs and habits of an organization it is therefore crucial to develop a system based on performance and for that training is one of the key elements.

Leaders in organizations need therefore to deal with the complexities of intercultural relationships through the process of training and skills and competencies development. All is about building positive relationships and attitudes between members of the organization. Here are some of the steps in that regard:

- Identifying the difficulties and complexities of endeavoring change attitudes;
- Evaluation of the organizational culture;
- Analyses and reflections about organizational culture change;
- Training and cultural immersion innovations.

7- Change management:

Change management refers to approaches that aim at preparing and supporting individuals, teams, and organizations in making organizational change. The objectives of change management are to:

- Redirect or redefine the use of resources available in the organization to make it efficient;
- To put in place business process;
- To define budget allocations;
- Determine modes of operation that may transform efficiently an organization.

The reasons for change in an organization are usually:

- Globalization;
- Competition;
- Innovations, and;
- The learning process in an organization.

Dr. John P. Kotter, a pioneer of change management, invented the 8-Step Process for Leading Change. Which are:

- i) Establish a Sense of Urgency;
- ii) Create the Guiding Coalition ;
- iii) Develop a Vision and Strategy ;
- iv) Communicate the Change Vision ;
- v) Empower Employees for Broad-Based Action;
- vi) Generate Short-Term Wins ;
- vii) Consolidate Gains and Produce More Change;
- viii) Anchor New Approaches in the Culture.

When implementing change, the following elements must be considered:

- Objectives;
- Levels of intervention ;
- Strategies ;
- Performance measurement system
- Steps to be followed ;
- Implementations ;
- Organizational changes

8-mobility of labor:

The business dictionary defines mobility of labor as “*Extent to which the workers are able or willing to move between different jobs, occupations, and geographical areas. It is called horizontal mobility if it does not result in a change in the worker's grading or status, and vertical mobility if it does. Skilled workers have low occupational mobility but high geographical mobility; low-skilled or unskilled workers have high degrees of both types of mobility. Low labor-mobility causes structural unemployment, and governments try to avoid it by worker retraining schemes and by encouraging establishment of new industries in the affected areas*”

The mobility of labor refers the capacity for workers to move to different jobs within the economy. The main factors for mobility of labor are the following:

- Geographical mobility ;
- Occupational mobility.

Two types of mobility can be distinguished:

- An individual's labor mobility and;
- Overall labor mobility.

Among the main factors that influence mobility of labor we have:

- National minimum wage;
- Regulations on hiring and firing workers;
- Trades unionism;
- Incentive for workers to be more mobile.

The mobility of labor is most often motivated by natural rate of unemployment, Rapid technological change, productive capacity of the economy, and levels of wages in labor markets.

9-Potentials and development training:

Potentials and training help workers develop critical skills that are necessary to improve the quality of their work and to increase labor mobility.

The steps usually followed for a potential and development planning are the following⁵:

- i) Implement a Formal Identification Process
- ii) Build a Personal Development Plan;
- iii) Give your high potential talent new and unique opportunities;
- iv) Establish a High Potential Program.

Staff training and development is made up of advantages and disadvantages as follows:

Advantages:

- Amplifies skills and helps the staffs to gain new skills;
- work runs in an efficient manner and hence productivity increases;
- help workers to face any shortcomings;
- Employees learn real aspect of job and are satisfied in doing their job;
- Work, training, methods or legislation are updated;
- Employees are able to share knowledge about higher job postings and the responsibilities they handle;
- Retention is increased and star players are kept back in the organization;
- Employees possess a consistent experience along with background knowledge;
- Reduces training time ;
- Staff training is important so that they handle machinery in a safe manner;
- Improves employees' disciplines and attitudes;
- Minimal supervision ;
- offers workers a clear way and enhanced opportunity for promotion;
- With trained employees the efficiency is increased which in turn increases the productivity;
- best economic usage of materials and equipments;
- standardized practices and procedures;
- systemization of working skills;
- eradicating defects if present in the recruitment process;
- updated with the latest trends ;
- Stay ahead of competitors ;
- Make the company to be abiding by the industry regulations;

- An opportunity to learn for the organization;
- Good handling of customers;
- Self confidence of workers;
- Team spirit is emulated.

Disadvantages:

- Costly;
- Time consuming;
- May appear boring is too theoretical;
- Increased departure due to enhance skills;
- Risks linked to the quality of training and trainers;
- Difficulties in conducting change in the organization.

Staff training and development is obviously linked with performance improvement. Strategies in the public service in Cameroon therefore cannot do without for the following reasons:

- organizational and technical change is fast accelerating, requiring more skills from workers;
- Globalization and competition require more skills from employees and managers;
- public expectations of the public service are increasing day by day;
- There is continuous pressure for demonstrable efficiency improvements in the public service;
- Enhanced business planning and strategic change skills at all levels are the order of the day.

The government staff training and development strategy takes into account the following elements for a more improved performance:

- i. Clearly-stated commitment from senior management to develop all employees to achieve business objectives.
- ii. written plans which identify business goals and targets;
- iii. Assessment of employees;

- iv. A clear stated sense of mission for the organizations;
- v. A dynamic and organized communication services;
- vi. Staff training and development strategy focused on the needs of new recruits.
- vii. Technical competence backed with detailed understanding of the organization and its culture.
- viii. Regular review of the training and development needs of employees throughout their employment.

The staff training and development in most public services though sometimes well stated faces a lot of challenges such as:

- Lack of financial resources;
- Lack of motivation of human resource;
- Bureaucracy and complex procedures;
- The subjectivity of the screening and selection process;
- The non implementation of rules and regulations;
- The absence of a harmonized national strategy in terms of staff training and development;
- Poor communication and information;
- The absence of a real human resource department in favor of a simple department in charge of personnel;
- The social and environmental aspects are poorly considered due to lack of finances.

Some of the most developed best practices and policies geared towards organization success include the following:

- Training programs should be on line with organizational goals;
- criteria for success must be clearly defined;
- Training programs should be based on key strategies;
- systems, structures, policies and practices should be the product of a participatory approach;
- Training should be driven through many channels;

- Self-directed training and development Training best practices should vary depending upon the specific situation.

Staff training and development is essential for the success of any organization. And as such an important aspect for the efficient management of human resource.

Employee training is the responsibility of the organization. As we said earlier for a successful staff and training development there are conditions to be met which are:

- A well-crafted job description.
- Meet the basic competencies for the job;
- Develop a good understanding of the knowledge, skills and abilities that the organization will need in the future;
- Look for learning opportunities in every-day activity;
- Explain the employee development process and encourage staff to develop individual development plans;
- Support staff when they identify learning activities ;
- Identify goals and activities for development.

Staff training and development must suit the organization's context, job descriptions, employment contracts and collective agreements. Cost-effective methods for staff training and development must take into consideration:

- On-the-job experience;
- Committees;
- Conferences and forums;
- Critical incident notes;
- Field trips;
- Job aids;
- Job expanding;
- Job rotation;
- Job shadowing;
- Learning alerts;
- Peer-assisted learning;
- 'Stretch' assignments;

- Special projects;
- Relationships and feedback.

Staff training and development presents a lot of advantages such as Keeping up with industry changes; Be in touch with all the latest technology developments; Staying ahead of competitors; Be able to see weaknesses and skill gaps; Maintain knowledge and skills; Advance employee skills; provide an incentive to learning; Increase job satisfaction and internal promotion opportunities and attract new talent.

Even though it may present some inconvenient depending on the context, it appears glaringly clear that training and development of staff is a strategic tool for any organization that implements it properly.

2.3.4 Organizational commitment and employee turnover

According to Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque (2012), the concept of organizational commitment has become a major topic of management and behavioral sciences. Understanding organizational commitment has been the object of study of many scholars (Morrow, 2011).

For Taing, Granger, Groff, Jackson, & Johnson (2011), Organizational commitment is a leading driver of many organizational behaviors including turnover.

The literature offers a variety of definitions of organizational commitment (Arora, Nuseir, Nusair, & Arora, 2012). Organizational commitment refers to the desire and the willingness of an employee to contribute to the success of an organization (Sani, 2013). The definition of

Sani overlooked the reasons of commitment. Ellenbecker and Cushman (2012) considered the reasons of commitment and they defined organizational commitment as the various reasons that drive an employee's attachment to an organization.

Some of these reasons according to Balassiano & Salles, 2012; Ellenbecker & Cushman (2012), include:

- moral attachment;
- emotional attachment;
- Obligation;
- willingness to help the organization succeed;
- The employee's willingness to stay with the organization.

Various factors are likely to drive an employee's organizational commitment such as:

- Job satisfaction (Qamar, 2012) ;
- job stressors;
- Emotional exhaustion (Kemp, Kopp, & Kemp, 2013) ;
- Security;
- Health;
- work conditions, and;
- Human development;
- leadership and organizational culture (Gallato et al. 2012)
- Behavioral integrity also drives organizational commitment (Fritz, O'Neil, Popp, Williams, & Arnet, 2013; Leroy et al., 2012).
- procedural justice (Gumusluoglu, Karakitapoğlu-Ayguna, and Hirst, 2013)

There exists three types of organizational commitment which are : affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.

➤ ***Affective commitment:***

Employees may commit to their employing organization because they are satisfied and they feel the sense of belonging to the organization (Kimura, 2013). Kimura found perceptions of politics perception affective commitment relationship of leader-member exchange (LMX) are weaker when political skill and qualities of LMX are high. Researchers refer to this type of commitment as affective Commitment (Jussila, Byrne, & Tuominen, 2012).

Affective commitment is the extent, to which employees feel emotionally linked, identified, and involved with the organization and employees want to stay at the organization (Balassiano & Salles, 2012). Affective commitment refers to the emotional attachment employees have to their employing organizations (Leroy et al., 2012). Leroy et al. (2012) tested the hypothesis that authentic leadership behavior precedes perceptions of leader behavioral integrity, which affects follower affective commitment. The results support the finding of authentic leadership is related to follower affective commitment.

An affective commitment occurs therefore when employees commit because they want to, not because they have to (Kimura, 2013). This type of commitment is indispensable for building a successful and sustainable organization (Jussila et al., 2012).

➤ ***Continuance commitment:***

Continuance commitment can be referred to as the extent to which employees stay in the organization because of recognition of the costs associated with leaving the organization (Balassiano & Salles, 2012). Other factors are lack of another job to replace the one that they have left, or feeling the personal sacrifices that come with leaving are considerably high. Employees feel the need to stay in the organization with continuance commitment (Balassiano & Salles, 2012).

Employees may commit to their employing organizations because of lack of better alternatives or consequences related to failing to commit (Taing et al., 2011).

Findings showed continuance commitment based on economic exchanges was positively related to work phenomena (e.g., task performance and citizenship behaviors); while continuance commitment based on low job alternatives was negatively related to work phenomena.

Therefore, according to Taing et al. continuance commitment based on economic exchanges should be promoted and continuance commitment based on low job alternatives should not be promoted.

In the context of continuance commitment, employees commit to their employing organizations because of the consequences they are likely to face when they leave these organizations (Balassiano & Salles, 2012).

In clear, Continuance commitment occurs when employees commit not because they want to, but because they need to (Balassiano & Salles, 2012). Ahmadi (2011) argued that promoting continuance commitment is unethical and may have a negative impact on an organization. Vandenberghe, Panaccio, and Ayed (2011).

➤ ***Normative commitment :***

Normative commitment is the extent to which employees have a moral obligation to stay in the organization and employees feel that they must stay in the organization (Balassiano & Salles, 2012). In addition to the desire to commit and the consequence related to leaving, employees may also commit to their employing organizations because they feel the moral obligation to commit (Gelaidan & Ahmad, 2013).

In the context of normative commitment, employees are committed because of Some moral obligations (Balassiano & Salles, 2012). Normative commitment occurs When an individual feels the need to reciprocate after receiving some benefits from an organization (Gelaidan & Ahmad, 2013).

The literature offers various instruments for measuring organizational commitment (Dirani & Kuchinke, 2011) such as:

➤ **The TCM employee commitment survey:**

It is a popular instrument that measures an employee's affective commitment, continuance Commitment and normative commitment (Xu & Bassham, 2010). Developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) to measure organizational commitment, the original TCM employee commitment survey had 24 items. The revised version used in this study contains 18 items (Meyer & Allen, 2004). The validity and reliability of the TCM employee commitment survey have made this instrument very attractive to researchers (Benjamin & David, 2012);

➤ **The organizational commitment survey of O'Reilly and Chatman:**

It is a tool used to measure organizational commitment (Dhammika, Ahmad, & Sam, 2012). The organizational commitment survey of O'Reilly and Chatman is a 12-item instrument that measures three dimensions of organizational commitment including internalization, identification, and compliance (Dhammika et al., 2012).

Given the negative impact of voluntary turnover of the effectiveness of an organization, organizational leaders seek better ways to retain valuable employees (Dong, Mitchell, Lee, Holtom, & Hinkin, 2012).

Employee retention rate has become a key performance indicator for many organizations (Moussa, 2013). Companies struggle to retain employees for more than 5 years (Bagga, 2013). Approximately 50% of employees leave their organizations within the first 5 years of employment (Ballinger et al., 2011). This high turnover rate has a high financial cost to organizations (Maertz & Boyar, 2012).

Factors such as increased competition among organizations, high demand of skilled employees, and the cost of turnover, have increased the importance of employee retention (Davidson, Timo, & Wang, 2010). Those factors explain the reasons why employee turnover intention has become a topic of significance in the field of human resource management (Alonso & O'Neill, 2009).

Turnover intention refers to an employee's intention to voluntarily leave an organization (Jehanzeb, Rasheed, & Rasheed, 2013). The opposite of turnover intention is intent to stay (Costen & Salazar, 2011).

Employees typically leave their organizations for various reasons (Alonso & O'Neill, 2009). Many researchers have pointed at organizational commitment as a significant driver of employee turnover intention in many industries (Galletta, Portoghese, & Battistelli, 2011; Rashid & Raja, 2011; van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012; Yucel, 2012

In addition to organizational commitment, many other factors are likely to drive an employee's intention to leave an organization. Job satisfaction is among the most cited driver of employee turnover intention (Yucel, 2012). Job satisfaction affects an employee's intent to stay or leave an organization (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010). Transformational leadership style is likely to decrease employees' turnover intention. Wells and Peachey (2011) argued that transformational and transactional leadership styles are a means to decreasing employees' turnover intention.

Workplace justice also affects turnover intention among employees (Cantor, Macdonald, & Crum, 2011). Employees are likely to stay with an organization that Promotes fairness and justice in the workplace (Poon, 2012).

Employees' training is another significant driver of turnover intention (Jehanzeb et al., 2013).

Researchers have developed several instruments to measure turnover intention. Babajide (2010) developed a six-item scale entitled personal factors and workers' Turnover Intention Scale to measure turnover intention in Nigeria. Pitts, Marvel, and Fernandez (2011) used a one-item instrument to measure the turnover intention of the United States' federal employees. Among all the turnover intention measurements, the three-item Turnover Intention Scale from the Michigan organizational assessment questionnaire remains the most popular (Cammann et al., 1983).

2.3.5. Organizational performance

According to Richard et al. (2009) organizational performance encompasses three specific areas of firm outcomes:

- (a) Financial performance (profits, return on assets, return on investment, etc.);
- (b) Product market performance (sales, market share, etc.); and
- (c) Shareholder return (total shareholder return, economic value added, etc.).

Organizational performance comprises the actual output or results of an organization as measured against its intended outputs (or goals and objectives).

Organizational performance is tracked and measured in multiple dimensions such as:

- financial performance (e.g. shareholder return);
- Customer service ;
- social responsibility (e.g. corporate citizenship, community outreach);
- Employee stewardship ...

A clear statement on the concept of organizational performance was issued by Etzioni, in which he believed that frequent assessments of organizations have been carried out in relation to the achievement or non-achievement of the set objectives and goals.

However, in Etzioni's suggestion, the resources that an organization needs to achieve its objectives and aspirations were not taken into consideration. Some other researchers, such as Chandler and Thompson apparently nurtured an idea of organizational performance similar to that of Etzioni.

Researchers like these argue that the ultimate criterion of organizational performance is its growth and long-term survival. In other words, continuous improvement of organizational performance forms its vital objective.

Organizational performance therefore basically relate to the "effectiveness" or realization of the objectives or goals of an organization.

Lorsch has a different suggestion for measuring organizational performance based on two factors, i.e.

- good fit between the organization and its environments; and good fit between the organization;
- Individual contributors.

Lorsch believed that the performance of an organization is expected to be more successful if there are efficient operations between the organization and its environment and its staff are content with and aspire to contribute to its success and development.

Some researchers believe that in the 1970s the concept of performance dealt with both organizational means and ends. Performance being defined as the extent to which a company, as a social system with certain resources, is able to fulfill its goals without being obliged to incapacitate its resources and means or putting excessive strain on its employees.

Lupton treated the concept of organizational performance in the most careful and explicit manner in comparison with other researchers in the same period. According to Lupton, in an effective organization, the productivity rate and levels of satisfaction and motivation of its members are high, while rates of turnover, costs, labor unrest are low or absent.

Cherrington defined organizational performance as a concept of success or effectiveness of an organization, and as an indication of the organizational manner that it is performing effectively to achieve its objectives successfully.

In the following decade, the 1990s, Adam considered organizational performance as heavily dependent on the employees' performance quality. He believed that in order to ensure a high quality organizational performance, it is vital to have regular exposure of the staff of the company to new and up-to-date knowledge and skills, which would, in turn, help them keep up with the new changes happening in the market, and, ultimately, enhance the quality of organizational performance.

The definition of organizational performance brings out the three general elements of OP, i.e.:

- “efficiency,”;
- “effectiveness,” and
- “Relevancy”.

Conversely, the performance of an organization is believed to be able to cover broader areas including the connection between performance and organizational goals such as:

- Effectiveness;
- organizational resources (efficiency); and,
- Satisfaction of the stakeholders (relevancy).

2.4. Conclusion

Literature on theories relating to retention, remuneration, career advancement, work-life balance practices, staff training and work- environment has been reviewed. Moreover, empirical studies on the influence of these concepts and practices on retention have also made the subject of our study. This led us to the fact that there exists a positive relationship in between these various independent variables and the dependent variable which in this case is retention of personnel.

2.5. Critique of the existing literature

Our Theoretical frameworks based on Herzberg's two factor theory; Victor's Vroom Expectancy theory; Maslow's Pyramid theory; Stacey Adam's Equity theory; Kurt Lewin's force Field theory; Mc Gregor X and Y theory and Fiedler's Contingency theory. Coupled with our conceptual Framework which permitted us to study concepts on HR practices and organizational commitment; Leadership, job satisfaction and organizational commitment; Staff training and organizational performance; Organizational commitment and employee turnover and Organizational performance. Have permitted to establish and better underline the fact that HRM practices influence greatly employee's intention to stay.

Nonetheless personnel retention could also be based on other factors in addition to HRM practices, which are external factors such as economic, geographic and social constraints (unemployment; poverty; job insecurity among others).

CHAPTER THREE

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

In this chapter, we shall focus on the research design, the target population, the sampling frame, the sample and sampling techniques as well as the research instruments, data collection procedure, the data processing and analysis.

3.2 Research design

Zikmund (2003) states that research design is a master plan specifying the methods and procedures for collecting and analyzing the needed information. Descriptive research design is used in this research. The main goal of this type of research is to describe the data and characteristics about what is being studied.

Here, the researcher adopted a mixed approach or methods research design to investigate the role of HR practices on the retention of staff in the Cameroon Customs Administration.

According to Cresswell (2012) and Wallen (2001), a mixed methods research design is a procedure for collecting both quantitative and qualitative approach in a single study to understand a research problem.

The design makes use of both quantitative and qualitative data collection methodologies such as:

- Interviews;
- Questionnaires;
- Performance tests;
- Observations;
- Follow up focus groups;
- Document analysis.

The mixed research design approach presents a great advantage according to Cresswell (2012) in the sense that the combined use of both qualitative and quantitative methods provides a better understanding of the research problem. In fact, when one type of research either quantitative or qualitative is limited to address a research problem or research questions. The multiplicity of view points, biased and unbiased; subjectivity or objectivity; qualitative or quantitative will permit to obtain more detailed information.

Common mixed methods include:

- Sequential explanatory design;
- Concurrent triangulation design;
- Concurrent embedded design;
- Concurrent transformative design.

In this study, the researcher adopted the concurrent triangulation design that implies converging both quantitative and qualitative data in order to better understand and answer research questions (Martens 2001).

In that regard, questionnaires with both open ended and closed questions were used to establish the relationship in between the remuneration practices; career advancement; work life balance practices; motivation and retention of personnel.

The close ended questions permitted us to generate quantitative data. Moreover, the roles of both independent and dependent variables were explored using qualitative interviews with the management of the Cameroon Customs Administration. We strongly believe therefore that the mixed methods research design was the most appropriate for gathering and analyzing data in our context.

3.3 Target Population

Kombo and Tromp (2006) define a population as a group of individuals, objects or items from which samples are taken for measurements. On the other hand, Sommer and Sommer (1997) defined target population as all members of a real or hypothetical set of subjects, people or events in which a researcher wishes to generalize the results of a study.

The researcher targeted the personnel of the Cameroon Customs Administration from 2010 to 2016. The figures of the said staff is tabulated below:

Table 3: the personnel of the Cameroon Customs Administration from 2010 to 2016

year	Total Category A	Total Category B	Total Category C	Total Category D	Total others	Total	Evolution in %
2016	534	510	1036	1543	484	4107	66
2015	498	482	421	571	495	2467	14
2014	464	449	287	442	504	2146	-0.14
2013	464	449	287	428	521	2149	04
2012	424	418	287	424	502	2055	10
2011	381	378	287	407	412	1865	03
2010	344	346	287	395	423	1795	

Source: Service of personnel of the Cameroon Customs Administration.

The category A personnel were targeted because they are the senior staff in charge of directing and conceiving the policy of the Customs administration. The category B personnel are in charge of applying at a high level the policy conceived whereby they are also chosen as target. The category C was targeted due to the fact that they are in charge of the basic application of decision taking. Hence in the retention of personnel, each and every one of these play an important role that

deserve to be peruse with attention.

3.4. Sampling frame

In this study, the researcher used both probability and non probability sampling designs to select facilities and respondents to be included in the sample. Sampling in our study was therefore necessary in order to be cost and time effective.

Sample is defined as a part of a large population (Orodho and KIM, 2009), which is thought to be representative of the larger population. This is the reason why the above-mentioned sampling frame was chosen.

3.5. Research Tools

The researcher used the following tools:

- Questionnaires
- Interviews
- Content analysis
- Focus groups
- Observation
- Researching the things people say and do

3.5.1. Questionnaires

The structure of respondents' answers may not conform to our desired method or an approach to analysis. The questionnaire is the favored tool of many of those engaged in research, and it can often provide a cheap and effective way of collecting data in a structured and manageable form (Mugenda, 2003).

Questionnaires can be very detailed, covering many subjects or issues; they can also be very simple and focus on one important area. According to Sommer and Sommer (1997), Questionnaires can be difficult to design and analyse. Questions posed can be misleading or ambiguous; they may need to be targeted at specific, difficult to reach, groups; and they can create hours, days or weeks of work in analysis.

However, a well-planned and well-executed questionnaire campaign can produce rich data in a format ready for analysis and simple interpretation. If correctly managed they can be less resource-intensive than many other research instruments, and they can help gather views and opinions from many individuals, or 'respondents' as they are more commonly termed.

In order to obtain that information we may be required to ask people questions. Questionnaires can be designed and used to collect vast quantities of data from a variety of respondents. They have a number of benefits over other forms of data collection: they are usually inexpensive to administer; very little training is needed to develop them; and they can be easily and quickly analyzed once completed. An effective questionnaire is one that enables the transmission of useful and accurate information or data from the respondent to the researcher.

Essentially, there are three broad types of questionnaire:

- The mail survey;
- The group-administered questionnaire, and;
- The household drop-off survey.

The group-administered questionnaire is a useful instrument for collecting data from a sample of respondents who can naturally be brought together for the purpose.

The household drop-off survey is a hybrid of the mail and the group-administered survey.

The mail survey is, by far, the most common questionnaire type. This instrument is what was used and addressed to respondents and delivered by mail, and has been an efficient way of collecting large amounts of data. The mail survey is, however, sometimes considered impersonal and can suffer from low response rates.

3.5.2. Interviews

Interviews ‘involve a set of assumptions and understandings about the situation which are not normally associated with a casual conversation’ (Denscombe 1998: 109).

Interviews have long been used in research as a way of obtaining detailed information about a topic or subject. Often interviews are used where other research instruments seem inappropriate. For instance when we were dealing with respondents who had limited literacy skills to complete lengthy questionnaires.

Stages in developing and using interviews consisted of:

- Draft the interview;
- Pilot your questions;
- Select your interviewees;
- Conduct the interviews;
- Analyse the interview data.

Our work consisted in using the following types of interviews:

- Unstructured interviews;
- Semi-structured interview;
- Structured interview.

3.5.3. Content analysis

What content analysis does is to apply significance or meaning to information you have collected and helps to identify patterns in the text. Content analysis is an extremely broad area of research. Its coverage includes both quantitative and qualitative approaches to analysis.

Content analysis can be used as a powerful research tool to determine, from the content of a message, sound inferences concerning the attitude of the speaker or writer. It has been usefully employed as a descriptor of diverse research techniques used for systematically collecting, analyzing and making inferences from messages (North et al. 1963).

Whilst the tools used for analysis may have changed and developed, the essential principles of content analysis have remained constant. To conduct a content analysis, the data (the text of an interview, speech or focus-group discussion) are coded or grouped into categories which are tested for their reliability and validity (whether or not they accurately represent what is being said, in a transcript for example). These categories or codes will include words or themes, word senses, Phrases or whole sentences. Once coded, the textual data are interpreted and the results of the analysis provided. The Content analysis flow chart consisted of:

- Identify the topic of your research;
- Establish content categories;
- Test the categories generated;
- Collect data;
- Analyse content of data and;
- provide results.

In work championing the usefulness of qualitative content analysis, it has been stated (e.g. by Berelson 1971) that quantitative content analysis should be used only when three factors are present: that is to say, when:

- You are interested in very precise results.
- There is the possibility of the collected data being biased.
- The data collected will be statistically related to numerical data.

There are a number of techniques favored by qualitative researchers who employ content analysis methods; one approach is to use a relational analysis model to examine content.

The 08 stages of qualitative content analysis as far as relational analysis content is concerned involved:

- (1) Decide on the question;
- (2) Frame the analysis;
- (3) decide which types of relationship to examine;
- (4) Code and categorize the text(s);
- (5) Explore the relationships;
- (6) Code the relationships;
- (7) Analyse the relationships;
- (8) Map the relationships.

When examining relationships between words, phrases or other units of analysis, a number of approaches are possible. These include:

- affect extraction;
- Proximity analysis and;
- cognitive mapping.

3.5.4. Focus Group

According to Anderson (1996), Focus-group interviews are at the opposite end of the spectrum altogether, modified yet further until they resemble hardly at all the kinds of interviews you are obliged to endure in your efforts to find your ideal job.

Focus-group research is a form of qualitative method used to gather rich, descriptive data in a small-group format from participants who have agreed to ‘focus’ on a topic of mutual interest.

The emphasis is on understanding participants’ experiences, interests, attitudes, perspectives and assumptions. Our favorite definition of the focus- group interview – one which captures all of its essential characteristics – is provided by Anderson when he states that: “A focus group is a carefully planned and moderated informal discussion where one person’s ideas bounce off another’s creating a chain reaction of informative dialogue. Its purpose is to address a specific topic, in depth, in a comfortable environment to elicit a wide range of opinions, attitudes, feelings or perceptions from a group of individuals who share some common experience relative to the dimension under study. The product of a focus group is a unique form of qualitative information which brings understanding about how people react to an experience or product”.

The purposes of a focus-group interview are the followings:

- To gather insight to, or raise awareness of, an issue or topic;
- To uncover complex motivations, attitudes or behaviors;
- To prepare for a larger study;
- To interpret previously obtained research results;
- To develop new research questions and issues for further exploration;
- To obtain market research data;
- To develop understanding of consumers;
- To stimulate new ideas and creative concepts;

- To discern participants' needs when planning, improving or evaluating services;
- To identify problems with existing services;
- To learn how respondents talk in their own words about your focus of interest.

The Stages used in conducting focus-group research were the followings:

- (1) Establish the group;
- (2) Develop your questions;
- (3) Conduct the focus group;
- (4) Analyse group data.

3.5.5. Observation

Observation as a research method tells us that it is 'research characterized by a prolonged period of intense social interaction between the researcher and the subjects, in the milieu of the latter, during which time data, in the form of field notes, are unobtrusively and systematically collected' (Bogdan 1972: 3).

The researcher was interested in people and, in particular, the ways in which people act in, interpret and understand the complex world around them, whether that is the head office, the local government department or wherever. How people see and understand their surroundings will no doubt play a part in the ways in which they behave, they act and interact with others, and in the ways their actions are perceived by others.

Observation is an extremely handy tool for researchers in this regard. It allowed researcher to understand much more about what goes on in complex real-Customs situations than they can ever discover simply by asking questions of those who experience them (no matter how probing the questions may be), and by looking only at what is said about them in questionnaires and interviews.

This may be because interviewees and questionnaire respondents are sometimes reluctant to impart everything they know, perhaps feeling it would be improper or insensitive to do so, or because they consider some things to be insignificant or irrelevant. It is more likely the case, however, that they are unable to provide information about certain events or activities, if asked outright, because they occur so regularly or appear so unremarkable and mundane that they are hardly aware of them at all.

In fact, observation involves a range of skills, of which observing is just one. Others included:

- Listening;
- Participating;
- Contributing;
- Pursuing;
- Questioning;
- Communicating;
- Interacting;
- Sharing;
- Refraining;
- Retreating;
- Negotiating;
- Timing;
- Recording ;
- Describing, and So on.

Observation in our research was used for the following reasons:

- When the ways in which people behave and interact with one another in a social setting are important to our research;
- When we are interested in researching social settings and what happens in them;
- When the best way to research what you want to know is to experience it for yourself;
- When the context of the events you are researching is important as a useful supplement to other research instruments;
- When a flexible approach to research is needed.

3.5.6. Researching what people say and do as an alternative research method.

This final method considered another research instrument we employed in your own research: the video-camera.

The video-camera is not intrinsically a research instrument. Neither are its audio-only counterparts, the humble tape-recorder and the more high-tech mini-disc-recorder. None of these was invented as a tool with which to conduct research and none was designed with the researcher in mind. Nevertheless, the tape-recorder has been enthusiastically adopted by great swathes of the research community, and the mini-disc-recorder and video-camera are rapidly catching up.

3.6. Data collection procedure

In order to collect data, the researcher used the following procedure:

- I. A letter of introduction was obtained from the General Manager of Customs to collect and exploit available data;
- II. The researcher then visited and the various services of the Customs department to collect data;
- III. The researcher thereby had a working session with the director of human resource;
- IV. The researcher thereafter entertained with the focus group in order to collect data;
- V. Then followed questionnaires addressed to the target population and the sampling frame;
- VI. The researcher interviewed some key administrators in charge of human resources;
- VII. Thereafter followed the content analysis of key document handed over by the chief of service of personnel and prospective
- VIII. Finally the researcher collected all available data after two weeks and analyzed them to bring out the first results.

3.7. Piloting

Basically, pilot testing means finding out if your survey, key informant interview guide or observation form will work in the “real world” by trying it out first on a few people. Piloting of the research instruments therefore administering the research tools to a small representative sample identical to but not including the group one is going to survey (Orodho, 2005).

The purpose is to make sure that everyone in our sample not only understands the questions, but understands them in the same way.

The piloting is done before training our data collectors about how to administer it. As said earlier, the test is carried on people that represent the various subgroups within our intended sample.

There are a number of ways to find out how people are understanding the data collection instrument. Which are:

- Administer the survey in the same way and under similar conditions as you plan to do for actual data collection. Record the start and end time so you can tell how long it took to complete each survey;
- Pay attention to instances when respondents hesitate to answer or ask for clarification, as this may be an indication that questions or answers are too vague, difficult to understand or have more than one meaning. Make a note of where this occurs;
- After the respondent finishes the survey explain that you'd now like to ask how he understood each question and response choice. Go over the survey again, and for each question, have the respondent tell you what s/he thinks is being asked. Based on your observations, ask about instances when the person hesitated or needed clarification;
- For questions with multiple response choices, ask if there are any other choices that should be listed. If there is a question where a number of respondents specified an "other" answer, see if what they said is a more likely response choice than the ones you provided;
- You might also look into the cultural sensitivity and relevance of the survey by asking if there was anything objectionable in the survey, or if any of the examples in the questions were not relevant or appropriate for their culture. You might also ask if the sequence of the questions either encouraged or discouraged their desire to continue with the survey;
- The feedback on the instrument can be done by asking one respondent at a time or by conducting a focus group with the participants in the pilot test. Just as with the individual respondents, ask every member of the group to tell you in their words what each question was asking and why some may have

stumbled over any of the questions. Together, the group can come up with possible alternatives question or answer wording.

After pilot testing the instrument on a number of people, debrief with your surveyors to look for patterns in the feedback.

3.8. Reliability

Reliability can be defined as the degree to which an assessment tool produces stable and consistent results (Wallen and Fraenkel, 2001).

There are various types of Reliability which are:

- Test-retest reliability is a measure of reliability obtained by administering the same test twice over a period of time to a group of individuals. The scores from Time 1 and Time 2 can then be correlated in order to evaluate the test for stability over time.
- Parallel forms reliability is a measure of reliability obtained by administering different versions of an assessment tool (both versions must contain items that probe the same construct, skill, knowledge base, etc.) to the same group of individuals. The scores from the two versions can then be correlated in order to evaluate the consistency of results across alternate versions.
- Inter-rater reliability is a measure of reliability used to assess the degree to which different judges or raters agree in their assessment decisions. Inter-rater reliability is useful because human observers will not necessarily interpret answers the same way; raters may disagree as to how well certain responses or material demonstrate knowledge of the construct or skill being assessed.

- Internal consistency reliability is a measure of reliability used to evaluate the degree to which different test items that probe the same construct produce similar results.

The idea behind reliability is that any significant results must be more than a one-off finding and be inherently repeatable.

Internal reliability, or internal consistency, is a measure of how well your test is actually measuring what you want it to measure.

External reliability means that your test or measure can be generalized beyond what you're using it for.

To measure the reliability of data, a coefficient is used to measure of how well a test measures achievement. It is the proportion of variance in observed scores (i.e. scores on the test) attributable to true scores (the theoretical “real” score that a person would get if a perfect test existed).

The term “reliability coefficient” actually refers to several different coefficients: Several methods exist for calculating the coefficient includes test-retest, parallel forms and alternate-form:

- Cronbach’s alpha — the most widely used internal-consistency coefficient.
- A simple correlation between two scores from the same person is one of the simplest ways to estimate a reliability coefficient. If the scores are taken at different times, then this is one way to estimate test-retest reliability; Different forms of the test given on the same day can estimate parallel forms reliability.
- Pearson’s correlation can be used to estimate the theoretical reliability coefficient between parallel tests.
- The Spearman Brown formula is a measure of reliability for split-half tests.
- Cohen’s Kappa measures interrater reliability.

The range of the reliability coefficient is from 0 to 1. Rule of thumb for preferred levels of the coefficient:

- For high stakes tests (e.g. HRM practices), > 0.85. Some authors suggest this figure should be above .90.
- For low stakes tests (e.g. personnel retention), > 0.70. Some authors suggest this figure should be above 0.80

Table 4: Variables and corresponding items

Variable	N° of items
reward	13
Career advancement	16
Working environment	18
Work life balance	16
retention	17
overall	80

The table above shows that reward; career advancement; work life environment management and work life balance practices were all above **0.9** while that of the dependent variable retention was **0.8**. This led us to the conclusion that the instrument was reliable and could be used to collect data for the study. (George and Mallery, 2003).

3.9. Validity

Validity refers to how well an instrument as measures what it is intended to measure (Nachmias and Nachmias, 2008).It therefore relates to the extent at which the survey measures right elements that need to be measured.

Validity and reliability are complementary to guarantee the quality of data collected and analyzed (Zikmund, 2003).

The different types of validity research methods are the followings:

- Face Validity is the most basic type of validity and it is associated with a highest level of subjectivity because it is not based on any scientific approach;
- Construct Validity relates to assessment of suitability of measurement tool to measure the phenomenon being studied. Application of construct validity can be effectively facilitated with the involvement of panel of ‘experts’ closely familiar with the measure and the phenomenon;
- Criterion-Related Validity involves comparison of tests results with the outcome. This specific type of validity correlates results of assessment with another criterion of assessment.
- Formative Validity refers to assessment of effectiveness of the measure in terms of providing information that can be used to improve specific aspects of the phenomenon.
- Sampling Validity (similar to content validity) ensures that the area of coverage of the measure within the research area is vast. No measure is able to cover all items and elements within the phenomenon, therefore, important items and elements are selected using a specific pattern of sampling method depending on aims and objectives of the study.

When addressing the survey items, the researcher adopted the sampling validity and constructs validity and followed the under mentioned procedure to guarantee validity of the survey:

- He used broad sampling;
- He emphasized on important content;
- He wrote questions to measure the appropriate skills;
- He involved a panel of experts for his study.

3.10. Data analyses

Data analysis refers to categorizing; manipulating and summarizing of data in order to obtain answers to research questions (Jay, 1981).

The researcher used the following methods to carry out his researches:

- **Sample Size Determination**, In order to measure a large data set or population, like a workforce, you don't always need to collect information from every member of that population – a sample does the job just as well. The trick is to determine the right size for a sample to be accurate.
- **Hypothesis Testing**, also commonly called *t* testing, hypothesis testing assesses if a certain premise is actually true for your data set or population. In data analysis and statistics, you consider the result of a hypothesis test *statistically significant* if the results couldn't have happened by random chance. Hypothesis tests are used in everything from science and research to business and economic
- **Direct observation**: The researcher studied people as they go about their daily lives without participating or interfering.
- **Open-ended surveys**: While many surveys are designed to generate quantitative data, many are also designed with open-ended questions that allow for the generation and analysis of qualitative data.

- **Focus group:** In a focus group, the researcher engaged a small group of participants in a conversation designed to generate data relevant to the research question. Focus groups can contain anywhere from 5 to 15 participants.
- **In-depth interviews:** Researcher conducted in-depth interviews by speaking with participants in a one-on-one setting. Sometimes a researcher approaches the interview with a predetermined list of questions or topics for discussion but allows the conversation to evolve based on how the participant responds. Other times, the researcher has identified certain topics of interest but does not have a formal guide for the conversation, but allows the participant to guide it.
- **Oral history:** The oral history method was used to create a historical account of an event, group, or community, and typically involved a series of in-depth interviews conducted with one or multiple participants over an extended period of time.
- **Participant observation:** This method is similar to observation, however with this one, the researcher also participated in the action or events in order to not only observe others but to gain first-hand experience in the setting.
- **Ethnographic observation:** Ethnographic observation is the most intensive and in-depth observational method. Originating in anthropology, with this method, the researcher fully immersed himself into the research setting and lives among the participants as one of them for anywhere from months to years. By doing this, the researcher attempted to see events and had experiences from the viewpoints of those studied in order to develop an in-depth and long-term account of the community, events, or trends under observation.
- **Content analysis:** This method is used by sociologists to analyze social life by interpreting words and images from documents, film, art, music, and other cultural products and media. The researcher looked at how the words and

images are used, and the context in which they are used to draw inferences about the underlying culture.

3.11. Variable definition and measurement

The dependent variable: retention was measured through the following independent variables: Remuneration; career advancement; work environment management practices; work life balance practices and staff training and development.

Retention which is the intent of an employee to stay or not was measured through the following elements:

- Intent to continue working;
- Loyalty;
- Commitment;
- Length of service.

Remuneration practices included the following factors:

- Allowances;
- Salaries;
- Overtime pay;
- Pay programs;
- Incentives, etc.

Career advancement practices included the following units of measurement:

- T and D;
- Position movement;
- Mentoring;
- Study;
- Leaves;
- Career progression;
- Scholarships;
- Networks.

Work environment management practices included:

- Office space and equipment;
- Protective materials;
- Ventilation and lightings;
- Interaction.

Work life balance practices included:

- Flexi schedules;
- Telecommuting;
- Leaves;
- Shift;
- Family care centers;
- Family events;
- Social events sponsorships...

Staff training and development took into consideration the following elements for effective measurement:

- Skills attainment: Measure the learner's level of knowledge or skill pre-learning and again post learning;
- Workplace application: Is there evidence of the learner applying the newly learned skill or knowledge in the workplace;
- Individual behavior change: Have the learner's behaviors in the workplace changed to reflect the corporate culture and goals;
- Team behavioral change: Is the team working more coherently, more effectively post learning;
- Meeting goals or targets: Record the individual/team performance against goals or targets and measure again 3, 6 or 9 months post learning to monitor the impact of the learning.

3.12. Summary of research methods

Research methods used for this study was a mixed method implying quantitative (Sample Size Determination; Hypothesis Testing) and qualitative methods such as (Direct observation ;Open-ended surveys; Focus group; In-depth interviews; Oral history;Content analysis; Ethnographic observation and Participant observation).

The researcher also verified the validity and reliability of the data collected and analyzed through the sampling validity and constructs validity and followed the under mentioned procedure to guarantee validity of the survey:

- He used broad sampling;
- He emphasized on important content;
- He wrote questions to measure the appropriate skills;
- He involved a panel of experts for his study.

For the range of the reliability coefficient that is from 0 to 1. Rule of thumb for preferred levels of the coefficient:

- For high stakes tests (e.g. HRM practices), > 0.85 . Some authors suggest this figure should be above .90.
- For low stakes tests (e.g. personnel retention), > 0.70 . Some authors suggest this figure should be above 0.80

The coefficient being above 0.8 for both the dependent and independent variables that were subsequently defined and measured, the reliability permitted us to rely on the quality of the analyses.

CHAPTER FOUR

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1. Introduction

In order to describe and explore the link in between retention of personnel and human resource practices such as staff training and development; remuneration practices; career advancement practices; work environment and balance work-life practices. Data of the Cameroon Customs administration were collected and furthermore analyzed.

Therefore data in this chapter are presented in five major aspects which are:

- The Demographic information ;
- The Response rate ;
- Research Hypotheses ;
- The interview of responses ;
- The Research objectives.

4.2 The Demographic information

Table 5: Statistics of the personnel of the Customs Administration

Year	Total Category A	Total Category B	Total Category C	Total Category D	Total others	Total	Evolution in %
2016							
Men	416	370	685	995	356	2822	53
Women	118	140	351	548	128	1285	107
2015							
Men	387	350	290	461	360	1848	08.3
Women	111	132	131	110	135	619	50
2014							
Men	366	333	253	388	366	1706	0.1
Women	98	116	34	54	138	440	-01
2013							
Men	366	333	253	376	377	1705	02
Women	98	116	34	52	144	444	14
2012							
Men	337	315	253	374	389	1668	09
Women	87	103	34	50	113	387	11
2011							
Men	306	287	253	359	314	1519	03
Women	75	91	34	48	98	346	07
2010							
Men	285	265	253	351	319	1473	
Women	59	81	34	44	104	322	

The above tables show the demographic information related to the personnel of the Customs administration. We can observe that for the year 2016, we registered 416 men for 118 women. In 2015, 387 men for 111 women. In 2014, 366 men for 98 women, the same figures in 2013. In 2012, 337 men for 87 women. In 2011 306 men for 75 women. And in 2010, 285 men for 59 women.

The researcher focused his studies on the most recent data i.e. 2017 as represented by the tables below:

Table 7: The civil branch of the Customs Administration

Grades	Men	Women	Total
Senior customs inspectors	67	5	72
Inspectors	120	48	168
Senior customs controllers	36	10	46
Controllers	88	40	128
Assistant controllers	212	117	329
Agents	216	183	399
Total	739	403	1142

Table 8: The military branch of the Customs administration

Grades	Men	Women	Total
Commanders	21	5	26
Captains	16	4	20
Lieutenants	79	33	112
Senior adjudants	55	18	73
adjudants	133	52	185
Brigadiers	423	181	604
préposes	795	343	1138
Total	1522	636	2158

Table 9: Other Civil servants

	Male	Female	Total
Other Civil servants	23	16	39

Table 10: Agents ruled by The Labor code

Grades	Men	Women	Total
Senior staff	70	46	116
Contract agents	114	93	207
Decision agents	39	23	62
State agents	54	11	65
Temporal workers	70	36	106
Total	347	209	556

The total of the demographic population representing the personnel of the Customs administration of Cameroon can be summarized in the table below:

Table 10: The total of the demographic population

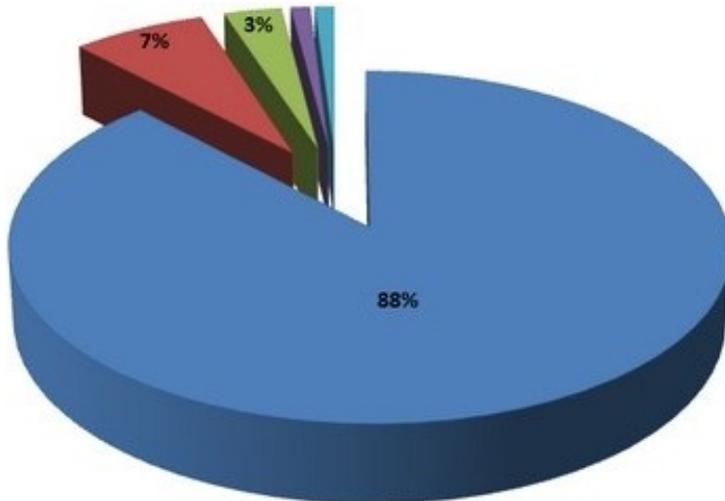
	Men	Women	Total
Total	2631	1264	3895

4.2. The Respondent rate

The sample for the study is comprised of 270 employees drawn from the 3895 personnel constituting the Cameroon Customs administration. A total of 260 questionnaires were distributed to selected employees. Out of these, 250 questionnaires were duly filled and returned. 10 questionnaires distributed were not returned. We assert the response rate to 88 % around.

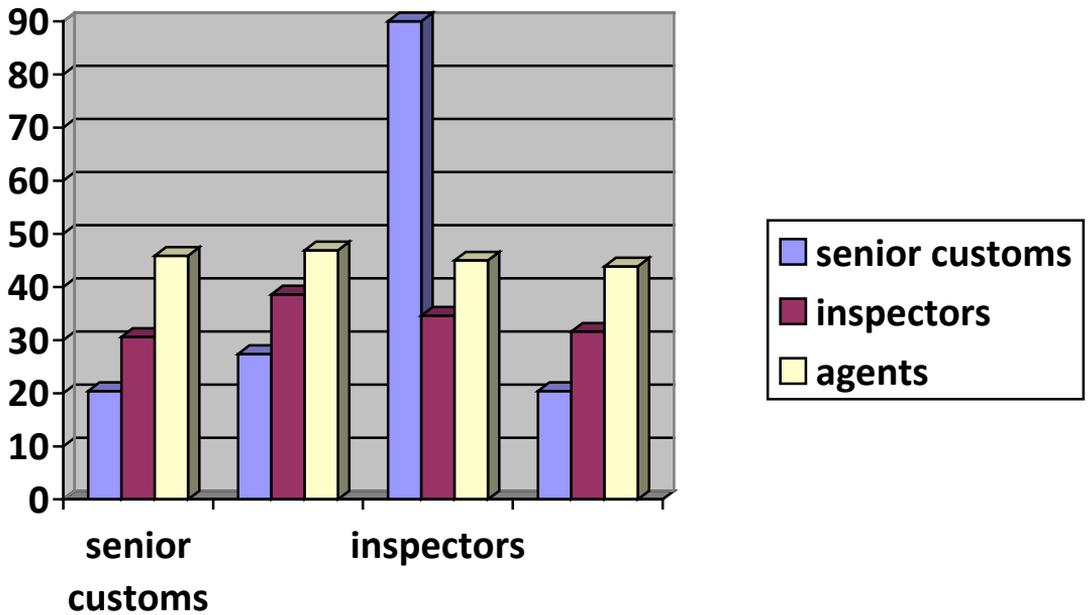
According to O'Regan et al (2012), it is asserted that a response rate of 27% is considered too high given that typical response rates for studies addressing strategic issues are in the range of 10-12%.

The response rate in the study is shown in the table below:



- Duly filled questionnaires: 88%
- Unfilled questionnaire: 07%
- Questionnaires not properly filled: 03 %

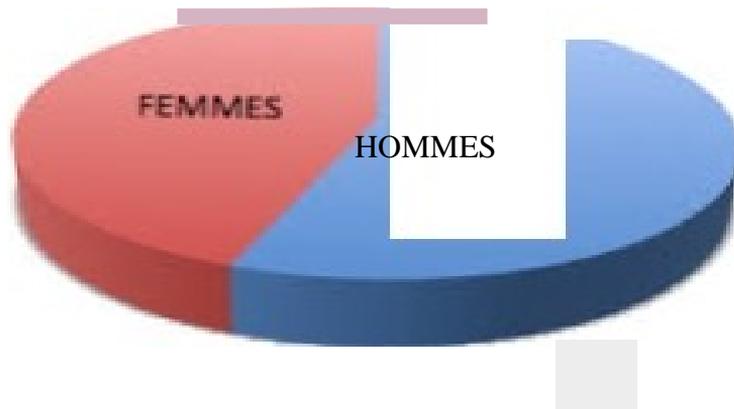
4.3.2. The response rate by designation



The figure shows that:

- 90% of respondents were senior customs inspectors;
- 40 % of respondents were Customs inspectors;
- 45 % of respondents were simple agents.

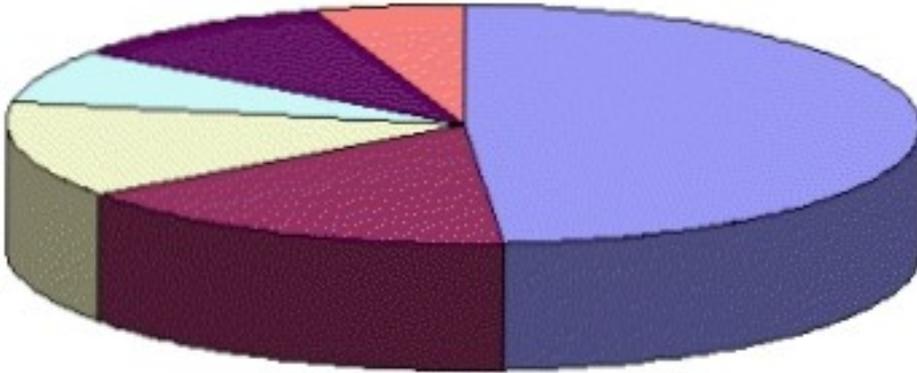
4.3.3. The response rate by Gender



The findings in the chart above show that:

- 70 % of respondents were men;
- 30 % of respondents were women.

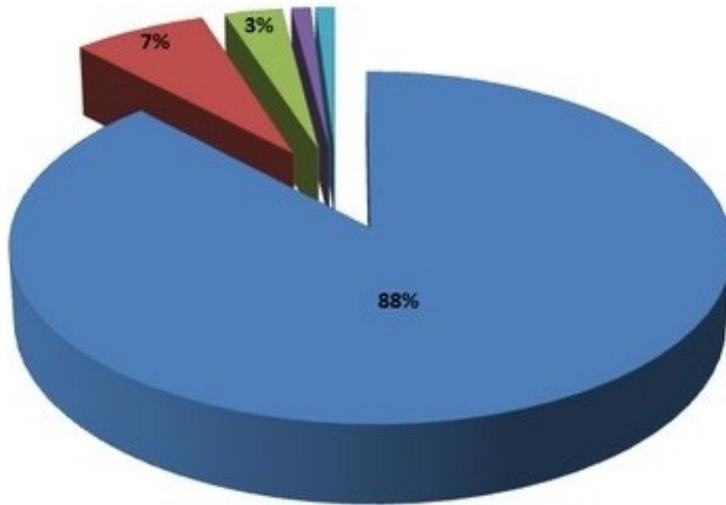
4.3.3. The response rate by age



The above figure gives us the following results:

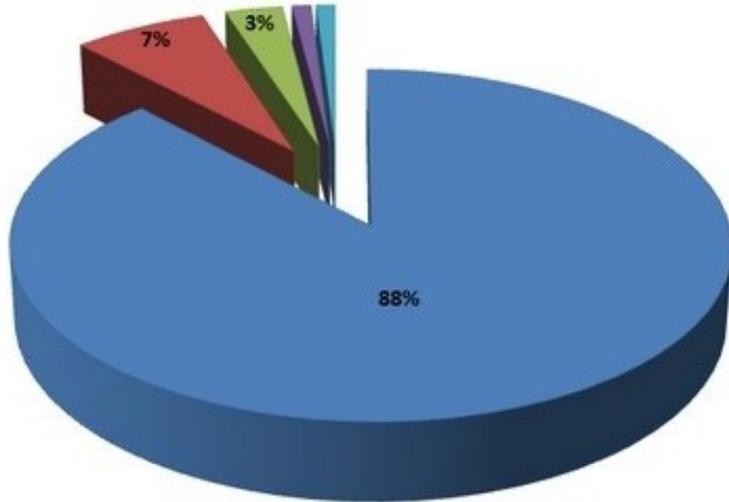
- 60 % of respondents in violet are aged above 50;
- 15 % of respondents in red are aged in between 30 and 49 years old;
- 10 % of respondents in grey are aged in between 25 and 29 years old;
- 08 % of respondents in green are aged in between 23 and 24 years old;
- 09 % of respondents in purple are aged in between 20 and 22 years old;
- The remaining 08 % in orange are aged in between 18 and 19 years old.

4.3.3. The response rate by marital status



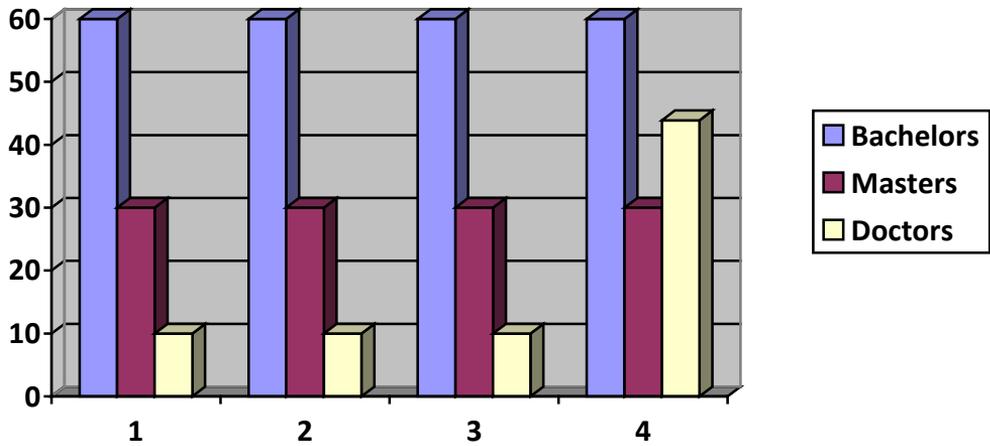
- 88 % of respondents are married;
- 10 % of respondents are unmarried.

4.3.3. The response rate by family status



- 88 % of respondents are with children;
- 12 % of respondents are childless.

4.3.3. The response rate by level of education



- 60% of respondents are bachelor holders;
- 30% of respondents are Masters holders;
- 10% of respondents are PhD holders.

4.3. Research Hypotheses

For the achievement of the objectives of this study, research hypotheses were formulated and tested based on the literature review on HRM practices and skills shortages as well as personnel retention.

The statistical test results (regression and correlation analyses) of each null hypothesis at 94 % confidence level are as show below:

4.4.1. There is no significant relationship in between employee remuneration practices and retention of the Cameroon Customs Administration.

Tests were carried out to determine whether there is no significant relationship in between employee remuneration practices and retention of the Cameroon Customs Administration. The results are presented in the table below:

Table: “I am prepared to remain in the organization because of the compensation/ rewards I receive from this organization”.

Table 11: Interviews

	Frequency	Percentages
Strongly Agree	45	25
Agree	90	50
Neutral	9	5
Disagree	18	10
Strongly Disagree	18	10
Total	180	100

The table shows that 90% of the participants indicated that competitive and lucrative reward packages can make them to stay with their institution. Similarly, Pillay (2009) also reported that employee rewards also positively influence employee retention and that poor reward structure demoralizes employee's thereby triggering high employee turnover.

Table 12: Association between adequate rewards and job satisfaction

<i>Chi-Square Tests</i>			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.789^a	2	.617
Likelihood Ratio	1.239	2	.538
Linear-by-Linear Association	.744	1	.388
N of Valid Cases	180		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .10.

To test whether there is an association between rewards and job satisfaction, a chi-square test of association was performed by cross tabulating the two variables. Results from Table above shows a Chi-square value of .789a and 2 degrees of freedom with a probability value of 0.617. The p-value is above 0.05 therefore the null hypotheses is accepted and conclude that rewards do not result in job satisfaction

In order to test the relationship between the independent variables (rewards) to the dependent variable (job satisfaction, retention), several statistical models were used. A chi-square test was conducted in order to test the association between the independent variable and the dependent variables. Pearson Correlation also used to test the strength and direction of the relationship between variables. Results from the analysis indicated that rewards alone cannot predict employee retention. The results are shown below.

Table 13: Association between rewards and employee retention.

<i>Chi-Square Tests</i>			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	19.000a	1	.000
Likelihood Ratio	7.434	1	.005
Linear-by-Linear Association	20.000	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	180		

a. 3 cells (75.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .05.

A chi-square test of association was performed by cross tabulating two variables namely rewards and employee retention were cross-tabulated through chi-square test. From the results we got a chi-square value of 19.000a and 1 degrees of freedom with a probability value of 0.000. The p-value is less than 0.005 therefore we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the more an employee is rewarded or compensated, the longer they remain in an organization..

The relationship between job satisfaction and employee retention was also tested. It was found that there is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and employee retention ($r=19.000$; $p=0.002$). Therefore we reject the null hypothesis.

Hence one may conclude that a highly satisfied employee is more likely to remain in the same organization for a very long time as shown below.

Table 14: Correlations between job satisfaction and employee retention

	Mean Retention	Mean Job Satisfaction
Mean Turnover intentions		
Pearson Correlation	20.000	0.002**
Sig. (2-tailed)		.007
N	180	180
Mean Job Satisfaction		
Pearson Correlation	0.002**	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.007	
N	180	180

4.4.2 There is no significant relationship in between career advancement practices and retention of the Cameroon Customs Administration personnel.

Tests were carried out to determine whether there is no significant relationship in between career advancement practices and retention of the Cameroon Customs Administration. The results are presented in the table below.

This section statistically articulates the associations and strengths therefore between the independent and dependent variables. The Pearson Correlation and Regression analyses are thus hereby conducted. Correlation sought to show the nature of relationship between dependent and independent variables and coefficient of determination showed the strength of the relationship.

Table 15: The Pearson Correlation and Regression analyses

	career planning	training and development	Coaching and mentoring	Career counseling	Succession planning	talent management	employee Retention
Career Planning							
Training and development							
Coaching and mentoring							
Career Consulting							
Succession Planning							
Talent management							
Employee Retention	0.86	0.74	0.68	0.84	0.68	0.78	

From the findings in the Table above, the results revealed that there is a strong positive relationship between career development and employee retention. This relationship is explained by the following independent variables namely: Career planning, training and development, coaching and mentoring, career counseling, succession planning and talent management. From the above findings, the independent variables exhibit values that above 5%. Generally, this means that there is a strong positive correlation between the career development practices, and employee retention.

The study sought furthermore to establish the perceived relationship between career development and employee retention. In the Analysis of variance setting, the observed variance in a Particular variable is partitioned into components attributable to different sources of variation. ANOVA provides a statistical test of whether or not the means of several groups are equal, and therefore generalizes the t-test to more than two groups. Below are the findings presented in Table below:

Table 16 .ANOVA Significance of the Regression Model for Employee Retention

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	0.820	6	0.137	15.22	.001
Residual	0.112	113	0.09		
Total	0.932	119			

The study found that the overall regression model (Model 1 in table) is significant. This means that the independent variables of career development practices namely: career planning, training and development, coaching and mentoring, career counseling, succession planning and talent management considered together significantly explain the extent of employee retention in Customs Administration, as explained by the relationship between career development and employee retention as shown in table above where the p-value is 0.01 which is less than 5%.

4.4.3 There is no significant relationship in between work environment management practices and retention of the Cameroon Customs Administration personnel.

Data gathered by the survey provides a picture of the environment at the warehouse, and analysis offers some insights into the reasons people consider leaving.

Tests were carried out to determine whether there is no significant relationship in between work environment management practices and retention of the Cameroon Customs Administration. The results are presented in the table below.

TABLE 17: Work environment responses

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
People at work are generally friendly	282	1	5	2.09	0.672
The organization caters for my individual needs	278	1	5	2.69	0.895
This is a healthy work environment	277	1	5	2.55	0.886
This organization cares for its people	276	1	5	3.18	1.090
I am committed to this	276	1	5	2.74	1.052

organization					
This organization is committed to me	277	1	5	3.18	1.048
I'm proud to say I work for this organization	280	1	5	2.84	1.052
I would like to continue working for this organization	238	1	5	2.64	1.024

The findings of this case study are preliminary, but it can be argued that they provided further evidence to support the proposition that the work environment is an important factor in the relational psychological contract, and in the retention of employees.

4.4.4 There is no significant relationship in between work-life balance practices and retention of the Cameroon Customs Administration personnel.

The study sought furthermore to establish the perceived relationship between career development and employee retention. In the Analysis of variance setting, the observed variance in a

Particular variable is partitioned into components attributable to different sources of variation. ANOVA provides a statistical test of whether or not the means of several groups are equal, and therefore generalizes the t-test to more than two groups. Below are the findings presented in Table below:

Table 18: ANOVA statistical test

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	692.244	1	692.244	18.244	.00 ^b
Residual	8546.831	225	37.986		
Total	9239.075	236			

- a. Dependent variable: Retention
- b. Predictors: (constant), work-life balance

The study found that the overall regression model (Model 1 in table) is significant. This means that the independent variable of work-life balance, considered together significantly explain the extent of employee retention in Customs Administration, as explained by the relationship between work-life and employee retention as shown in table above where the p-value is 0.00 which is less than 5%.

These observations are in line with the findings of Thompson and Prottas (2005) who examined the relationship in between work life balance practices and turnover intention of the employees including measurement elements such as:

- moral attachment;
- emotional attachment;
- Obligation;
- willingness to help the organization succeed;
- The employee's willingness to stay with the organization.
- Job satisfaction (Qamar, 2012) ;
- job stressors;
- Emotional exhaustion (Kemp, Kopp, & Kemp, 2013) ;
- Security;

- Health;
- work conditions, and;
- Human development;
- leadership and organizational culture (Gallato et al. 2012)
- Behavioral integrity also drives organizational commitment (Fritz, O'Neil, Popp, Williams, & Arnet, 2013; Leroy et al., 2012).
- Procedural justice (Gumusluoglu, Karakitapoğlu-Ayguna, and Hirst, 2013).

4.5 Collective role of the independent variables on the dependent variable

Independent variables are variables that are manipulated or are changed by researchers and whose effects are measured and compared. The other name for independent variables is Predictor(s). The independent variables are called as such because independent variables predict or forecast the values of the dependent variable in the model.

The other variable(s) are also considered the dependent variable(s). The dependent variables refer to that type of variable that measures the affect of the independent variable(s) on the test units. We can also say that the dependent variables are the types of variables that are completely dependent on the independent variable(s). The other name for the dependent variable is the Predicted variable(s). The dependent variables are named as such because they are the values that are predicted or assumed by the predictor / independent variables.

Considering that, Y is the variable dependent on X, therefore, X, is an independent variable.

Similarly, in cases of the regression model, we have

Here, the regressors, β_{ij} ($j=1, p$) are the independent variables and the regressands Y_i are the dependent variables.

4.5.2 Correlation in between HRM practices

Our exploratory study assumed that staffing, training, performance evaluation, compensation and work life balance practices are the most prominent practices in HRM, and used Snell and Dean's (1992) questionnaire to investigate these practices.

Using correlation analysis to characterize the relationships, we identified the signs of the correlations involved, and we thereby identified the significant and positive relationships among the HRM practices studied.

Strong, positive and significant correlations were observed among the elements of staffing, training, performance evaluation, compensation and work- life balance practices.

These results are important for understanding the inter-relationships between HRM practices, in order to enhance the effect of HR systems on employee-related organizational outcomes and personnel retention in the organization.

4.5.3 Correlation in between HRM practices and personnel retention

The personnel/HRM field has shifted from a micro focus on individual HRM practices to a debate on how HRM as a more holistic management approach may contribute to the competitive advantage of the organizations. Three different perspectives have been used in researches on the relationship between HRM practices and organizational performance, organizational retention and organizational strategies. (Bjorkman and Pavlovskaya: 2000)

A number of studies have found that managing turnover is a challenge for organizations, as different organizations using different approaches to retain employees (American Management Association, 2001).

Employee retention is also likely to be important for firm performance. If the company is not able to retain its employees, it will not be able to capitalize on human assets developed within the organization. (Shekshnia, 1994)

Retention is considered as all-around module of an organization's human resource strategies. It commences with the recruiting of right people and continues with practicing programs to keep them engaged and committed to the organization (Freyermuth, 2004).

we have found the different HRM practices that affect the employee retention in an organization. After reviewing the several articles relevant to the employee retention, we have selected the five variables to study the impact of HRM practices on retention of employees.

4.5.4 Multiple Regression Analysis

Table 19 : Multiple Regression Coefficient Analysis
Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized coefficients	standardized coefficients		Sig
	B	Std Error		
1. (constant)	0.577	0.208	2.778	0.006
Average summated of empowerment	0.47	0.41	0.750	0.454
Average summated of compensation	0.413	0.378	6.692	0.000
Average summated of training	0.155	0.145	2.496	0.13
Average summated of approval	0.262	0.282	4.042	0.00

Multiple Regression equation:

$$Y = C + \beta X_1 + \beta X_2 + \beta X_3 + \dots + \beta X_n$$

Y= Prediction relationship of types of variables toward retention.

C= Constant value.

β = Unstandardized coefficient.

X= Dimension of independent variable (employee empowerment, compensation, training and Appraisal system).

Based on the above table, we able to derive the following equation:

$$Y = 0.577 + 0.047X_1 + 0.413X_2 + 0.155X_3 + 0.262X_4$$

This can be interpreted that the increase of 1 unit of employee empowerment (X1) may incur The raise of 0.047 units in retention (Y). However, for the independent variable of Compensation, every 1 unit of increase will incur the raise of 0.413 units in dependent Variable, retention. On the others hand, 1 unit increase in training may cause 0.155 units of Retention to increase.

Finally, appraisal variable also have a constant relation with retention, it is every 1 unit Increase in appraisal with incurs the raise of 0.262 units in retention.

The highest beta indicates the independent variable is the most significant variable toward it dependent variable. From the table above, the independent variable of compensation has the Contribute the most and has stronger effect toward the retention if compare to others independent variable.

4.6. Analysis based on research objectives

Table 20: Analysis based on research objectives

Hypotheses	Results	Supported
There is significant relationship between employee empowerment and Employee retention.	$r = 0.608$ $p = 0.00$ ($p < 0.01$)	Yes
There is significant relationship between employee compensation and employee retention	$r = 0.485$ $p = 0.013$ ($p < 0.05$)	Yes
There is significant relationship between employee training and employee retention	$r = 0.579$ $p = 0.00$ ($p < 0.$	Yes
There is significant relationship between appraisal system and employee retention.	$r = 0.417$ $p = 0.454$ ($p > 0.05$)	Yes

- **There is significant relationship between employee empowerment and employee retention.**

From the hypotheses testing, it shows that there is significantly positive relationship between Independent variable empowerment and dependent variable retention. The value of 0.417 Indicate empowerment is positively correlated to retention. However, $p=0.454$ ($p>0.05$).

Generally, the raise of empowerment of an employee will likely to generate higher retention to the organization. According to Carol Yeh in 2002, an empowering culture nourishes empowering leaders, accelerates the implementation of empowering practices, and encourages employees to be self-managing.

High performance employees are formed in an empowered organization, and eventually they will improve the organization's efficiency and productivity (Hammuda & Dulaimi, 1997).

- **There is Significant Relationship between Employee Compensation and Employee Retention.**

From the hypotheses testing, it shows that there is significantly positive relationship between independent variable compensation and dependent variable retention. The value of 0.608 Indicate compensation is positively correlated to retention and its p-value is 0.00 ($p<0.01$).

External competitiveness to attract competent employees and individual equity to retain top talent can be created by a fair compensation system. Employees may feel that they are appreciated by the organization for their performance and contributions if they get good salary (Lai, 2011). Hence, they are motivated to contribute more or perform better for the organization. Indirectly, they tend to retain in the organization since they are valued.

Compensation is not only the return and benefits for the work that done, but it also reflects their accomplishments (Ali, 2009). Therefore, an effective compensation system should be designed to compensate employees. The compensation system is particularly important for Intelligence-intensive industries like educational institutions because competent employees are the core capabilities or resources to the enterprises (Lai, 2011).

- **There is Significant Relationship Between Employee Training and Employee Retention.**

From the hypotheses testing, it shows that there is significantly positive relationship between independent variable training and dependent variable retention. The value of 0.485 indicate training is positively correlated to retention and its p-value is 0.013 ($p < 0.05$). Hence, H3 is supported.

According to Thomas Acton and Wilie Golden in 2002, job-related training can enhance the ability of problem solving of employees. Once they are confident and motivated to perform a task, they are more likely to be committed to their job and reduced the turnover rate. Mikeal suggests that organizations should provide appropriate training and development program to keep them confident and updated to current operation. Through training, they are able to work with little supervision and more committed to the organization (Mikeal, 2011).

- **There is Significant Relationship Between Appraisal System and Employee Retention.**

From the hypotheses testing, it shows that there is significantly positive relationship between independent variable appraisal and dependent variable retention. The value of 0.579 indicate appraisal is positively correlated to retention and its p-value is 0.00 ($p < 0.01$). Hence, H4 is supported.

A fair appraisal system is essential in any organisation to retain valuable employees. It enables employees to understand their job responsibilities and show them the path towards individual growth. Employee participation in the appraisal process, equity, fairness and justice will give benefits to organizational commitment (A.K. Paul and R.N. Anantharaman 2003)

Therefore, a fair appraisal helps in extracting the best from workers. An unfair appraisal system can result in unrest and dissatisfaction amongst employees. Scholars usually argue that performance appraisal that are conducted properly can produce positive organizational results (Pettijohn, 2001).

Appraisal system should be transparent in nature. Managers should conduct the process without holding any grudges or any bias against any team member. The process should be well established and straightforward to avoid any kind of doubt. This will make the employees accept feedback on their work with an open mind. This is consistent with the research done by A.K. Paul and R.N. Anantharaman (2003) where performance appraisal has a direct positive causal connection with employee retention.

4.7. Summary of research findings and discussions

The outcomes of this research work have clearly revealed that all independent variables (supervisor support, career development, rewards and recognition, work environment, work life balance and job satisfaction) have a positive, significant and a direct impact on employee retention which is the dependent variable. It means that improvement in independent variables will cause the improvement in the dependent variable.

This has been done through the following process: Demographic information; Response rate; examination of Research Hypotheses; Collective role of the independent variables on the dependent variable and Analysis based on research objectives. Those analysis were based on a correlation and statistics inferences in between the independent variables themselves and after by perusing the link in between the independent variable and the dependent one.

CHAPTER FIVE

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 . Introduction

This part of our study is about drawing the major findings of our Research work then present a summary of the study before formulating recommendations. This chapter ends with suggestions for further studies and research.

5.2. Summary of findings

This study has presented a model on the mediating effect of job on the relationship between HRM practices (remuneration practices; career advancement practices; work-life balance practices; work environment management practices) and employees retention as presented in above figures and schemes.

The proposed study has a few basic implications for enhancing employees' retention. focusing in particular on compensation & benefits management and reward system, and training & development.

By reviewing the literature, studies have shown the significance of both HRM practices and the effect that they can have on employee retention, both directly and indirectly.

In relation to the former, benefits and training are said to be positively related to retention because they motivate employees and increase their intent to stay in their jobs

Compensation and reward system are known to attract employees to stay with the organization

. But despite the support for these two HRM practices, there is a caveat to one of them, namely training. While training can play a role to increase staff retention, it cannot address all of the factors that contribute to retention, such as excessive caseloads and promotional opportunities. Thus, training will need to be accompanied by other HRM practices, such as compensation & benefits

management and reward system, which are considered to be more effective in retaining employees.

Furthermore, from the review of the literature, compensation & benefits management and reward system have more effect on the employee retention, compared to training & development with five studies. Compensation is not only considered to be the return and benefits for the work done by employees, but it also reflects their accomplishments. In fact, Employees will feel that they are appreciated by their organizations for their performance and contributions if they get good salary and are thus more likely to stay with the organization.

As for employee engagement and intent to stay, there is an equal amount of study to support its role as the HR Intervening. Reward system and training help encourage employee commitment. This in turn has a positive effect on employee retention.

This work argued the effectiveness of HRM practices in tackling employee retention. However its results have shown that there is also a great need to go beyond that to enhance organizational performance and personnel retention by improving the compatibility between employee and organizational values.

We test our hypothesis using structural equation modeling on a sample of 250 employees in Cameroon Customs Administration. The results show that the fit between employee and organisation values positively and partially mediates the effects of HRM practices on employee retention. Because employees are less likely to leave when they share similar values as their organizations, HRM practices can be used strategically to improve the employee–organisation value fit to improve retention.

In terms of practical contribution. The research results validated the notion that HRM practices are of utmost importance in enhancing intention to stay among employees. But organizational values and culture are also of great importance in that regard.

5.3. Implications for theory

Theoretically, this study has provided some empirical evidence on the relationship between HRM practices and employee intention to stay. It has also added to the literature on HRM practices and employee intention to stay. In other words the outcomes of this research work have clearly revealed that all independent variables (supervisor support, career development, rewards and recognition, work environment, work life balance and job satisfaction) have a positive, significant and a direct impact on employee retention which is the dependent variable. It means that improvement in independent variables will cause the improvement in the dependent variable. Now-a-days it has become extremely important to have loyal, talented and committed workforce, as they are the ones whose commitment can truly pay off to achieve a competitive edge in the long run of a business.

Practically put, in assessing the strategic role of all HRM functions, the aforesaid factor deserve a higher level of attention in organizations. Most importantly, the role of human resource as a strategic partner should also be given serious scrutiny as this is important to guarantee organizational performance and personnel retention.

5.4. Limitations of the study

Some limitations characterize our work, they are as follows:

- Access to information due to the sensitiveness and confidentiality of some data;
- Some of the respondents of our questionnaire were reluctant to answer certain questions due to fear of victimization;
- The level of research in that domain is not really common, therefore some were not collaborating due to suspicion, thinking the research work could be assimilated to a form of control;
- In some services, certain workers newly transferred and appointed did not seem to master the topic due to lack of experience;
- The fact that HR information system of the Customs department is not formalized constituted another hindrance for the advancement of our work;
- The over-excitement of some respondents we believe could have lead to approximate answers that are not the reflect of what is really occurring on the ground;
- Some respondents notwithstanding their experience, were not always cooperative and

ignored at time the questionnaires;

- The absence of a performing HRM information system in the Customs Administration.

In order to minimize those biases, the researcher verified the objectiveness of the data by counter checking and only taking in consideration the answers of trustworthy people from whom he collected questionnaires from hand to hand.

Conclusion and recommendations

5.5. Conclusion and recommendations

The main purpose of this research was to examine the impact of human resource management practices on employee retention in the Cameroon Customs Administration.

The following conclusions are derived from the findings: There is a positive and significant influence of career development on employee retention. Even though career development is not often practiced in our organization where samples were taken, it was perceived as one of the key factors that plays an important role in retaining employees in the organization.

This research concluded that training and development combined or linked with career development opportunities and HRM practices (supervisor support, career development, rewards and recognition, work environment, work life balance and job satisfaction) will retain employees in the organization.

Similarly there is no significant influence of performance appraisal on employee retention.

Reward and compensations are paid much more to those who are important or key players in the organization in order to keep them in the organization. However it is also important to note that this method alone may not be a sustainable method to retain staff. Therefore non monetary and other reward and recognition methods should be employed to retain staff rather than focusing on monetary methods alone. Health and safety has a positive and significant influence on employee retention.

These human resource practices are seldom practiced in the Cameroon Customs organizations. This could be due to the legal factor, due to the employee pressure or lack of managerial skills.

Therefore it is important to provide training and development with further career development plan, similarly practice performance appraisal by providing proper feedback on a timely manner so the employees could benefit with the rewards and compensation packages that comes when performed well. This will help the organization attain performance.

This study concludes, by adapting these human resource management practices in the organization talent can be retained and at the same time the organization can achieve the set goals being competitive and successful.

5.6. Suggestions for Further Studies

In order to deepen the studies, it would be worth furthering researches on the following areas:

- professional mobility and organizational performance in the Customs Administration;
- the effect of staff training and development in developing high potential employees;
- The best motivation scheme for the personnel of the Cameroon Customs Administration;
- How to restructure the organization of the Cameroon Customs administration;
- Career mobility: a function on individual and organizational change;
- A prospective study on the future of the Cameroon Customs administration facing globalization.

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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire seeks to collect data on effect of human resource management practices on employee retention Customs administration of Cameroon. All information received will be treated confidentially and will be used for academic purposes only

Section A: Background Information

Please indicate

1. Name and position.....

2. Gender: Male Female

3. Working experience

Less than 1 year [] 1-5 years []

6-15 years [] Over 15 years []

4. Position in the organization

Clerical []

Supervisory []

Middle Management []

5. Grade

Senior customs inspector

[]

Commander of Customs

[]

Captain of Customs

[]

Lieutenant of Customs

[]

Adjutant principal

[]

Adjutant

[]

Brigadier

[]

Customs inspector

[]

Senior controller of customs

[]

Controller of Customs

[]

Assistant controller of Customs

[]

Basic agent

Section B: Human Resource Management Practices on Employee Retention

(Use a scale of 1-5, where 1= to no extent, 2= little extent, 3=moderate extent, 4=great extent and 5= to a very great extent.)

Working life balance	1	2	3	4	5
I remain in this organization because my working life balances well with my family life					
I am committed to this organisation because it offers me flexibility as to when to start and end the day's work.					
The organisation allows me to work for longer days per week to get a day off.					
I have stayed in this organization because the volume of work that I have been assigned does not give me stress.					
I am devoted to my work because other organizations do not offer better work-life balance than mine					
I am loyal to my organization as I can easily take time off for "home crisis" such as accidents or illness involving loved ones					
I am content with the amount of time I spend at work.					
I am satisfied with this job as I have the time and energy to fulfil my responsibilities outside of work.					
My ability to achieve the desired balance between work and family life is a source of good health.					
I give better output for my work because the organization offers a good work-life balance					
Employee Engagement	1	2	3	4	5
I care about the success of this organisation.					
I am committed to my work because communication across all levels in this organisation is good.					
I am proud to tell others that I am a member of this organisation.					
I am prepared to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help this organisation to succeed.					
I feel a strong sense of belonging to this organisation.					

I value the recognition and rewards that this organisation offers for my loyalty.					
I plan to build my career with this organisation.					
My supervisors create a motivating and supportive work climate.					
My supervisors recognize and value my ideas, suggestions and opinions.					
Career Development	1	2	3	4	5
I have received sufficient training in this organisation to enable me do my job effectively.					
I appreciate that this organization has assigned me a mentor who Advises me on my career plans.					
This organisation provides opportunities for staff training and career Development on a yearly basis.					
There are better career and learning opportunities in this organisation as compared to others.					
I value how the organisation sometimes sponsors me to participate in training or career development programmes.					
The training I receive for my current job is adequate.					
There are opportunities for employees to advance their career.					
I feel that supervisors take an interest in my professional growth and career development.					
I enjoy training and career development programs.					
I am satisfied with the training and career development offered to me by the organization.					
I feel that the employee training and career development programs offered are linked to my career needs.					
The organization offers sponsored training to employees.					
Compensation	1	2	3	4	5
I am devoted to my work because I earn more than others who occupy Similar positions in other financial institutions.					
I am dedicated to my work because of the non-monetary benefits, such as vacation time and medical insurance that I receive here are better than those I could get at other organizations.					
I am proud that my hard work and results-orientation is rewarded in the organisation.					
I am enthusiastic to my work as the salary and benefits I receive in this Organization is commensurate with my responsibilities.					
I am contented that my compensation is satisfactorily reviewed from time to time.					

I grateful that the rewards and benefits offered are commensurate with the amount and quality of work I do					
I am keen on my work because the rewards and benefits I am offered are comparable with what the market offers.					
I am satisfied with the number of annual leave days given by the organization.					
I stay in this organization because of the educational subsidies given by the organization.					

THANKYOU FOR YOUR INPUT AND COOPERATION!!!

Questionnaire Mean, Standard deviation and variance

Turnover intention

Statistics

		I often think about quitting my job	I currently look for a job outside my organization	I will leave this organization if I could find a similar position at another organization	It is very possible that I will look for a new job within next year	If I may choose again, I will choose to work for the current organization
N	Valid	280	280	280	280	280
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		2.7071	2.6464	2.9214	2.8714	3.1000
Std. Deviation		.93515	.94660	.91634	.88672	.59628
Variance		.875	.896	.840	.786	.356

Frequency Table

I often think about quitting my job

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	15	5.4	5.4	5.4
Disagree	123	43.9	43.9	49.3
Neutral	78	27.9	27.9	77.1
Agree	57	20.4	20.4	97.5
Strongly agree	7	2.5	2.5	100.0
Total	280	100.0	100.0	

I currently look for a job outside my organization

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	23	8.2	8.2	8.2
Disagree	112	40.0	40.0	48.2
Neutral	97	34.6	34.6	82.9
Agree	37	13.2	13.2	96.1
Strongly agree	11	3.9	3.9	100.0
Total	280	100.0	100.0	

I will leave this organization if I could find a similar position at another Organization

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	9	3.2	3.2	3.2
Disagree	76	27.1	27.1	30.4
Neutral	149	53.2	53.2	83.6
Agree	20	7.1	7.1	90.7
Strongly agree	26	9.3	9.3	100.0
Total	280	100.0	100.0	

It is very possible that I will look for a new job within next year

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	10	3.6	3.6	3.6
Disagree	88	31.4	31.4	35.0
Neutral	122	43.6	43.6	78.6
Agree	48	17.1	17.1	95.7
Strongly agree	12	4.3	4.3	100.0
Total	280	100.0	100.0	

If I may choose again, I will choose to work for the current organization

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	5	1.8	1.8	1.8
Disagree	17	6.1	6.1	7.9
Neutral	208	74.3	74.3	82.1
Agree	45	16.1	16.1	98.2
Strongly agree	5	1.8	1.8	100.0
Total	280	100.0	100.0	

Appraisal system

Statistics

		The feedback I receive	The feedback I agree with what I have actually achieved	I regularly receive feedback on my job performance	My organization seems more engaged in providing positive feedback for good performance than criticizing on poor performance	Performance Appraisal is valuable to me in identify strengths and weakness
N	Valid Missi	280	280	280	280	280
	n	0	0	0	0	0
	g					
Mean		3.2607	3.2571	3.2857	3.2750	3.3429
Std. Deviation		.91575	.84133	.87404	.87134	.91009
Variance		.839	.708	.764	.759	.828

The feedback I receive on how I do my job is highly relevant

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	7	2.5	2.5	2.5
Disagree	54	19.3	19.3	21.8
Neutral	93	33.2	33.2	55.0
Agree	111	39.6	39.6	94.6
Strongly agree	15	5.4	5.4	100.0
Total	280	100.0	100.0	

The feedback I receive agrees with what I have actually achieved

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	7	2.5	2.5	2.5
Disagree	46	16.4	16.4	18.9
Neutral	100	35.7	35.7	54.6
Agree	122	43.6	43.6	98.2
Strongly agree	5	1.8	1.8	100.0
Total	280	100.0	100.0	

I regularly receive feedback on my job performance

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Disagree	52	18.6	18.6	20.0
Neutral	98	35.0	35.0	55.0
Agree	112	40.0	40.0	95.0
Strongly agree	14	5.0	5.0	100.0
Total	280	100.0	100.0	

My organization seems more engaged in providing positive feedback for good performance than criticizing on poor performance

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	5	1.8	1.8	1.8
Disagree	53	18.9	18.9	20.7
Neutral	92	32.9	32.9	53.6
Agree	120	42.9	42.9	96.4
Strongly agree	10	3.6	3.6	100.0
Total	280	100.0	100.0	

Performance appraisal is valuable to me in indentify strengths and weakness

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	7	2.5	2.5	2.5
Disagree	51	18.2	18.2	20.7
Neutral	73	26.1	26.1	46.8
Agree	137	48.9	48.9	95.7
Strongly agree	12	4.3	4.3	100.0
Total	280	100.0	100.0	

Reward

Frequencies

Statistics

	The incentives reward those behaviors that are important to this organization	The reward matches my work effort	The reward has a positive effect on the work atmosphere	I am satisfied with the quality or quantity of the reward	I am ready to increase my work effort in order to gain the reward
N	280	280	280	280	280
Valid Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	3.3857	3.3036	3.3857	3.2714	3.3429
Std. Deviation	.90863	.91031	.87650	.89076	.86154
Variance	.826	.829	.768	.793	.742

Frequency Table

The incentives reward those behaviors that are important to this organization

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	3	1.1	1.1	1.1
Disagree	50	17.9	17.9	18.9
Neutral	86	30.7	30.7	49.6
Agree	118	42.1	42.1	91.8
Strongly agree	23	8.2	8.2	100.0
Total	280	100.0	100.0	

The reward matches my work effort

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	8	2.9	2.9	2.9
Disagree	52	18.6	18.6	21.4
Neutral	77	27.5	27.5	48.9
Agree	133	47.5	47.5	96.4
Strongly agree	10	3.6	3.6	100.0
Total	280	100.0	100.0	



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