HRM PRACTICES AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE: THE MEDIATION EFFECT OF SELF EFFICACY, PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION AND CAREER OPPORTUNITY

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ABSTRACT

The main objective of this study was to empirically examine the influence of human resource management (HRM) practices (job rotation, training and development, compensation, job autonomy, communication and career planning) on the performance of Nigerian public sector employees. The study also explored the mediating role of self-efficacy, public service motivation and career opportunity on the relationship between HRM practices and employee performance. In addition, employee performance was measured in terms of task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance. Using cross sectional survey method, data was collected from 265 employees of local governments in North Western region of Nigeria. The data collected was analyzed using Partial Least Square Structural Equation modeling. Findings indicated that the HRM practices predict the three dimensions of employee performance differently. It was revealed that five HRM practices (job rotation, training & development, compensation, job autonomy and career planning) had significant and positive influence on employee task performance, while four HRM practices (job rotation, job autonomy, communication and career planning) influences both contextual and adaptive performance. Furthermore, the results indicated that self-efficacy, PSM and career opportunity mediates the relationship between HRM practices and employee performance. Specifically, self-efficacy fully mediated the relationship between job rotation and employee task performance, and partially mediates relationship between job rotation and employee adaptive performance. PSM mediates the relationship between job autonomy, and compensation, and all three employee performance dimensions. Moreover, career opportunity mediates relationship between communication and employee task and contextual performance. In general, the findings supported that HRM practices had positive direct and indirect influence on employee task, contextual and adaptive performance. The findings suggested that management of public sector organizations can encourage higher performance among employees directly through effective HRM practices and indirectly by promoting high self-efficacy, PSM and career opportunity.

Key words: human resource management practices, employee performance, career opportunity, public service motivation, self-efficacy

ABSTRAK

Objektif utama kajian ini adalah untuk menguji secara empirikal pengaruh amalan pengurusan sumber manusia (PSM) (pusingan pekerjaan, latihan dan pembangunan, imbuhan, autonomi pekerjaan, komunikasi dan perancangan kerjaya) ke atas prestasi pekerja sector awam Nigeria. Kajian ini juga menguji peranan efikasi kendiri, motivasi perkhidmatan awam, dan peluang kerjaya sebagai penengah dalam hubungan antara amalan PSM dan prestasi pekerja. Di samping itu, prestasi pekerja diukur dalam bentuk prestasi tugas, prestasi dalam konteks, dan prestasi penyesuaian diri. Menggunakan kaedah kajian keratin rentas, data telah dikumpulkan daripada 265 pekerja dari kerajaan tempatan daerah Barat-Utara Nigeria. Data yang dikumpulkan dianalisis menggunakan permodelan persamaan separa berstruktur terkecil. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa amalan PSM mempengaruhi ketiga-tiga dimensi prestasi pekerja secara berbeza. Dapatan mendedahkan bahawa lima amalan PSM (pusingan kerja, latihan & pengembangan, imbuhan, autonomi kerja, dan perancangan kerjaya) menpunyai hubungan yang positif dan signifikan ke atas prestasi tugas pekerja, sementara empat amalan PSM (pusingan kerja, autonomi kerja, komunikasi dan perancangan kerjaya) mempengaruhi kedua-dua prestasi dalam konteks dan penyesuaian diri. Selain itu, dapatan kajian juga menunjukkan bahawa efikasi kendiri, motivasi perkhidmatan awam dan peluang kerjaya adalah penengah kepada hubungan antara amalan PSM dan prestasi pekerja. Khususnya, efikasi kendiri merupakan penengah penuh kepada hubungan antara pusingan kerja dan prestasi tugas, dan penengah separa kepada hubungan antara pusingan pekerjaan dan prestasi penyesuaian diri. Motivasi perkhidmatan awam merupakan penengah kepada hubungan antara autonomi pekerjaan dan imbuhan, dan ketiga-tiga dimensi prestasi pekerja. Selain itu, peluang kerjaya pula merupakan penengah kepada hubungan antara komunikasi dan prestasi tugas serta prestasi dalam konteks. Umumnya, dapatan kajian menyokong bahawa amalan PSM mempunyai hubungan langsung dan tidak langsung ke atas prestasi tugas, dalam konteks dan penyesuaian diri pekerja. Dapatan menyarankan bahawa pihak pengurusan organisasi sector awam boleh menggalakkan prestasi tinggi dalam kalangan pekerja melalui amalan PSM yang efektif, dan secara tidak langsung dengan meningkatkan efikasi kendiri, motivasi perkhidmatan awam, dan peluang kerjaya.

Kata kunci: amalan pengurusan sumber manusia, prestasi pekerja, peluang kerjaya, motivasi perkhidmatan awam, efikasi kendiri.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AMO	Ability, Motivation, and Opportunity
AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
ADP PERF	Adaptive Performance
APM	Attraction to Policy Making
ASSCN	Association of Senior Civil Servant of Nigeria
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CBN	Central Bank of Nigeria
CM	Compassion
CMP	Compensation
CMV	Common Method Variance
CNN	Cable News Network
COM	Communication
COP	Career Opportunity
CPI	Commitment to Public Interest
CPL	Career Planning
CR	Composite Reliability
CTX PERF	Contextual Performance
CWB	Counterproductive Work Behavior
d/f	Degree of Freedom
D^2	Mahalanobis
DV	Dependent Variable
F^2	F Square

GoF	Goodness of Fit
HCM	Hierarchical Component Model
HND	Higher National Diploma
HOC	Higher Order Component
HPWS	High Performance Work System
HR	Human Resource
HRM	Human Resource Management
ICC	International Criminal Court
IV	Independent Variable
F^2	F-Square (Effect Size)
JRT	Job Rotation
KSAs	Knowledge Skills and Abilities
LISREL	Linear Structural Relations
LOCs	Lower Order Components
MDAs	Ministries, Departments and Agencies
MSI	Malaysian Service Industries
NA	Not Applicable
NGSES	New General Self-Efficacy Scale
OCB	Organization Citizenship Behavior
OYAGSB	Othman Yeop Abdallah Graduate School of Business
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
PLS	Partial Least Square
PS	Public Service
PSM	Public Service Motivation

Q^2	Q-Square (Construct Cross Validated Redundancy)
R^2	R-Squared Values
SDT	Self Determination Theory
SEF	Self Efficacy
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SERVICOM	Service Compact
SERAP	Socio-Economic Right and Accountability Project
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SSE	Squared prediction error
SSO	Squared Observations
Std.	Standard
Std. Div	Standard Deviation
SWT	*Subhanahu Wa Ta'ala*
T&D	Training and Development
TSK PERF	Task Performance
UK	United Kingdom
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
US	United States
VAF	Variance Accounted For
VIF	Variance Inflated Factor
WHO	World Health Organization

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

In recent years, the importance of employee performance and its popularity is at increase. Several factors, like globalization of the economy, increasing competitions among organizations, cross-border movement of goods and services, and technological advancement have forced organizations to think of ways to maintain, improve and optimize their employee performance (Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, van Buuren, van der Beek & de Vet, 2013).

Employees (human resource) are one of the most important assets of any organization as they contribute to its growth and success (Danish & Usman, 2010). Similarly, Goštautaitė (2014), considered human resources as an essential ingredient for organizational success when properly managed. Relatedly, Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg, and Kalleberg (2000), argued that the source of success and ways of achieving competitive advantage does not often come from the products and services, corporate strategy or technology alone, but rather from the organization's ability to attract and manage its human resource effectively and efficiently. Accordingly, successful organizations have employees who freely give their time and energy to perform their assigned job and responsibilities. They also go beyond their formal job responsibilities even though the altruism is neither prescribed nor required such efforts in order to make significant contribution towards the achievement of organizational objectives (Jahangir, Akbar, & Haq, 2004).

High performing employees allow for maximum achievement of goals and objectives, and above all enhancing financial profitability and competitive advantage (Sonnentag & Frese, 2002). This indicated that for any organization to attain their goals and also achieve competitive advantage, they need highly performing employees who can deliver the products and services they specialized into different customers and clients. On the other hand, to the individual employee, performance is also necessary. This is because the accomplishment of the task and also performing excellently can be a source of satisfaction, pride and feelings of mastery (Sonnentag & Frese, 2002). It is also considered a feeling of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997a; Kanfer, 2005). In addition, high performing individuals are honored, rapidly promoted and been awarded by their organizations. Besides, employees who perform well are far better than moderate or low performers as they have better career opportunities (RobertHalf, 2012).

In contrast, poor performance is costly to both the organizations and employees. To the organizations, it quickly drains budget and diminished productivity by about 30% to 40% (Sutton, 2011), increase turnover rate of top performers (Tyler, 2004) and lower morale (RobertHalf, 2012). To the employees, poor performance and inability to achieving goals might be regarded as dissatisfying or even seen as a personal failure (Sonnentag & Frese, 2002). Accordingly, poor performance also brings pains or injury. For instance, recently CNN reporters Lu and Hunt (2016), reported that about eight employees were publically spanked in China as a result of their poor performance. This indicates that employee must perform optimally especially in the public sectors were the demand for better goods and services are at increase.

The public sector is an institutions of governance and administration established mostly to provide goods and essential services to the general public in efficient and effective manner (Inyang & Akaegbu, 2014). Moreover, in modern governance, the public service is regarded as the nerve center of the machinery of government (Adegoroye, 2006). This indicates why the role of public sector organizations in the economic, political, and provisions of efficient social welfare goods and services are numerous (Ali, Ali, & Raza, 2011). For instance, efficient health care service deliveries, the provision of quality educational services and other social services are of immense importance to the general public. Therefore, public servants (employees) are expected to perform optimally in providing these services and many other services to the general public.

However, the performance of Nigerian public sector employees in the provisions of these very important services and many others are not satisfactory especially at the grassroot level of government (local government areas). There were too much public outcry on the employee performance and the declining standard of the quality and even quantity of service deliveries provided by government employees in Nigeria. Although public demands on government goods and services is at increase (Salisu, 2001), yet the quality and quantity of public goods and services are low. For instance, while the citizens of some African countries like Rwanda, Ethiopia, Namibia, South Africa, Zimbabwe, Kenya and Botswana acknowledged that their satisfaction with the quality of educational services provided by the public employees was 84%, 75%, 71%, 73%, 64%, 68% and 56% respectively, the situation in Nigeria as reported by the Human Development Report of UNDP (2015) was only 51%. Similarly, with regard to the quality of health care services provided by the public sector organizations, when in Rwanda, Ethiopia, Namibia, South Africa, Zimbabwe, Kenya and Botswana the quality was 80%, 58%, 58%, 57%, 57%,53% and 52%, but it was only 46% in Nigeria which is less than the average percentage. See Table 1.1 for details.

Table 1.1
Citizens' satisfaction with the quality of health care and educational services

S/N	Countries	Satisfaction with Education Quality	Satisfaction with Health Care Quality
01	Rwanda	84%	80%
02	Ethiopia	75%	58%
03	Namibia	71%	58%
04	South Africa	73%	57%
05	Zimbabwe	64%	57%
06	Kenya	68%	53%
07	Botswana	56%	52%
08	Nigeria	51%	46%

Source: Human Development Report of UNDP (2015)

As shown in Table 1.1, the performance of the Nigerian public sector employees as compared to other African countries within the continent in the area of education and health services are not satisfactory as reported by the citizens. Again, statistics from the World Health Performance Indicator by WHO (2000) shows that out of the

191 countries, Nigeria occupied number 187 position on health system attainment and performance and overall health system performance.

As a results of the poor performance of the Nigerian public sector employees, several reform measures were been introduced by different successive governments all with sole aim of improving the employee performance of public sector so that efficient service deliveries will be provided to the general public. For instance, from Nigerian independence in 1960 to 2013, there are number of reforms in the public sector and these include Morgan Commission of 1963; Elwood Commission of 1966; Adebo Commission of 1971; Udoji Commission of 1974; Dotun Phillips Commission of 1985; Civil Service Reforms Decree No 43 of 1988; Ayida Review Panel of 1994; Civil Service Reforms Under President Olusegun Obasanjo 1999-2007; and more recently the Steven Oransanya Daniel reform 2010-2013. Table 1.2 provided a summary of the reforms and their main focus and outcomes.

Table 1.2
Summary of Public Service Reform/Measures from 1963-2013

S/No	Period	Title of the Reforms	Focus/Outcome of the PS Reforms
01	1963	Morgan Commission	Reviewed salaries and wages in public service. Minimum wage introduced.
02	1966	Eldwood Commission	Determined appropriate or equitable grading system of public sector employees
03	1971	Adebo Commission	The commission reviewed the salaries and wages of the public sector employees. Also, restructured the entire civil service.
04	1974	Udoji Commission	Undertook compressive reform of the civil service in terms of organization, structure, and management
05	1985	Dotun Phillips Commission	Reviewed the methods of operations, structures, and composition of the public service.

06	1988	Civil Service Reforms Decree No 43 of 1988	Restructured and politicized the upper echelons of the civil service and political appointees introduced as accounting officers.
07	1994	Ayida Review Panel	Reversed the 1988 reforms, restored careerism and reversed permanent secretary cadre and structural changes.
08	1997-2007	Civil Service Reforms Under President Olusegun Obasanjo	Introduced SERVICOM (Agency for ensuring quality goods and services are delivered to the general public in the most efficient and effective manner in the public sector). Others include Pension reform; Monetization policy; Payroll reform; Updating public service rules and financial regulations.
09	2010 - 2013	Steven Oransanya Daniel	Reviewed organizational structure of the entire public service with a focus on rationalization of departments and ministries

Source: Adapted from Inyang and Akaegbu, (2014)

Despite the aforementioned reform, yet it has been advanced by practitioners and researchers that ineffectiveness and inefficiency in service delivery and poor attitude to work have been the bane of Nigerian public service poor performance (Suleiman, 2013). Equally important, Olusegun Obasanjo (now a former president of Nigeria) asserted that:

> *"Regrettably, Nigerians have for long been feeling deprived regarding the quality of service delivered by public service (employees). Public employees do not perform what is expected of them without external influence, and official files only move when there is an incentive. For too long, our public employees have been demonstrating the combined evils of corruption and inefficiency. Even though, this behaviors are impediments to their performance towards effective implementation of government policies" (Obasanjo, 2003).*

This led to the establishment of service compact (SERVICOM), an agency of government that was established to ensure that the public employee provide quality goods and services to general public in the most efficient and effective manner.

Moreover, the problem of inefficiency and poor performance in Nigerian public sector have become a serious issue to the people and government, and have attracted a lot of public commentary (Inyang & Akaegbu, 2014; Nwoye, 2002). These, coupled with other difficult to manage performance problem faced by public corporations in Nigeria led to government's decision of privatization and commercialization of some public owned organizations (Nwoye, 2002).

To address the persistent problem of poor performance of public sector employees, recently, Abdulraheem (2015) reported that the current Nigerian president Muhammadu Buhari like his predecessors asserted that for Nigeria to move forward, the Nigerian public service must be reformed so as to purged the vices of inefficiency, low productivity and indiscipline among public sector employees. He further stressed that his government will launch capacity building initiative that will strengthen employees at all levels and build a new system of employee performance management so as to address the present situation.

In addition, it has been a practice for public sector workers in Nigeria, to spend part of their official working hours in doing activities which are outside their assigned jobs and have no relevant to their jobs (Echu, 2008). Similarly, other commonly observed employee performance related problems include absenteeism, late coming to work, indiscipline, among others, all of which have added immensely to the poor or low performance of employees (Bambale, 2013b). Equally important, Onah (2012) acknowledges this unfortunate situation by asserting that less than satisfactory attention is given to issues of HRM in the public sector organizations in

Nigeria. Also, Fajana, Owoyemi, Elegbede, and Gbajumo-Sheriff (2011), noted that several other factors had affected HRM practices in Nigeria like lack of internal manpower to complete all necessary tasks and poor application of HRM practices. In this regard, Mukoro (2003) stressed that any organization(s) without a well tailored and structured HRM policies/practices risk poor performance of employees. From the above mentioned employee performance related problems and deficiencies in the Nigerian public sector, it is argued here that majority if not all the problems could be attributed to the lack of appropriate, effective and efficient HRM practices that can adequately address these unfortunate situations.

Reviewing the literature has shown that various factors have been studied in the past either at the organizational, individual/personal or job related levels in order to understand the factors that influence employee performance. At the individual level for instance, studies have focused on the individual personality (Abdullah, Omar, & Rashid, 2013; Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001; Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003), emotional intelligence (Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall, & Salovey, 2006; O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawver, & Story, 2011; Thomas, Tram, & O'hara, 2006), organizational commitment (Baptiste, 2008; Chen & Francesco, 2003; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989), and employee engagement (Anitha, 2014). There are also studies that considered job related factors like job stress (Kakkos & Trivellas, 2011), job satisfaction (Crossman & Abou-Zaki, 2003; Tsui, Lin, & Yu, 2013; Williams & Anderson, 1991). While, others explored organizational factors such as organizational politics (Pattnaik, Jethy, & Pradhan, 2012; Rahman, Hussain, & Haque, 2011), organizational culture (Khattak, Iqbal, &

Rajut, 2013; Marcoulides & Heck, 1993; Shahzad, Iqbal, & Gulzar, 2013), organizational tenure (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Thomas & Feldman, 2013), and HRM practices (Cho & Yoon, 2009; Gyensare & Asare, 2012; Jamil & Raja, 2011).

While these studies above are important and help us to understand the factors that influence employee performance, the studies were unable to explain the mechanisms through which the variables studied influences employee performance. Moreover, the few studies concerning the mediating effect of variables like commitment, job satisfaction and perceived organizational support are inconclusive (Alfes, Shantz, Truss, & Soane, 2013a). For instance, while some studies supported the mediating role of perceived organizational support and commitment, the study of Kuvaas (2008) revealed no evidence of mediating role of effective commitment on the relationship between HRM practices and employee performance. Also, the study of Snape and Redman (2010) did not support the mediating effect of perceived organizational support on HRM Practices and performance. This indicated that the results of these studies revealed mixed findings and further research is needed to explain the mechanism within which the relationship between HRM practices can influence employee performance (Alfes, Truss, Soane, Rees, & Gatenby, 2013b). In view of these, six HRM practices including job rotation, training & development, compensation, job autonomy, communication and career planning are considered.

These six HRM practices are important for employee performance, and there are several studies that have proven that. Nonetheless, there are also gaps in currently available literatures that need to be addressed. In relation to job rotation, previous studies revealed that job rotation have a significant positive link with employee performance (Hosseini, Sourati, & Kargar, 2015; Khan *et al.*, 2014). However, these are the only few studies that were conducted in this area. Therefore, more studies are required to explore the predictive influence of job rotation on performance, especially by focusing on the dimensions. In Nigeria, job rotation (internal transfer or general transfer) in the public organizations was characterized with the transfer of employees based on personal connections with the management. Whereby, employees with personal connections with the top management officials are transferred to lucrative positions, while those without such connections were posted to a hard- to stay duty post. A times employees are moved to another positions not for the purpose of learning or acquiring new skills and knowledge but rather for ethnic, religious or sectional considerations and favors (Ehiyamen, Abah, & Gberevbie, 2009). This kind of inappropriate transfers seriously affects the performance and also undermines the real motive of job rotation (Ekpe, 2014). Also, studies have established that training and development are strong predictors of employee performance (Snape & Redman, 2010; Tiwari, 2011). Nevertheless, the mechanism through which training and development enhance performance of employee received few attention (Kuvaas, 2008). In this regard, there is need for unlocking the so call black box (the missing link) to understand how training and development predict performance. Training and development practice in Nigerian public sector were not properly designed based on organizational and individual needs (Ndule, 2012). Moreover, the poor budgetary allocation on training and development which is between 1-5% of recurrent expenditure is too small to train employees to achieve the desired level of performance (Onah, 2012). Therefore, this leads to the low performance of employees in the public organizations. With regard to compensation and employee performance, studies revealed mixed findings. Some of the studies indicated a significant positive relationship (Samuel & Esther, 2013; Sopiah, 2013), while others revealed no relationship (Rizal, Idrus, Djumahir, & Mintarti, 2014). This indicated that further research is needed to understand the real relationship. Considering the economic situation, the compensation of Nigerian public sector employees (especially the salary and allowances) is inadequate when compared with the standard of living (UNPAN, 2004). Also, the frequent industrial actions (strikes) by the public sector labor unions in their agitation for a salary increase and better allowances have been negatively affecting their performance (Enoghase, 2014). In addition, despite the importance of job autonomy in promoting higher employee performance, yet, only limited studies investigate this relationship (Cho & Yoon, 2009; Saragih, 2011). However, findings from the study of Rasul and Rogger (2013) on job autonomy for Nigerian public sector employees provides support to the notion that public organizations ought to delegate some decision-making to employees. They rely on senior officials' (management) professionalism and expertise to deliver public services. However, this provided more chance for senior officials to engage in corrupt activities leading to fewer service deliveries (Rasul & Rogger, 2013). Thus, the need for further studies became imperative. Equally important, studies on communication practice and employee performance was not given the required attention, despite the fact that, effective communication in organization allow for the clear understanding of organizational policies and procedures that led to higher employee performance (Neves & Eisenberger, 2012). The major barrier to effective communication practice in the Nigerian public sector organizations are the public service rules & regulations and the oath of secrecy. The oath of secrecy prohibit employees from providing information without official permission. Thereby, making communication between the management and employees to be one way (from management to employees) not vice visa (Afinotan, 2009). Again, bureaucratic red-tapism (excessive administrative procedures) characterized by over-centralization of decisions negatively affect free flow of information in Nigerian public organizations (Afinotan, 2009). Lastly, literature have shown that presence of good career planning practice in organization promote higher employee performance (Akhter, Siddique, & Alam, 2013; Nadarasa, 2013), but still, the mechanism through which the influence came about remained unclear. Inspite of these, career planning in the Nigerian public organizations has been besseted with many problems. Employees are promoted mainly based on year of service (number of years spend on a particular rank or position) as against the principle of merit (Okafor, 2005). While this rule of promotion does not differentiate between a high performing employees and nonperforming employees. Also, in some cases, meritocracy in career advancement used to be sacrificed at the alter of tribalism, ethnicity, religious affinity and quota system (Ojo, 2014). This bring about indiscipline, late coming and other unwanted behaviours that negatively affect the performance of employees. For this reasons, studies are highly needed to explain the real mediating mechanism through which the influence of career planning on performance of employee could be clearly explained. To the knowledge of the researcher, no empirical study to date that examined relationship between the above six HRM practices and employee task, contextual and adaptive performance through the collective mediation of self-efficacy, public service motivation, and career opportunity.

Despite the presence of these aforementioned practical issues in the Nigerian public sector organizations that call for more studies on HRM practices and performance of employees, to date no studies that focused on the influence of HRM practices particularly job rotation, training & development, compensation, job autonomy, communication and career planning on the three dimensions of employee performance (task, contextual and adaptive) through the mediating effect of self efficacy, public service motivation and career opportunity within the context of Nigerian public sector organizations. Therefore, the need to empirically test these variables using established theories became imperative.

1.2 Problem Statement

Considering the immense contribution of employee performance in enhancing organizational effectiveness, improving employee performance has been one of the major concerns of managers, practitioners and researchers of organizational behaviors. There are many studies on employee performance (Ahmad & Shahzad, 2011; Akhter *et al.*, 2013; Cho & Yoon, 2009; Mahmood, Iqbal, & Sahu, 2014; Munjuri, 2011; Shahzad, Bashir, & Ramay, 2008; Suan & Nasurdin, 2014; Tessema & Soeters, 2006), and these studies measured employee performance by employing only one dimension (uni- dimension). They either used task performance alone or contextual performance only. Nonetheless, several scholars (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Koopmans *et al.*, 2011; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli, 1997; Williams & Anderson, 1991) who operationalized employee performance provided that a comprehensive measurement of employee performance is the one that comprises both the three dimensions of employee behavior (task, contextual and adaptive) without neglecting the other. This indicated that studies that used only one dimension had not captured the full measurement and meanings of employee performance. As performance at individual level consisted of both behaviours and actions of employees that are contained in their job descriptions, and also those behaviours that are outside (discretion) but yet enhances organizational effectiveness (Jawahar, 2008). Therefore, there is a need for more studies that will incorporate both task, contextual and adaptive dimensions when measuring employee performance. Based on that, the present study intends to address this gap by incorporating all the three dimensions of task, contextual and adaptive performance to provide a comprehensive measurement of employee performance which previous studies ignored. In this regard, this study is a departure from the previous studies that use employee performance as uni-dimensional construct.

Moreover, even though the amount of empirical studies on different HRM practices and employee performance are numerous, yet most of these studies (Ahmad & Shahzad, 2011; AL-Qudah, Osman, & Al-Qudah, 2014; Bowra, Sharif, Saeed, & Niazi, 2012; Nadarasa, 2013; Tiwari, 2011) investigated only the direct relationship without exploring the mechanisms (the fundamental reason why and how) the relationship existed. Although few attempts were made to test the mediation effect of variables like perceived organizational support (Snape & Redman, 2010) and affective commitment (Kuvaas, 2008), however, their findings revealed no mediating effect of these variables. Thus, the need for futher research in order to understand the best mechanism that can unearth the blackbox between HRM practices and performance at individual level became imperative. Following the suggestion of Jiang *et al.* (2012) on the possible mediation of ability, motivation and opportunity this study intends to empirically contribute to the HRM practices and employee performance literature by exploring the direct and indirect influences of HRM practices on employee performance through the mediation of self efficacy, public service motivation (PSM) and career opportunity.

Self-efficacy, PSM, and career opportunity are selected to be the mediating variables because they are considered to be more robust to represent employees AMO and previous studies have indicated that self-efficacy as a construct (Judge, Jackson, Shaw, Scott, & Rich, 2007), public service motivation (Petrovsky & Ritz, 2014) and career opportunity (Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden, & Bravo, 2011), are strong predictors of employee performance. Again, empirical studies have shown that HRM practices can increase self-efficacy, public service motivation, and positive perception of employees with regards to career opportunities in organization (Giauque, Anderfuhren-Biget, & Varone, 2013; Giran, Amin, & Halim, 2014; Mostafa, 2014).

However, in the Nigerian public sector there are several issues with regards to employees' self efficacy, public service motivation and career opportunity that need to be addressed. In relation to self efficacy, Bankole and Ajagun (2014) revealed that the low performance of most public servants is attributed to lack of confidence and weak self efficacy in relation to the work they performed. This weak self efficacy seriously undermine performance and affected the employes' ability to discharge their responsibilities effectively. With regard to public service motivation, Magbadelo (2016) asserted that the important dimensions of PSM like self sacrifice, compassion, commitment to public interest that promote high performance of employees have over the years been eroded among the Nigerian public employees leading to unsatisfactory performance. As a result of this, many employees believe that government work does not required them to exert more extra effort nor commitment at work (Emeh, 2012). Similarly, the career opportunity in the Nigerian public sector was basseted with unintended consequences that negatively affect performance of employees. For instance, career progression like promotion and advancement of employees were hindered and suppressed as a result of reckless and indiscriminant transfers of private sector employees to the public sectors. This practice had seriously obstructed the promotion and advancement (upward movement) of most serving officers who are often denied career opportunities. Again the unattractiveness of career opportunities in the public organizations had made it difficult for large number of educated, skilled and competent young Nigerians to take-up career appointments in the public sector. Thereby leaving the sector with incompetent and unproductive employees (Abbass, 2012). Therefore, based on the above mentioned supports, the present study was embarked upon to empirically test the possible mediation of self-efficacy, public service motivation, and career opportunity on the relationship between six HRM practices (job rotation, training & development, compensation, job autonomy, communication, and career planning) and employee task, contextual and adaptive performance in the Nigerian public sector organizations.

Although several empirical studies have investigated the role of HRM practices on performance at different level of analysis like organizational/unit level, individual/employee level and multi level, nevertheless, review of these studies between 1999-2003 and 2002-2013 as reported by Boselie, Dietz, and Boon (2005) and Jiang, Takeuchi, and Lepak (2013), indicated that between 1999-2003 majority of these studies which constituted 79% focused on organizational/establishment, while only 15% and 6% investigated performance at individual/employee level and multi-level respectively. Similarly, studies between 2002-2013 showed that studies on organizational/unit performance more attention with about 65%, whereas, studies on employee level and multi-level are left with only 14% and 21% respectively (Jiang *et al.*, 2013). This implied that studies at employee levels are limited and need more investigation. As several scholars (Ferris, Lian, Brown, Pang, & Keeping, 2010; Jalalkamali, Ali, Hyun, & Nikbin, 2016), supported that even the organizational performance that received more attention depend largely on the contribution and performance of individual employees. To fill this gap, the present study argued that more studies on employee level of analysis are required.

Furthermore, previous empirical studies on employee performance are more prevalent in the context of private sector organizations like banks (Baloch, Ali, Kiani, Ahsan, & Mufty, 2010; Bowra *et al.*, 2012; Güngör, 2011; Mahmood *et al.*, 2014), Cement industry (Akhter *et al.*, 2013), Telecommunication industries (Nadarasa, 2013; Riaz, Ayaz, Wain, & Sajid, 2012; Tiwari, 2011), Pharmaceuticals companies (Ali, Rahman, & Shah, 2014), cinema (Boxall, Ang, & Bartram, 2011) among others. While, the context of the public sector was neglected in the stream of academic literature. This indicated that studies on HRM practices and employee performance in the context of the public sector were scarce (Gould-Williams & Mohamed, 2010; Tabiu & Nura, 2013). Therefore, in order to address this gap in research between private and public sector, more research is needed especially in the public sector so as to find the real performance of public sector employees for more understanding and easy comparative analysis between the two important sectors (Safdar, 2011).

In addition, despite several empirical studies that investigated the influence of HRM on employee performance, yet most of these empirical researches were conducted in the United Kingdom (Alfes *et al.*, 2013b; Kuvaas, 2008; Snape & Redman, 2010), Netherland (Boon, Den Hartog, Boselie, & Paauwe, 2011), Australia (Boxall *et al.*, 2011), Ireland (Horgan & Mühlau, 2006), Malaysia (AL-Qudah *et al.*, 2014), Korea (Cho & Yoon, 2009), Pakistan (Mahmood *et al.*, 2014; Nadarasa, 2013) to mention few. While, the African continent and particularly Nigeria being most populous and the biggest economy in the continent received less attention. This indicated that, there is a paucity of studies on these important variables in the

African continent. Thus, employee performance needs further investigation more especially in the African context. Therefore, findings of the previous researchers cannot be generalizable to the African context particularly Nigeria as a result of differences in economy, culture, politics and other contextual factors.

1.3 Research Questions

Based on the problems discussed above, the present study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. Does HRM practices (job rotation, training and development, job autonomy, compensation, communication and career planning) relate to employee task performance?
2. Does HRM practices (job rotation, training and development, job autonomy, compensation, communication and career planning) relate to employee contextual performance?
3. Does HRM practices (job rotation, training and development, job autonomy, compensation, communication and career planning) relate to employee adaptive performance?
4. Does self-efficacy mediate the relationship between HRM practices (job rotation and training and development) and employee task performance?
5. Does self-efficacy mediate the relationship between HRM practices (job rotation and training and development) and employee contextual performance?

6. Does self-efficacy mediate the relationship between HRM practices (job rotation and training and development) and employee adaptive performance?
7. Does public service motivation mediate the relationship between HRM practices (job autonomy and compensation) and employee task performance?
8. Does public service motivation mediate the relationship between HRM practices (job autonomy and compensation) and employee contextual performance?
9. Does public service motivation mediate the relationship between HRM practices (job autonomy and compensation) and employee adaptive performance?
10. Does career opportunity mediate the relationship between HRM practices (communication, and career planning) and employee task performance?
11. Does career opportunity mediate the relationship between HRM practices (communication, and career planning) and employee contextual performance?
12. Does career opportunity mediate the relationship between HRM practices (communication, and career planning) and employee adaptive performance?

1.4 Research Objectives

Generally, this study aims to examine what influence employees' performance among public servant in Nigeria. Therefore, to answer the research questions posted above, the following research objectives were formulated:

1. To examine the relationship between HRM practices (job rotation, training and development, job autonomy, compensation, communication and career planning) and employee performance (task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance).
2. To investigate the mediating effects of self efficacy on the relationship between HRM practices (job rotation and training and development) and employee performance (task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance).
3. To investigate the mediating effects of public service motivation on the relationship between HRM practices (job autonomy and compensation) and employee performance (task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance).
4. To examine the mediating effect of career opportunity on the relationship between HRM practices (communication and career planning) and employee performance (task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance).

1.5 Scope of the Study

The present study intends to investigates the direct relationship between HRM practices and employees' performance. In this study, six HRM practices, namely job rotation, training and development, job autonomy, compensation, communication and career planning were tested in relation with the three dimensions of employee performance, namely task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance. Also, the study tested three mediating variables, namely self-efficacy, public service motivation and career opportunity.

The study was carried out in 27 local governmennts in the state of Jigawa, north western part of Nigeria. The Nigerian Public Service Rules (Amanded 2009), classified public sector employees into three groups: junior employees, senior employees and management staff based on their Grade Levels (GL). The junior staff are employees on GL 01-06. This group of employees are mostly labourers, cleaners and clerical staff who's highest qualification are primary and secondary school certifcates. The second group are the senior employees who are on GL 07-15 and their highest qualification ranged from advanced level certificate, Diploma, HND or Bachelor Degree, Master and PhD. The last and highest group are the management staff. This are officer on GL 16-17 who are Directors and Permanent Secretaries of different Departments, Agencies and Ministries. Their qualifications start from Bachelor Degree, Master and PhD couple with related professional courses/certificate. For this study, only senior employees (Grade Level 7 to 15) were selected as respondents. The study had not include the junior employees (grade level 1 to 6) as they do not have direct responsibility for the provision of goods and services. Employees from management positions such as Directors, HODs, sectional and unit heads are also excluded from this study as the aim of this study is to capture the perception of employees, not the management.

The study also employed quantitative research design and cross-sectional approach. Data for this study were all collected through the distribution of questionnaire. Unit of the analysis is employees in the public sector organizations. Local government employees are selected based on the fact that local government is the tier of government that is closer to the people. Again, majority of the Nigerian population resides in rural areas under the control of local government administration (National Population Commission, 2006). Additionally, the public sector in Nigeria used almost similar condition of service, public service rules & regulations, and scheme of service.

1.6 Significance of Study

It is hope that this study can make an effective contribution to our understanding of the best way to enhance employees' performance in organization. This study should benefit both scholars and practitioners regarding methods for increasing the employees' performance, and should also apply beyond the public sector context. These are explain next.

1.6.1 Theoretical Significance

Theoretically, this study will contribute immensely to human resource management, organizational behavior, organizational psychology and employee performance literature. Firstly, the study will make visible contributions by offering an empirical support on the mediating role of self-efficacy, public service motivation, and career opportunity on the relationship between HRM practices and three dimensions of employee performance (task, contextual and adaptive performance) in the public sector organizations. These three dimensions of employee performance were neglected by many studies that consider employee performance as uni-dimensional construct instead of multi- dimensional (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Koopmans *et al.*, 2011; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Tsui *et al.*, 1997; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Secondly, by using a combination of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964); Ability, Motivation and Opportunity (AMO) theory (Appelbaum *et al*, 2000); and Self Determinatio Theory [SDT] (Ryan and Deci, 2000), the study will offer understanding as to how these theories are applicable in explaining the relationship between HRM practices and employee performance among public sector employee. Thirdly, the present study will offer empirical evidence on the important influence of HRM practices (as perceived by the employees) on the employee performance, thereby contributing to the existing body of knowledge.

1.6.2 Practical Significance

From the practical perspective, the present study will be important to the public sector organizations and beyond, by providing a clear ways and mechanisms for improving employee performance. This can also lead to the attainment of a higher level of efficiency and effectiveness in service delivery in the public sector organizations and beyond. Secondly, the findings of this study will provide a directions, insides and guidelines to the policy makers, management and practitioners for the development of human resource management practices and policies that can arouse to enhance employee task, contextual and adaptive performance in the public sector. Thirdly, enhancing employee performance can also further enhances the effective functioning of the entire organization based on the fact that employee performance determines the overall organizational performance. Therefore, the study will provide a good empirical explanation on how the HRM practices as an organizational antecedents of employee performance can address the poor performance of employees through self efficacy, public service motivation and career opportuniy.

1.7 Definitions of Key Terms

1. **Compensation:** Compensation is referred to as the perception of employees with regards to the type of rewards provided to them in exchange of their performance compared to their counterparts within and outside their organization (Amin *et al.,* 2014).
2. **Job Autonomy:** Job autonomy is defined as the level or degree of independence and discretion provided to an employee regarding his/her job (Breaugh, 1999).
3. **Career Planning:** Career planning is operationally defined in this study as the HRM practice of planning and aligning the interest, skills,and knowledge of employees with the requirement and needs of the organization in order to achieve individual and organizational goals (Amin *et al*, 2014).
4. **Communication:** Communication is operationally defined as the degree to which employees considered or perceived the presence of open and easy ways of communicating ideas from employees to management and vice versa (Den Hartog, Boon, Verburg & Croon, 2013).

5. **Job Rotation:** Job rotation is defined as the perception of employees on lateral transfers between jobs within an organization in attempt to increase learning, experience and knowledg without change in ranks or salary increase (Tarus, 2014).

6. **Training and Development:** Training and Development is referred to as the degree to which employee perceived that their organization have provided them with the required training and development program (Lam *et al.,* 2009).

7. **Career opportunity:** Career opportunity is defined as perception of employee of the degree to which assigned responsibilities or work assignment and other important opportunities that match his/her career interest provided by present organization (Kraimer *et al.,*2011).

8. **Self-efficacy:** Self efficacy is defined as the employees' personal judgment with regard to how individual can perform an action required to take care of prospective situation (Bandura, 1982).

9. **Public Service Motivation:** Public service motivation is referred to as motives of employees to do goods for others and shape the well-being of society through self-sacrifice (Kim, 2009).

10. **Task Performance:** Task performance is defined as the employees' behavior that are directly linked the provision of goods and services, or other technical activities that provide direct support to the organizations' core technical process (Tsui *et al*, 1997).

11. **Contextual Performance:** Contextual Performance is defined as the employees' efforts (action and behaviors) that are outside their job description but yet enhances organizational effectiveness (Motowidlo and Van scotter 1994).

12. **Adaptive Performance:** Adaptive performance is defined as the actions of employees in adapting to changes or adjustment in response to changing conditions in their work environment (organization) or work role (Koopmans *et al.* 2013).

13. **Senior Employees:** Senior employees in this study refers to the group of employees who's position attract emoluments on Grade Level 07-15 and other posts that attract fixed emoluments of the equivalent Grade Levels in the Nigerian public service (Public Service Rules, 2009).

14. **Ability, Motivation and Opportunity Theory (AMO Theory):** The theory that emphasizes that employee performance is a function of employee ability, motivation and opportunity to perform (Appelbuam *et al.* 2000). In this study, self efficacy represents the ability component, public service motivation represents the motivation component and career opportunity represents the opportunity component respectively.

1.8 Organization of Chapters

This chapter is the first of five chapters in this thesis. Chapter 2 gives general review of the literature on employee performance. Discussion in Chapter 2 continues with past empirical findings on factors that might relate to employee performance. The chapter also discusses the research framework tested in the study and all the underpinning theories. The chapter concludes with the development of all the research hypotheses.

Chapter 3 describes the method for the study, namely the research design and procedure. The chapter reports the selection of participants, sample size and technique, and the development of questionnaire for the research. Chapter 3 ends with a brief description of the strategies and procedures that will be used to analyze the data that will be collected from the survey. Chapter 4 presents and analyses all the findings of both direct and indirect relationships. Lastly, chapter 5 discusses all the results in relation to the study objectives. Additionally, chapter 5 been the last chapter also offered practical, theoretical and methodological implications and ends by recommending and suggesting the directions for future research.

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The chapter two of this study presents and critically review the literature related to the study. Specifically, the chapter discusses the concept of employee performance and its dimensions, human resources management practices, self efficacy, public service motivation and perceived career opportunity. The highlights on the relationship between independent and dependents variables were been presented by reviewing empirical studies on employee task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance and human resources management (HRM) practices. The possible mediating effect of self-efficacy, career opportunity and public service motivation by synthesizing empirical studies on the HRM practices with employee task, contextual and adaptive performance. Also empirical studies on the link between self-efficacy, public service motivation, career opportunity and employee performance were systematically discussed.

2.2 Concept of Employee Performance

To understand the concept and meaning of employee performance, first there is a need to begin with understanding the concept and meaning of performance. There is no single universal definition of performance (Andersén, 2010). Therefore, performance as a concept has been viewed from different perspectives. For instance, performance from process perspective is viewed to involve the process of transformation from inputs to outputs in order to accomplish specific results. While, from the economic perspectives, performance focused only on the efficiency and effectiveness of the organization in managing their cost and outcome (Chien, 2004; Jarad, Yusof, & Shafiei, 2010). Different from above, some authors opined that in conceptualizing performance distinctions has to be made between action (i.e., behavioral) aspect of performance and outcome aspect of performance (Campbell, 1990; Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993; Kanfer, 1990). To emphasized on this, majority of the researchers on performance are of the view that employee performance is multidimensional (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Hesketh & Neal, 1999; Murphy & Shiarella, 1997). Based on the above arguments, the concept of performance is divided into two: output-oriented performance and behavior oriented performance. This study utilized the behavioral perspective of performance. Murphy (1989) and Campbell (1990) were the first authors that defined performance as behavior. Employee performance is typically conceptualized on a micro level as "actions and behaviors that are under the control of the individual that contribute to the goals of the organization" (Campbell, 1990; Murphy, 1989). Three notions accompanied the above conceptualization: Firstly, employee performance should be considered in terms of behavior rather than results. Secondly, employee performance includes only those behaviors that are relevant to the organization's goals, and thirdly, employee performance is multidimensional. In addition, , Muchinsky (2003) defined employee performance as set of workers behaviors that can be monitored, measured and assessed achievements at individual level.

Despites Murphy (1989) argument that employee performance should be defined as actions and behaviors rather than results or outcomes, however, scholars like Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) have argued that making a distinction between behaviors and results might be very difficult, hence the need to include result in conceptualizing employee performance. Upon this, Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) defined employee performance as "scalable behavior, actions and outcomes that employees engage in or bring about that are linked with and contribute to organizational goals. To support the above argument, Cardy and Leonard (2004) opined that, at the end of the day, the results or output of the behavior are more important to employer or the management than the activities that lead to those results.

Literature revealed that there are other labels used interchangeably with employee performance like job performance (Campbell, 1990), work performance (Nzama, De Beer, & Visser, 2008; Sargent & Terry, 1998), employee job performance (Zhang, Fan, & Zhu, 2014), individual work performance (Koopmans *et al.,* 2011); individual performance (Cappelli & Rogovsky, 1998; Sonnentag & Frese, 2002), etc. For the purpose of this study, employee performance will be used throughout. Moreover, all the other labels will be considered as one in this study, because they all refer to behaviors and actions that are under the control of individual employee that contribute to the effective achievement of organizational goals and objectives.

The next section will discuss the dimensions of employee performance. But only the dimensions that enhance organizational effectiveness will be utilized in this study.

2.2.1 Dimensions of Employee Performance

The multidimensional nature of human behavior and actions led to a situation were by different dimensions of employee performance have been put forward by different scholars. According to Devonish and Greenidge (2010) from the beginning, the concept of employee performance was restricted to cover only task-related behaviors. But later it goes beyond task performance alone.

Murphy (1989), identified four dimensions of employee performance which includes: (1) Task behavior (i.e, the behavior related to core task); (2) Interpersonal behaviors (the behavior related to interpersonal communication and cooperation with others in the organization); (3) Downtime behaviors (the behavior related to the avoidance of work or assign responsibilities); and (4) Destructive/Hazardous behaviors (the behaviors related to the damage, or productivity losses, and other setbacks which are detrimental to the organization).

Relatedly, Campbell (1990) provides a framework of performance that proposed eight dimensions: (1) Job-specific task proficiency; (2) Non–job-specific task proficiency; (3) Written and oral communications; (4) Demonstrating effort; (5) Maintaining personal discipline; (6) Facilitating peer and team performance; (7)

Supervision; and (8) Management and administration. To Campbell (1990) these eight listed dimensions are adequate to at general level describe the latent structure of performance. Yet, he also put forward that the listed factors may have other different patterns of sub-dimensions, and likely their content and saliency may also vary across jobs.

Different from the above two dimensions of Murphy (1989) and Campbell (1990) another dimensions were also developed by Viswesvaran (1993) which includes: Productivity; Quality of work; Job knowledge; Communication competence; Leadership; Effort; Administrative competence; Compliance with/acceptance of authority; and Interpersonal competence. Later, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) classified employee performance into only two dimensions: (1) Task performance, and (2) Contextual performance. In addition, Allworth and Hesketh (1999) also identified three dimensions which include: (1) Task performance; (2) Contextual performance; and (3) Adaptive performance. This was in line with the dimensions provided by Sonnentag, Volmer, and Spychala (2008) and Koopmans et al. (2013) respectively. Also, Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) provided two dimensions: (1) Task Performance and (2) Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). Equally important, three different dimensions of employee performance were also identified: (1) Task performance; (2) Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB); and (3) Counterproductive work behavior [CWB] (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Sackett, 2002).

However, while these aforementioned dimensions of employee performance are important and provided us with what really constitutes employee performance, yet a critical look shows that they only dwell around two or three distint dimensions (Koopmans *et al*., 2013). Firstly, some scholars (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Campbell, 1990), argued that employee performance can only be categorized based on the contribution towards organizational effectiveness. Secondly, based on the above argument, three dimensions of behaviors that prevails are the behavior that directly contributed to core organizational task, adaptive and non core organizational task behaviors that contributed towards achieving organizational effectiveness. Thirdly, going by Rotundo and Sackett (2002) argument on adding counterproductive work behaviors as another dimension, this study is of the view that counterproductive work behaviors do not contributed towards achieving organizational effectiveness but rather distract, therefore of no relevant to the present study. Based on these arguments, the present study considered only the three dimensions of employee performance (task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance) as provided by Borman and Motowidlo (1993), Tsui *et al.,* (1997) and Koopmans *et al.*, (2011) respectively.

2.2.1.1 Task Performance

Task performance is usually regarded as the first dimension of employee performance. Campbell (1990), defined task performance "as the proficiency or competency with which one performs central job task". Later, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) explained further by describing task performance "as behaviors that directly contribute to the organization's technical core" . Based on the above definitions, we can say that task performance, only involves behaviors in organization that are directly involved in the provisions of goods or services, or even activities that directly provide support to the functioning of organization's core technical processes. Simply put, task performance refers to the behaviors of employees performed in order to accomplish assigned task within their job description. For example, when employee uses his/her knowledge or technical skills to accomplish an assigned task he/she has engaged in task performance. Review of extant literature, revealed that there are some other labels that have been used for task performance, these includes: Task behavior (Murphy, 1989); Job-specific task proficiency, (Campbell *et al.*, 1990; Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007; Wisecarver, Carpenter, & Kilcullen, 2007); Technical proficiency (Campbell, Hanson, & Oppler, 2001; Lance, Teachout, & Donnelly, 1992); In-role performance (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004; Maxham, Netemeyer, & Lichtenstein, 2008); and more recently Individual Work Performance (Koopmans *et al.*, 2011). Campbell (1990), identified three examples of task performance which includes: job knowledge, work quality, and work quantity. For the purpose of this study, task performance will be used throughout.

2.2.1.2 Contextual Performance

Contextual performance is defined "as individual behaviors that support the organizational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must function"(Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Unlike task performance, here in contextual performance the behaviors are not part of the employee's formal job descriptions, but they are essential to the smooth functioning of the organization, likewise they are not necessarily part of the reward system. A good example of contextual performance includes: Helping and cooperating with other employees in the organization; voluntarily performing task activities that are not part of employee's assign responsibilities like coaching newcomers; supporting organizational objectives; following the organizational rules and procedures; demonstrating efforts and showing initiative (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

Several labels are also used interchangeably with contextual performance dimension in the literature, these includes: extra-role performance (Maxham *et al.*, 2008; Tabibi, Gohari, & Fallahdar, 2012); Citizenship Performance (Coleman & Borman, 2000; Organ, 1997); Non–job-specific task proficiency (Campbell, 1990); Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983); Non prescribe behavior (Orr, Sackett, & Mercer, 1989); Interpersonal relations (Murphy, 1989); Organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992) among others. In spite of the differences identified in the research approaches, traditions and objectives, all the aforementioned labels are related and have common features that are difficult to differentiate (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Organ, 1997). Additionally, they all explained behaviors that are beyond employees' formal job descriptions but yet enhances organizational effectiveness. Therefore, in this study contextual performance will be used throughout and all similar construct will be regarded as contextual performance.

2.2.1.3 Adaptive Performance

Adaptive performance is another dimension of employee performance , even though it was not initially included (Sonnentag *et al.*, 2008). Adaptive performance simply refers to the behaviors of employees in acquiring competencies so as to adapt to the new changes in relation to job requirements (Shoss, Witt, & Vera, 2012). In other word, adaptive performance is defined as the behavior of employees in an organization aim at meeting the demands of their environment, new situations or events (Pulakos, Arad, Donovan, & Plamondon, 2000).The recent environmental changes and the dynamic nature of organizations have created the needs for adaptive performance. Although, adaptability as a concept is not new, but rapid changes in modern organizations have made sponsors of research, practitioners and academicians to became more interested in understanding and promoting adaptability in the work place (Pulakos *et al.*, 2000). For instance, the technological advancement and automations have altered the nature of work/jobs. Thereby, requiring the employee to adapts new behaviors for acquiring knowledge and new ways and methods in performing their jobs.

Similar to other dimensions, numerous scholars also refer to adaptive performance using different names (Sonnentag *et al.*, 2008). For instance, Hesketh and Neal (1999) used the term adaptive performance. While, Murphy and Jackson (1999) label it as role flexibility, but London and Mone (1999) used the term proficiency of integrating new learning experiences in describing adaptive performance.

2.3 Antecedents of Employee Performance

Review of extant literature on employee performance indicated that the antecedents of employee performance are numerous. These antecedents of employee performance can be classified in to individual factors, job related factors, and organizational factors.

2.3.1 Individual Factors

Individual factors are essentially the personal attributes of individual employee that influence his/her performance in organization. Several studies have examined the relationship between individual factors and employee performance. Some of the individual/ personal factors that were studied include: personality (Abdullah *et al.*, 2013; Barrick *et al.*, 2001; Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003), emotional intelligence (Cote & Miners, 2006; Hanzaee & Mirvaisi, 2013; Kumar, 2014; Shahzad, Sarmad, Abbas, & Muhammad, 2011; Shooshtarian, Ameli, & Amini Lari, 2013; Thomas *et al.*, 2006) organizational commitment (Folorunso, Adewale, & Abodunde, 2014; Memari, Mahdieh, & Marnani, 2013; Qaisar, Rehman, & Suffyan, 2012; Susanty, Miradipta, & Jie, 2013) engagement (Anitha, 2014). All the individual factor have shown positive relationship with employee performance. However, personality was the only individual factor that was found to have significant positive influence in one study (Abdullah *et al.*, 2013) and also shows no relationship in another study (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003).

2.3.2 Job Related Factors

The job related factors are also another group of the antecedents of employee performance. Job related factors are the factors that are linked with the job which the individual employee performed. Some of the job related factors investigated in relation with employee performance include: job satisfaction (Perera, Khatibi, Navaratna, & Chinna, 2014; Pushpakumari, 2008; Wright, Cropanzano, & Bonett, 2007; Yvonne, Rahman, & Long, 2014), job stress (Chen, 2009; Yozgat, Yurtkoru, & Bilginoğlu, 2013), job experience (Kolz, Mcfarland, & Silverman, 1998; Kotur & Anbazhagan, 2014). All the job related factors revealed positive relations with employee performance with the exception of job stress that revealed negative relationship with employee performance (Chen, 2009; Yozgat *et al.*, 2013).

2.3.3 Organizational Factors

The organizational factors are the attributes or characteristics of organization that enables an environment for high employee performance. A number of empirical studies also examined organizational factors in relation to employee performance in organization. Some of these include: organizational politics (Bodla, Afza, & Danish, 2014; Enyinna, Lazarus, & Ukpai, 2014; Rahman *et al.*, 2011), organizational culture (Agwu, 2013; Khattak *et al.*, 2013; Ojo, 2009), organizational tenure (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Thomas & Feldman, 2013); leadership (Abbas & Yaqoob, 2009; Kaiman, 2013; Raja & Palanichamy, 2011; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007) and human resource management practices (Cho & Yoon, 2009;

Gyensare & Asare, 2012; Jamil & Raja, 2011). All the organizational factors indicated positive relationship with employee performance.

From the above organizational factors, it revealed that there are many factors at organizational level that influence employee performance. Nevertherless, the present study considered organizational factors that can be implemented by the management of organization as the most appropriate factor that encourage high employee performance. Thus, the present study chooses to focused on effects of HRM practices on employee performance.

The main justification for choosing HRM practices among the organizational factors to be capable of providing a lasting solution to the employee performance related problem in the present study, was based on the fact that most of the practical issues raised were highly related to either poor utilization of HRM policies, ineffective HRM practices and strategies (Briggs, 2007; Ndule, 2012; Onah 2012), or even absence of a good combination of indigenous HRM practices capable of promoting high performance among public sector employees (Fajana *et al*, 2011; Suleiman, 2013). As Fajana *et al*, (2011) asserted that studies on HRM in Nigeria is still at infancy level when compared with other western and some Asian countries. Therefore, further research is highly required in the area.

The importance of HRM practices in enhancing high employee performance and organizational effectiveness is well documented in the literature (Alfes *et al.*, 2013b; Appelbaum *et al.*, 2000; Sun, Aryee, & Law, 2007). Rigorous recruitment and selection practice is very vital for employing staff that fit with the current and future needs and requirements of organizations. Effective recruitment and selection practice also allows for the creation of positive work environment were skilled employee will perform positively towards achieving organizational goals (McClean & Collins, 2011).

Comprehensive training & development of employee equipped them with the up to date skills, knowledge, and competencies to handle their assigned tasks in the most efficient and effective ways. This kind of training and development opportunities enables the employees to be high performers and committed in discharging their duties (Iverson and Zatzick, 2007). Prior studies, have also established that systematic training and development lead to high employee performance (Dysvik and Kuvaas, 2008; Nadarasa, 2013). However, training & development practice in Nigerian public sectors were not properly designed in line with organizational and employee training needs but rather based on personal ties and partiality (Onah, 2012). This practice over the years had deteriorated the skills, knowledge and performance of employees (Inyang & Akaegbu, 2014). Again, the poor budgetary allocations of public organizations on employee training & development which was reported to be only 1 percent to 5 percent of recurrent expenditure had made it difficult for many organizations to provide their employees with the required training & development opportunities that will enable the employees to provide the desired results (Ndulue, 2012; Onah, 2012).

In addition, provision of adequate compensation packages (both financial and non-financial rewards), to the employees make them to feel that they are fairly rewarded and induces them to respond with good performance (McClean & Collins, 2011). Good compensation practices have been proved to be among the effective HRM practices that increases higher performance of employees in organization (Muogbo, 2013). Also, several empirical studies, have supported that compensation practice enhance positive employee performance (Baloch *et al.,* 2010; Tiwari, 2011; Sophia, 2013). On the contrary, the remuneration of Nigerian public employees is very low when compared with that of private sector employees (Oyesina, 2016). The low remuneration, poor salary structure and other fringe benefits in the public organizations have been causing frequent strikes that seriously affect the quality and quantity of goods and services provided by the public sector employees (Enoghase, 2014).

Job autonomy practice provides workers with freedom, discretion, and independence to use personal initiatives when carrying out their work assignments (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). This gives employees the feeling of being trusted by their organization and encourages them to exert more effort to achieve its goals. Studies on job autonomy have also proved that job autonomy as HRM practice significantly increases employee performance (Cho and Yoon, 2009; Gellatley & Irving, 2001). Nevertheless, in the Nigerian public organizations, excessive bureaucratic red-tapism and heavy reliance on management expertise had always been denying other employees the required job autonomy in executing their jobs. While it allowed the management official the chances of engaging in different corrupt activities leading to low and poor service deliveries (Rasul & Rogger, 2013).

Furthermore, effective communication practice within the organization enables the employees to understand and appreciate the major reasons for all organizational decisions and procedures. This will increase their commitment and trust to exert more extra efforts (Den Hartog, Boon, Verburg, & Croon, 2013). Contrarily, the hierarchical procedures as practiced in the Nigerian public sectors have over the years reduced the free flow of information/communication and understanding between officers and subordinates by making the practice a one way approach not vice visa. Thereby, affecting the effectiveness of communication practice and reducing the performance of employees (Afinotan, 2009).

In another development, empirical studies have shown that job rotation as HRM practice is a strong predictor of employee performance (Khan, 2014; Hossein, 2015). Again, Rashki, (2014) asserted that the practice of moving employees from one duty post to another within the organization promote higher level of performance and also enables the employee to acquire new knowledge, skills and competences. But, job rotation in the Nigerian public sector is characterized by indiscriminant transfer of employee from one duty post to another without due consideration to learning of new skill or knowledge. This obviously created many performance related challenges like low quality of services and poor deliveries (Dogarawa, 2011). While, in some instances, the rotation of employees were done as punitive measures rather than been a practice of learning of new knowledge and skills (Adomi, 2006). While, in most cases this inappropriate rotation of employees lowered their performance and diminished morale and creativity (Ekpe, 2014).

Similarly, provision of good career planning practice that provides promotion and other career progress opportunities within the organization strengthens the feeling of employees that their organization is really concerned about their career advancement and progression (Amin *et al.* 2014). Promotion practice also serves as a signal to all employees that organization cared about their development as such induces them to exert more efforts (McClean & Collins, 2011). Contrarily in Nigeria, career planning as practiced in the public sector organizations is faulty and ineffective. For example, the appointments and transferring officers from private sectors to the public sectors had been obstructing the career progressions of many serving public officers. As a result of this appointments and transfers many serving public officers are denied promotion and thereby became demoralized and unproductive (Magbadelo, 2016).

Based on the above discussed importance of HRM practices in influencing employee performance and the issues raised related to their misapplication, the present study intend to explain how the HRM practice influence employee task, adaptive and contextual performance through the mediation of self efficacy, public service motivation, and perceived career opportunity in the Nigerian public sector organizations.

2.4 Concept of HRM

According to Boxall and Purcell (2003), the term HRM simply refers to “all those activities associated with the management of employment relationships in the firm” (Boxall and Purcell, 2003) . While on the other hand, HRM is a term used to represent “that part of an organization’s activities concerned with the recruitment, development and management of its employees” (Wood & Wall, 2002). An all encompassing definition of HRM was the one provided by Watson, (2010) who defined HRM as “the managerial utilization of the efforts, knowledge, capabilities and committed behaviors which people contribute to an authoritatively co-ordinated human enterprise as part of an employment exchange (or more temporary contractual arrangement) to carry out work tasks in a way which enables the enterprise to continue into the future” (Watson, 2010). In summary, human resource management simply refers to a branch of organizational science that entirely deals with the employment relationship and all the decisions, policies, and practices associated with that relationship (Dulebohn & Werling, 2007).

2.5 HRM Practices

Over the years, there is no agreement among the scholars, researchers and practitioners on what comprises HRM practices (Boxall & Macky, 2009). Countless and varied lists of HRM practices have been proposed by different scholars and practitioners. All these accounted that there is no single agreement on which or what group of practice or bundles of practices will be regarded as qualified aspect of HRM practice (Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Mills, & Walton, 1984; Boselie *et al.*, 2005). For example, Boselie *et al.* (2005), in their review of 104 empirical studies on HRM and performance relation have identified about 26 different HRM practices used in different studies between 1994 to 2004.

HRM practice refers to "organizational activities directed at managing the pool of human resources and ensuring that the resources is employed towards the fulfillment of organizational goals" (Schuler & Jackson, 1987). This suggest that managing employees to perform optimally in the attainment of organizational objectives is an important activity.

Review of extant literature indicated that, detail description of the 'bundle' of HRM practices considerably varies across studies (Boselie *et al.*, 2005; Wood & Wall, 2007). This led to different conceptualization of the bundles of HRM practices. For examples, high investment HRM practices (Lepak, Taylor, Tekleab, Marrone, & Cohen, 2007) , high involvement HRM practices (Guthrie, 2001), high performance work practices HPWP (Becker & Huselid, 1998), high commitment HRM practices (Arthur, 1994).

Researchers (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Purcell & Kinnie, 2007; Wright & Nishii, 2007), in their studies have identify the causal chain that can unlocked the black box to provide a clear mechanism through which the HRM practices influence perfomance at both employee and organizational level, goes beyond just looking at the mere presence of HRM practices alone and provided a distiction between the intended, actual and implemented HRM practices (Guest, 2011).

I. **Intended HRM Practices:** These are defined as the HRM practices and policies designed by the organization as contained in policy and strategy documents. These are HRM practices that are designed at the strategic levels which are influenced by the nature of the organizational activities and its work structures. Scholars like Den Hartog, Boselie, and Paauwe (2004), refer to the organizational HRM practice as ' *signals'* of the organizations' intentions towards its employees, which the employees perceived and interpreted as such (i. e. *signals*).

II. **Actual HRM Practices:** These are the HRM practices that are actually implemented in the organization, mostly by HRM departments, managers and line managers. HRM literature suggested that there is always gaps between the intended HRM practices and the actual (implemented) HRM practices (Khilji & Wang, 2006). But when the intended HRM practices and implemented HRM practices are congruent, then employee become satisfied and performance at both employee and organizational levels is higher (Khilji & Wang, 2006).

III. **Perceived HRM practices** – These are the HRM practices as perceived by the employee. The way and manner in which employees perceive HRM practices determines their performance (Alfes *et al.*, 2013a; Alfes *et al.*, 2013b). The employee perceptions of HRM practices usually differ regarding to individual employees' expectations of their respective organization; the organizational climate; employee beliefs; their prior and present job experiences (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Den Hartog *et al.*, 2004). A positive perception of the HRM practices directly influence employee behavioral outcomes and is suggested by social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). This shows the presence of norm of reciprocity. When employees are treated with good gesture by either a person or an entity (organization), they feel a sense of obligation to reciprocate. Therefore, in HRM context, this indicated that perceived investments in HRM practices by employee might give employees a feeling that the organization values their contributions and cares about their wellbeing, which will elicit positive employee attitudes and behaviour. So if people have very positive perceptions about their training or career opportunities, it can be expected to affect their job satisfaction and commitment to the organization (Khilji & Wang, 2006).

Again, some scholars (Khilji & Wang, 2006; Wright & Nishii, 2007), apart from highlighting the need to differentiate between intended and implemented practices also argued that collecting data by just asking the HRM department or managers about the presence of practices may be misleading. There is the tendency that the HRM department or managers (both HRM and line managers) have not implemented the HRM practices or might have implemented them badly (Guest, 2011). Therefore, the best is to rely on the perception of employee with regards to their experience about the practice rather than relying on the present or absence of the practices (Wright & Nishii, 2007). Additionally, focusing on how the employee perceived HRM practices instead of depending on the intention behind the practices at the management level as expected by HRM professional is more important

(Nishii, Lepak, & Schneider, 2008). It is also suggested that, in assessing the influence of HRM practice on micro-level, the best is to concentrate on employee level which is more proximal and serve as an intermediary between HRM and organizational level performance (Paauwe, 2009).

Based on the above arguments, this study solely focused on the perception of employee with regards to the HRM practices not just the present or absence of the practice. Moreover, a mere reliance on the presence of HRM policy or practice would not be enough to provide sufficient employee experiences about HRM in organization (Conway & Monks, 2009). Also, it was observed that individual employee's perceptions with regards to the aims and influence of HRM practices and policies vary inevitably (Nishii *et al.*, 2008).

The number or types of HRM practices that a single study should examine has for long been a subject of several debates in the literature of HRM. Nevertheless, scholars unanimously agreed that certain HRM practices do improved the employees' abilities, whereas some HRM practices enhances the employees' motivation and similarly other practices focuses mainly on enhancing the opportunities of employees (Gardner, Wright, & Moynihan, 2011; Jiang *et al.*, 2012; Lepak, Liao, Chung, & Harden, 2006). In this regards, the practices that are found to be ability enhancing includes: recruitment & selection ; training & development ; job rotation (Casad, 2012). Relatedly, the practices believe to have enhances employee motivation are practices like compensation, performance appraisal, job autonomy (Jiang *et al.*, 2012). Also, practices such as communication/information sharing, career planning, job design enhances employees' opportunities (Gardner *et al.*, 2011; Jiang *et al.*, 2012).

2.5.1 Job Rotation

Job rotation is the movement of employees to work at different tasks or positions for a set periods of time in a planned way, using lateral transfers with the aim of allowing employees to acquire a range of knowledge skills, and competencies. (Jorgensen, Davis, Kotowski, Aedla, & Dunning, 2005). When the employees are transferred from one job position to another within an organization, be it inter-departmental or inter- unit, the practice is called job rotation. Under job rotation practice, the jobs remains unchanged but the workers performing the jobs are shifted from one job to another. Job rotation gives employees the opportunities to learn multiple skills, knowledge and outlooks (Eguchi, 2005). Job rotation is increasingly becoming an important HRM strategy that allows employees to learn, develop new skills and extend their organizational networks. Periodical job rotation practice for employees in the organization also concretises their feelings of 'careers as lifelong learning'. It also supports the idea that employees career aspirations may not only be tied in with vertical moves and promotions alone. It is also associated with gaining a new and different knowledge and experiences laterally (De Vos, Dewettinck, & Buyens, 2008). In their study, Jans and Frazer-Jans (2004) found out that job rotation enhances learning, growth and employees perfomance. They also revealed that the longer the period employee spend in a give task, the higher the performace reported.

The study of Foss *et al* (2009), revealed that job rotation and reassignment of employees within the organization, from one duty post, department or unit to another enables the current department/unit to benefits from the previous skills and knowledge the employees possess. Job rotation has also been found to have a relationship with the decrease of stress or boredom level that lead to boost the motivation level among the employees (Jorgensen *et al.* 2005). Furthermore, Kaymaz (2010) argued that job rotation is one of the most effective ways of developing employees abilities, knowledge, skills and motivation.

2.5.2 Training and Development

Training is defined as "the systematic acquisition and development of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes required by employees to adequately perform a task or job or to improve performance in the job environment" (Latham, 1988). Development is much broader than training and usually has a longer term focus. It is concerned with the enhancement of an individual's personal portfolio of knowledge, skills, and abilities [i.e. competencies] (Truss, Mankin, & Kelliher, 2012). Training & development of employee is one of the ways through which an organization can use to socialized and motivate its employees and also equip them with necessary knowledge, skills and abilities that are required in accomplishing the organizational goal (Cappelli, Singh, Singh, & Useem, 2010).

Training & development is regarded as one of the most widespread HRM practices (Boselie *et al.*, 2005). The overall focus of training and development in an organization is improving the individual, team and organizational effectiveness (Kraiger & Ford, 2007). Improved capabilities, knowledge and skills of the talented workforce proved to be a major source of competitive advantage in a global market (McKinsey, 2006). To develop the desired knowledge, skills and abilities of the employees so as to perform well on the job, requires effective training and development programs. Researchers considered job rotation, training and development as HRM practices that improved workforce KSAs (Combs, Liu, Hall, & Ketchen, 2006; Subramony, 2009). Similarly, Jiang *et al* (2012) supported the assertion by considering the two HRM practices as ability enhancing HRM practices.

Several empirical studies have examined the relationship between training & development and employee performance. For instance, Amin, Rashid Saeed, and Lodhi (2013), conducted a study in the educational sector in Pakistan on the effect of training & development on employee performance. Regression analysis also indicated that training & development have positive impact on employee performance. Similarly, Khan (2012) studied the impact of training and motivation on employee performance. The findings from both correlation analysis and regression revealed that all the two independent variables i.e training and motivation are positively related with employee performance and also have an impact on employee performance. this was in line with the research of Jagero, Komba, and Mlingi (2012) which found that on-the-job training as HRM practice has strong positive relationship with employee performance. In addition, Sultana, Irum, Ahmed, and Mehmood (2012) in a study conducted in the telecommunication sector in Pakistan, studied the effect of training on employee performance using a sample size of 360 employees of five telecommunication companies. The result of their study revealed positive and significant relationship between training and employee performance. The study concluded that investing in the right type of employee training in an organization can be an important strategy for enhancing positive employee performance. Moreover, recent studies by Falola, Osibanjo, and Ojo (2014), and Issahaku, Ahmed, and Bewa-Erinibe (2014) all indicated that training influence employee performance.

2.5.3 Compensation

As one of the important HRM practice, compensation was defined in several ways by different scholar. Milkovich and Newman (1999) defined compensation as all forms of financial returns and tangible benefits which employee receives as a part of an employment contract. However, this definition is deficient as it does not consider other parts of compensation like non-financial aspects. To John, (2003) compensation simply refers to HRM practice that deals with all type of rewards that employees receive in an exchange for what they have performed towards achieving organizational objectives.

Compensation practices vary significantly across organizations and to some extent, across jobs. Many scholars argued that compensation should be a package comprising financial and non-financial, direct and indirect rewards (Namasivayam, Miao, & Zhao, 2007; Sturman, 2001). Specifically, it was argued that a typical compensation package should include: bonuses, base pay, commissions, profit sharing, overtime pay, merit pay, stock options, travel and meals, housing allowance. And other benefits include: dental, insurance, medical, vacation, leaves, retirement, tax freedom (Atchison et al., 2010; Noe et al., 1994). Compensation also embraces non-monetary benefits like social security, health care plans, pension or retirement plans, insurance, family and medical leave (Bernadin, 2007). Compensation packages such as severance pay, vacations and sabbatical, holidays and workers' compensation are legally mandated to be enjoyed by employees (Cascio, 2003). The major aim of all these compensation packages is that they are often designed by organisations in order to enhance employees performance (Samuel & Esther, 2013).

Compensation as HRM practice has been studied and was found to have positive link with employee performance. The study by Oluigbo and Anyiam (2014), Samuel and Esther (2013) and Sopiah (2013), all revealed positive significant relationship between compensation and employee performance. However, contrary to the above studies, the study of of Rizal *et al.* (2014), indicated that compensation has no effect on employee performance, but have significant effect on motivation and organizational commitment. The possible and simple explanation for this mixed finding was that, while the studies that found positive relationships used correlation, chi square and regression in their tools which are all first generation statistical tools for analysis, the study that found no relationship used SEM which is a second generation statistical method.

In general, despite some inconsistencies in the findings, yet majority of the above studies demonstrated that there is a positive relationship between the compensation practice which is one of independent variable in the present study and employee performance.

2.5.4 Job Autonomy

Job autonomy is regarded as the degree to which the job of an individual employee provides him/her with substantial discretion, freedom, and independence in scheduling the work, and also allows him/her to determine the procedures that will be used in conducting the job. Breaugh (1999) argued that, even though the importance of job autonomy has been widely acknowledged, yet researchers have been conceptualizing this variable in different ways. For example, Hackman and Oldham (1975), conceptualized job autonomy as the degree or level to which the work of an employee allows him substantial discretion and freedom in scheduling the job and determine the ways and procedure that will be use in conducting the work. From the above, it could be clearly understood that autonomy enable the employee to determine and schedule their work procedure. In another way, Breaugh (1999) defined autonomy as, the level or degree of independence and dicreation provided to an employee regarding his/her job. Although, jobs that provide a high level of autonomy enhance a good sense of responsibility greater job satisfaction to the employee(s). It is not all employees that prefer a job with the higher level of responsibility and freedom. As some, employees prefer micromanagement by their superiors, while large number of employees preferred autonomy in their work.

The study by Cho and Yoon (2009) proposed that a positive significant link is expected between autonomy and employee performance in organization. Their argument is that, when employees are accorded with freedom of conducting their assign duties based on their own discretion, it will enable them to acquire more knowledge, skills and competence that will help them to increase their individual performance. Langfred and Moye (2004), suggested that autonomy may affect employee performance as a result of issues concerning information and decision making. They argued that informational benefits are anticipated from enabling participation in work-related decisions. This is possible when individual performing the task have information concerning the task which is not available to his supervisor. A high level of perceived autonomy by employees sends message that the management has confidence in the capability of the employee therefore enable the employees to carry out his job the way he wish to with good performance (Saragih, 2011).

2.5.5 Communication

Communication practice as one of the HRM practices that make it easier for an organization to connect with their employees. Communication practice simply refers to the exchange of organizational information (policies, procedures, and practices) between organization and employees about their job (Kehoe & Wright, 2013). It is also defined as the process of exchanging information from one person (employee) to another, via understandable signals or symbols (Leković & Berber, 2014). Communication in organizations establishes positive relationships and also frames attitudes and behaviors of employees in the workplace (Wyatt, 2006). An open and active communication practice between the employer/management and employees is a good way to increase employee's performance (both task, adaptive and contextual). As provision of adequate organizational information to the employees about their job enables them to know what is expected of them thereby reduce uncertainties (Kernan & Hanges, 2002). It also helps the employees to know what is offered by the organization and the reasons behind organizational decisions (policies and practices) and enacted procedures (Kehoe & Wright, 2013). When organizational information from managers/supervisors is inconsistent and confusing to the employees, there will be less clarity and many uncertainties about organizational issues. Therefore, employees might likely rely on their own subjective perceptions in interpreting organizational actions (Nishii *et al.,* 2008). But when the messages sent from managers/supervisors to employees are very clear, sufficient, and consistent, then the employees are more likely to have accurate insight on organizational policies, procedures and other practices. Communication practice within the organization serve as signals to the employee that their organization cares about their well-being and values their contributions (Neves & Eisenberger, 2012).

2.5.6 Career Planning

Career planning is the HRM practice that aligns the individual employee's interests, knowledge and skills with the needs of the organization which in turn leads to the improvement of individual and organizational performance (Nwuche & Awa, 2011). Career planning as HRM practice represents the deliberate method in which an employee becomes aware of his/her personal skills, knowledge, motivations, interests and other characteristics; possess information regarding opportunities and choices; discovers career-related goals; and institutes action plans to achieve specific goals (Abdulkadir, Isiaka, & Adedoyin, 2012).

Career planning from the organizational perspectives refers to the process by which the organization or the management determines the career paths that employees follow in the course of their professional life in the organization. While, from the employee's perspectives, career planning refers to the process through which the employees make a selection on the career goals and paths to attain those goals.
Several empirical studies have established that career planning positively influences the performance of both individual employees and organization performance (Amin, Ismail, Abdul Rasid, & Selemani, 2014; Khalid, AbdulRehman, & Ilyas, 2014). Planning for a career and searching potential career options are actions designed to implement one's goals to progress and development (Rogers, Creed, & Glendon, 2008). Career planning also help in balancing the preferences and abilities of the employees and the requests of the organization.

2.6 Mediating Variables

The basis of the mediating mechanism in the present study is the Ability, Motivation, and Opportunity (AMO) theory (Appelbuam *et al,* 2000). The AMO framework provides certain common attributes about how human resource management is operationalized in explaining the relationship between HRM and performance (Paauwe, 2009). AMO focuses on the importance of taking into account variables at the individual level, like employees' skills and competences [A = Abilities], their motivation [M = Motivation] and their opportunity to participate [O = Opportunity] . To have a good picture of AMO theory, Purcell *et al* (2003) explained that employees perform better in the organization when:

i. they are able to do so (Ability);

ii. they have the motivation to do so (Motivation);

iii. their work environment provides the necessary support and avenues for expression (Opportunity) to do so.

Based on the above, it shows that employees capability determines the upper limit of performance, while motivation influences the degree to which this capability is turned into action, and opportunity refers to enhancing avenues for the capability of employees to be expressed and to the removal of barriers that may prevent workers from utilizing their capacity for labour (Macky & Boxall, 2007). Hiltrop (1996), provided evidence on the role of HRM practices as a powerful force in motivating employees to exhibit favorable attitudes and behaviors, all of which are required to support and implement the competitive strategy of an organization.

For better understanding, the present study operationalized the AMO with a more robust constucts capable of explaing the relationship between HRM and performance of employees. In this study, self efficacy was used to represent the ability component of AMO. Similarly, public service motivation (PSM) was employed to represent the motivation component and perceived career opportunity also represents the opportunity component of the theory respectively. In this regard, the two HRM practices (job rotation and training & development) are expected to increase the employees's KSAs that will lead to high self efficacy. Also, the two HRM practices (compensation and job autonomy) are expected to influence high public service motivation among the employees. In addition, the two HRM practices (communication and career planning) will make the employee to perceived more career opportunities are provided to them. Thus, leading to high individual performance. Therefore, self efficacy, PSM and perceived career opportunity are the proposed mediating variables.

2.6.1 Self efficacy

Self Efficacy is defined as the personal judgment with regard to how well an individual can perform an action required to take care of prospective situation (Bandura, 1982). Self-efficacy is regarded an important aspect of HR performance, motivation, attitudinal learning and problem solving (Petrovich, 2004). Self-efficacy may be seen in the form of confidence which workers may have in certain skill areas. Confidence is a function of many different habits and ways of reacting to the world around us. All of these reactions will propel an individual in various trajectories of success or failure. Personal experiences can either enhance and build an individual's confidence, or undermine and destroy it. Ultimately, what confidence boils down to is the faith or belief that an individual can handle whatever situation arises, that the outcome will likely lean in their favor, and that the effort they take will make it happen (Kanter, 2006). Several studies have affirmed that individual self-efficacy has significant influence on employee performance. An individual belief in his abilities to perform and complete a particular task in a given period of time has positive effect on his/her performance because capability to complete goal has influence on employee performance (Sultan & Tareen, 2014). Individuals who have a positive self-efficacy belief mainly focused their attention and motivation on tasks necessary towards achieving targeted performance levels and persisted in the face of difficulties(Brown, Jones, & Leigh, 2005).

Bandura (1997) identified three important aspect of self efficacy. The first one is magnitude which refers to the level of task difficulty an individual believes can achieve. The second is the strength which indicated whether believe about the magnitude is weak or strong. The last aspect is called generality which implies degree to which the anticipation is generalized in all situations.

2.6.1.1 Self-Efficacy as Mediator

Self efficacy being a belief of an individuals' ability to perform specific behaviors allows people to engage and even put more efforts to achieve outcome in organizational settings. According to Bandura (1997b), generally people act or engage in a given behavior when they belief (have the efficacy and confidence) and outcome expectations. For people to successfully attain the desired outcome or behavior they must possess the necessary knowledge, skills as well as self belief that they have the capabilities (Bandura, 1986). In organizations, these skills, knowledge and self belief are acquired through adequate training & development practices and job rotation.

Previous empirical studies have established a positive relationship between self-efficacy and employee performance in organization. For instance, in the meta analysis conducted by Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) that used 114 studies, it was revealed that self-efficacy has a significant influence on employee performance. Similarly, the study by Liao and Chuang (2007) and also the recent study by Sultan and Tareen (2014) all found a significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and employee performance.

Moreover, a number of empirical studies have also employed self-efficacy as mediating variable though not on what the present study intend to explore. For example, in the longitudinal studies by Tsai, Chen, and Liu (2007) self-efficacy was found to have mediate the relationship between employees' positive moods and task performance. Also, the study by Shantz and Latham (2012), provided a support for the mediating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between written self-guidance and performance. This was in line with study of Yang, Kim, and McFarland (2011), were self-efficacy mediated the relationship between the two dimensions of personality (consciousness and extraversion) and objective sales performance. Furthermore, the study by Shacklock, Manning, and Hort (2013) revealed that self-efficacy mediated the relationship between ethical work climate and decision making. In addition, the studies of (Cavazotte, Moreno, & Bernardo, 2013; Kura, Shamsudin, & Chauhan, 2014), all provided evidence on the mediating effect of self-efficacy.

Therefore, based on the arguments supporting the link between HRM practices and self-efficacy, self-efficacy and employee performance, and also the evidences supporting the mediating effect of self-efficacy in different capacity, the present study considered self-efficacy to serve as mediating variable on the relationship between two HRM practices (job rotation and training & development) and employee task, contextual and adaptive performance.

2.6.2 Public Service Motivation (PSM)

The origin, formalization and development of Public Service Motivation as a concept were traced to the work of scholars like (Buchanan, 1975; Mosher, 1982; Perry & Porter, 1982; Perry & Wise, 1990; Rainey, 1982) in the late 1970s to early 1980s. Public Service Motivation is defined by Perry and Wise (1990) as "an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations" . From this definition, the focuses are on the government-unique features that move or drive individuals to perform public services. An all encompassing definition of PSM was the one provided by Vandenabeele (2008), were PSM is defined as "the belief, values and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate" (Vandenabeele, 2008). Also, the concept of PSM is defined "as motives of employees to do good for others and shape the well-being of society" (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008).

In general, Public service motivation is understood as an individual (employee) desire towards working in public sector for the public interest (Perry & Wise, 1990; Rainey, 1982). PSM also covers the motives of employees in the public sector desiring "to do good for others and shape the well-being of society" (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). Public service motivation is regarded as one of the important factors that differentiate public service from private. For instance, public service is considered to be a sense of duty, and a special calling, rather than merely a job (Perry, 1996). Perry (1996), provided four dimensions of PSM, which include: Attraction to policy making; Commitment to the public interest; Compassion; and Self-sacrifice. To Perry (1996), Attraction to policy making simply means the feeling and need to be employed in the public sector because the public institutions provide the opportunity for making public policy. The Commitment to the public interest refers to the desire solely grounded on the quality of unselfish concern for the welfare of others (altruism). The Compassion dimension refers to a sense of patriotism and the humane quality of understanding the suffering of others and wanting to do something about it. The self-sacrifice means the desire and willingness to provide tangible services to others just for personal reward or satisfaction.

Past empirical studies on public service motivation, have established that employees with higher public service motivation are reported to have been receiving excellent and good performance rating from their superior officers (supervisors) and peers compared with their counterparts that have low public service motivation (Naff & Crum, 1999). According to Kim (2005) public sector employees that have high levels of PSM are worthful to public sector and tend to engage actively in positive work behaviors (positive employee performance).

2.6.2.1 Public Service Motivation (PSM) as Mediator

PSM being an individual (employees') motive to serve the general public in order to shape the wellbeing of society (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008), may act as an important mechanism (mediator) capable of explaining why compensation and job autonomy practice (being motivation enhancing practices) can influence employees' task, contextual and adaptive performance. This can be possible as effective organizational investment in HRM practices like adequate compensation and job autonomy signaled employees that their organization value and cared about them, which accordingly encourage and heighten their commitment to public interest, compassion and self sacrifice motives to serve the public (all of which are components of PSM) (Mostafa, Gould-Williams, & Bottomley, 2015). Again, drawing upon SDT which argued that satisfaction of 3 psychological needs (competence, relatedness and autonomy) resulted in higher level of individual autonomous motivation (Schott & Pronk, 2014), it is very possible that PSM being a form of autonomous motivation and HRM practices like compensation and job autonomy are therefore believed to foster the satisfaction of autonomous motivation. Thus, these practices influence in fostering PSM and the subsequent influence of PSM toward positive behaviors in form of task, contextual and adaptive performance will make it to be an important mechanism (mediator).

Previous empirical studies (Giauque *et al.*, 2013; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015) have supported the link between HRM practices and PSM, arguing that HRM practices predict PSM. Likewise, previous studies, have also established that there is a positive link between PSM and employee performance in public sector organization (Cun, 2012; Giauque, Ritz, Varone, Anderfuhren-Biget, & Waldner, 2009; Kim, 2005; Naff & Crum, 1999; Park & Rainey, 2008; Perry & Wise, 1990; Petrovsky & Ritz, 2014; Vandenabeele, 2009). Based on the above, empirical studies that linked HRM practices and Public Service Motivation, and also the link between public service motivation and employee performance in public sector organization this study proposed that Public Service Motivation can be used as mediating variable to explain how and why HRM practices can be related to employee performance in the public sector organization.

In addition, another justification for using Public Service Motivation as mediator in this study is that previous studies have used Public Service Motivation as mediator and found a good result. For example, the study of Wright, Moynihan, and Pandey (2012) conducted in United State of America (USA), used Public Service Motivation and goal clarity as mediators on the relationship between transformational leadership and mission valence. Using a sample of 1,322 respondents who are managers in U.S. local government, the result of the study revealed that Public Service Motivation and goal clarity fully mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and mission valence.

Similarly, Ritz and Fernandez (2011) in their study on the effect of change culture on resistance to change used public service motivation as the mediating variable. The study was conducted on Swiss federal administration, and all the seven ministries took part. The study distributed 26,544 questionnaires out of which only 14,835 were duly answered and returned. The result of structural equation modeling indicated that change culture has indirect negative effect on resistance to change through the mediating effect of public service motivation.

In view of the empirical studies supporting the influence of HRM practices on PSM, along with the link between PSM and employee performance, and also the evidences supporting the mediating effect of PSM in the previous studies, the present study considered the possibility of PSM to serve as second mediating variable on the relationship between two HRM practices (job autonomy and compensation) and employee task and contextual performance.

2.6.3 Career Opportunity

Career opportunity simply refers to the perception of individual employee of the degree to which assigned responsibilities or work assignment and other important opportunities that match his/her career interest are provided by present organization (Kraimer *et al.*, 2011). In organizational setting, creating employee - organizational relationship allows both the employee and organization to a great benefit (Tsui *et al.*, 1997). Organization that allows employees to experience more career opportunities and growth has advantages above those that do not allow their employee such opportunities. This kind of relationship made the employees to feel greater compatibility with their organization that consequently lead to high commitment and performance (Kraimer *et al.*, 2011).

2.6.3.1 Career Opportunity as Mediator

In organizational setting, perception of good career opportunities strongly encourage employees to effectively perform assigned task responsibilities and even go beyond what is required by engaging in extra and adaptive behaviors that benefit organization (Kraimer *et al.*, 2011). One of the possible ways that organizations may support their employees to perceive better career growth and opportunities is through effective communication and career planning practices. As literature supported that employees perception of career opportunities are more proximal in predicting employee performance than the actual practices/policies (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004; Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005). Thus, it is expected that a good communication and career planning practices in organization can serve as an important tools that influence employees to perceive better opportunities related to their careers within their organization, which inturns reinforces performance.

The mediating effect of career opportunity has been supported in the previous studies. For instance, in the study of Reiche, Kraimer, and Harzing (2011) perceived career prospect mediated the relationship between inpatriate fit with the head quarter and inpatriate retention. Also in the same study, perceived career prospect mediated the relationship between inpatriate's trusting ties with head quarter staff and their retention. Similarly, in the study by Wall, Covell, and MacIntyre (1999) perception of opportunity mediated the relationship between peer, family and teacher support and educational expectation among females.

In view of the argument supporting the influence of HRM practices on perceived career opportunity, along with the empirical link between the perception of career opportunity and employee performance, and also the evidences supporting the mediating effect of career opportunity in the previous studies, therefore, the present study considered career opportunity to serve as third mediating variable on the relationship between two HRM practices (communication and career opportunity) and employee task, contextual and adaptive performance.

Lastly, despite the fact that this study follows the recommendation of Jiang *et al.* (2012b) on the possible mediation of KSAs, motivation, and opportunity, however, it has to be stated categorically here that the present study is entirely different from Jiang *et al.* (2012b) and other related studies. Unlike previous studies, the present study operationalized employee performance as multi-dimensional construct comprising task, contextual and adaptive performance. It is argued that studies that operationalized employee performance as unidimesional construct has not comprehensively captured the real measurement of employee performance. Therefore, the best way to measure employee performance is the one that captured both task and non-task behaviors (Koopmans *et al*., 2012; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Tsui *et al.* 1997). Again, the present study intends to employ the combination of self-efficacy, public service motivation, and perceived career opportunity as three mediators. No study has ever employed these three constructs collectively in explaining the mechanism on the relationship between HRM practices and employee performance. Also, the present study intended to measure six HRM practices (job rotation, compensation, job autonomy, training & development, career planning and communication) based on the perceptions of employees which is considered to be more proximal to influence performance. Previous studies argued that perception of HRM practices are more proximal in influencing employee performance than the implemented or intended HRM practices (Boon *et al.,* 2011; Khilji & Wang, 2006; Wright & Nishii, 2007).

2.7 Underpinning Theories

The mediating effect of self-efficacy, PSM, and perceived career opportunity on the relationship between the six selected HRM practices and employee performance can be explained from different perspectives. Considering that this study has not found a single theory, that can comprehensively explain the relationship between the independent, mediating and dependent variables, then the research resort to application of multiple theories that explained the relationship between human resource management practices and employee performance in organization through the mediation of self efficacy, PSM and perceived career opportunity. These theories include Social Exchange Theory, Ability- Motivation- Opportunity (AMO) theory, and Self- Determination Theory.

2.7.1 Social Exchange Theory (SET)

The influences of modern day social exchange theory have been attributed to the work of some sociologist (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1972; Homans, 1950). They argued that the modern social exchange theory comprises five central elements:

- That behavior is predicated upon the notion of rationality.
- That the relationship is based on reciprocation.
- That Social exchange is based on a justice principle.
- That the individuals will attempt to minimize their costs and maximize their gains in the exchange relation.
- That individuals take part in a relationship because of a mutual benefit rather than coercion.

Social exchange theory was used to understand the influence of HRM practices on employee performance in public sector based on the facts that recent empirical studies have situated their investigations within the framework of social exchange theory arguing that in organization HRM practices send open and inexplicit signals to employees about the extent to which they (employees) are valued and trusted, gives rise to feelings of obligation on the part of employees, who then reciprocate with high levels of positive performance (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003; Gould-Williams, 2007; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). Again scholars (Arthur, 1994;

Huselid, 1995), opined that HRM practices affect organizational outcomes by shaping employee behaviours and attitudes. In addition, many scholars (Ostroff & Bowen, 2000; Whitener, 2001), suggests that employees in an organization can interpret organizational actions, such as human resource management practices and the trustworthiness of management (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996) as indicative of the organisation's personal commitment and concern to them. Therefore, in return the employees reciprocate accordingly with high level of performance in the organization. In addition, Pinder (1984) also added that one important way or mechanism for understanding behaviors (performance) in the relationship between the employer and employee is to consider them as one of a fair exchange. This is because the way in which an employer treats employees have a direct bearing on their performance, attitude and commitment to the organization.

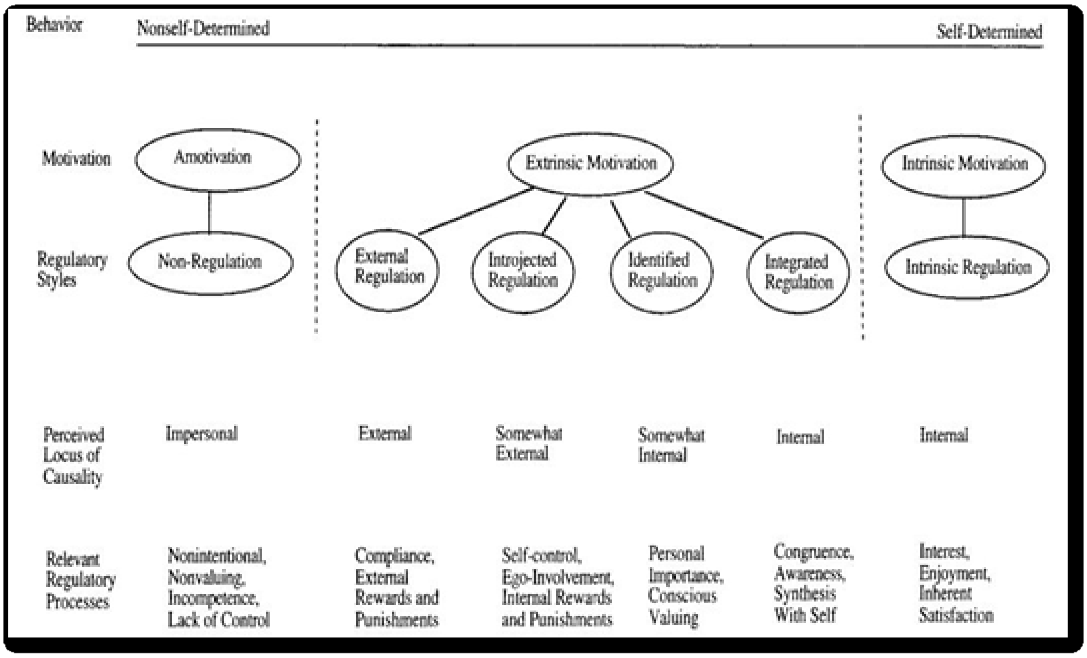
From the above, it can easily be understand that the 'norm of reciprocity' in SET implies that when an entity (organization) or a person (employee) favored one another, then the recipient of that favor will develop a feeling of obligation to reciprocate. This can also explain that effective human resource management practice can give employees in organization the feeling that the organization they are working for values their efforts and also cares about their well-being, and this will make the employees to respond with behaviour that are important to the organization (Gould-Williams, 2007; Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005; Hannah & Iverson, 2004; Paré & Tremblay, 2007; Whitener, 2001). Previous empirical studies have provided a considerable support for the application of social exchange theory as the basis for understanding relationship between HRM practice and employee performance (Alfes *et al.*, 2013b; Baptiste, 2008; Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005; Snape & Redman, 2010).

2.7.2 Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

Self-Determination Theory is an empirically based theory of human motivation. The theory was modernized by Ryan and Deci (2000b). The theory asserted that: if an individual experience the basic needs which include: relatedness, competence and autonomy then he or she will become self-determined and also be able to intrinsically motivated to engaged in behaviors or actions that interest him or her. It is argued that the SDT concepts of intrinsic motivation and internalization, both of which constitute autonomous motivation, are of particular relevance to PSM (Park & Rainey, 2008; Vandenabeele, 2007), self-efficacy and career opportunity. Thus, employees may internalize strong self-efficacy, high PSM and good perception of career opportunity as a consequence of the organization's policies that constitute external regulatory procedures.

In SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2000b) provided reasons that arouse individual into action. The actions that are intrinsic are performed for personal satisfaction and enjoyment. But when the motivation to act was totally for separable outcomes, then such action is considered extrinsic (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2006). Three basic, innate psychological needs constitute intrinsically motivated behavior. These are needs for relatedness, needs for competence, and need for autonomy. The SDT also comprises amotivation, which implies any behavior that is not important or any compulsory task done by actors who feel incompetent. The extrinsic motivation is also subdivided into: external; introjected; identified; and integrated. Ryan and Deci (2000a) define external motivation is regarded as behavior that originates from outside which is rewarded/punished by others. While the other three subdivision of extrinsic motivation differs with regards to the level of internalization of goals. Introjected motivation refers to a type of internal regulation which are regarded as quite controlling because individuals perform the behaviors or actions with the feeling of coercion in order to avoid guilt or anxiety or to attain ego-enhancements or pride" (Ryan and Deci, 2000a). Identified motivation is the next level of internalization whereby the individual identifies him/herself with particular behavior by considering it (the behavior) as personally relevant. The last level is called integrated motivation or internalization. Integration happened only when identified regulations are fully assimilated to the individual (Ryan and Deci, 2000a). Here the action or behavior is in conjunction with self-perception. The application of SDT to understand motivated behavior in organizations is at increase in recent time. To be specific, a number of empirical studies have applied SDT to explain the relationship between human resource practices and public service motivation (Schott & Pronk, 2014; Wilkesmann & Schmid, 2014).

Below shows the Self Determination Theory continuum showing types of motivation with regulatory styles, loci of causality, and corresponding processes.



Source: Adapted from Ryan and Deci (2000b)

Figure2.1
Self Determination Theory continuum showing types of motivation with regulatory styles, loci of causality, and corresponding processes

Based on the above explanations, this study argued that SDT will provide the theoretical guide on how the six HRM practices can relate with three mediators. Firstly, training & development and job rotation practice being ability-enhancing practices (Lepak *et al.*, 2006), can satisfied the employee needs for competence. This can be achieved by equipping them with the required knowledge, skills and competence to be more efficacious in discharging their responsibilities. Similarly, through compensation and job autonomy practices which are motivation- enhancing practices (Jiang *et al.*, 2012), the need for autonomy will be satisfied. As these practices will provide the employees with the needed recognition and freedom to be self determine and motivated. Additionally, communication and career planning practices which are considered opportunity-enhancing practices (Gardner *et al.*, 2011), will satisfy the need for relatedness by providing employees with the opportunity to freely communicate with both management and other employees. Therefore, satisfying these needs (competence, autonomy and relatedness) will ultimately make the employee to have the required abilities, motivation and perceive opportunities to engage in more tasks related, adaptability and extra role behaviors.

2.7.3 Ability–Motivation–Opportunity Theory (AMO)

The Ability–Motivation–Opportunity theory popularly called AMO theory (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2000; Boxall & Purcell, 2003), suggested that certain HRM practices in organization can enhance the organization's human capital through an increase in human resource (employees) capabilities, motivation and opportunities, that translate into higher performance outcomes and behaviors (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2000). These may include: higher productivity, higher service quality, reduction of wastes and more profit to the organizations. Boxall and Purcell (2003), considered AMO theory as the best theory of human performance by asserting that if our concern is to manage an individual (i.e. employee) human performance in organization more effectively, then organization should actually start with AMO theory.

AMO theory postulates that performance at employee level depend on the employees' ability, couple with motivation and a given opportunity. This implied that employee exert higher performance when: (1) they are able (Ability) to do the work; (2) they are motivated (Motivation) to do the work and; (3) they are provided with appropriate supports (Opportunity). Argued that employee performance is a function of: A=Ability; M=Motivation; and O=Opportunity. Thus Performance =f (A, M, O). This equation implied that HRM practice can foster higher performance among employees by enhancing their abilities, motivating them and providing them more opportunities (Boxall & Purcell, 2003).

In explaining HRM and performance link at both organizational and individual levels research, AMO theory is often used (Paauwe, 2009). Accordingly, based on AMO theory, the higher the KSAOs, motivation, and opportunities provided to employee through HRM systems, then the better will be the performance of such employees (Jiang *et al.*, 2013). The study of Liao et al. (2009) provided empirical evidence for the mediation process of AMO at the individual-level. It showed that the three variables which include: human capital; perceived organizational support; and psychological empowerment selected based on AMO theory mediated the relationship between HPWS and service performance.

Based on AMO theory and review of extant literature, in this study, it is expected that the two HRM practice of training and job rotation will increases employees self efficacy (which is considered as the ability component of AMO), whereas, the practice of compensation and job autonomy will increase the employees public service motivation (which represent motivation component of AMO). Similarly, the practices of communication and career planning will influence the career opportunity (which represent opportunity component of AMO). Accordingly, these three mediators will in turn influence employees towards higher task, contextual and adaptive performance.

2.8 Research Framework

In this section, a framework was formulated to examine the mediating effects of self efficacy, PSM, and career opportunity on the relationship between HRM practices and performance of employee to be tested in the Nigerian public sector organizations. The dependent variable in this present study is employee performance. Employee performance in this study refers to the behavior or action of an employee that are relevant to the organizational goals which can be measured. Review of extant literature indicated that a comprehensive measure of employee performance is the one that captured both task and contextual performance (Tsui *et al.*, 1997; Williams & Anderson, 1991), and adaptive performance (Koopmans *et al.,* 2013). Again, some of the previous studies (Alfes *et al.*, 2013b; Horgan & Mühlau, 2006; Munjuri, 2011; Suan & Nasurdin, 2014; Tabiu & Nura, 2013; Tessema & Soeters, 2006; Tiwari, 2011) have shown that employee performance is influenced by HRM practices. Based on the above, this study adopts HRM practices as independent variables. Also, literature reviews provided that all the three variables (self-efficacy, PSM, and career opportunity) can influence employee task and contextual performance (Judge *et al.*, 2007; Kraimer *et al.*, 2011; Petrovsky & Ritz, 2014). Similarly, HRM practices are found to have positive relationship with self-efficacy, PSM, and perceived career opportunity (Giauque *et al.*, 2013; Giran *et al.*, 2014; Mostafa, 2014). Therefore, based on the above, the present study suggested that self-efficacy, PSM, and career opportunity can be the mediating variables that can explain how the relationship between HRM practices and employee performance in public organizations.

Figure 2.2, presents the research framework that demonstrates the relationship between the HRM practices, self-efficacy, PSM, and career opportunity, and employee performance. From the proposed research framework, the independent variables are the HRM practices which include, job rotation; training & development; job autonomy; compensation; employee involvement; and career planning. The dependent variable in this study is employee performance which is to be measured using three dimensions of task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance. Meanwhile, the mediating variables are self-efficacy, PSM, and perceived career opportunity.

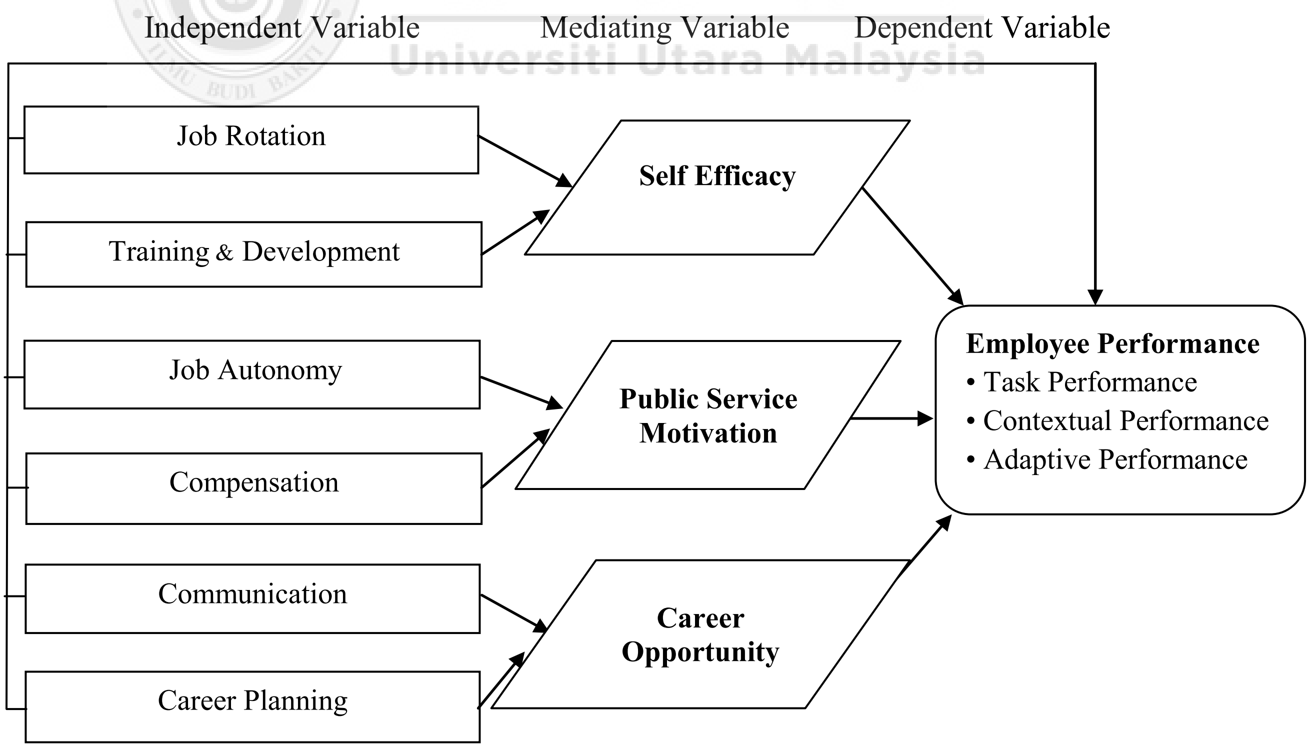


Figure 2.2

Research Framework

2.9 Hypotheses Development

The hypotheses below were formulated to test the main effect and mediating effect of self efficacy, PSM, and career opportunity on the relationship between HRM practices (job rotation, training & development, compensation, job autonomy, communication, and career planning) and employee performance (task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance) in Nigerian public sector organizations.

2.9.1 Relationship between Job Rotation and Employee Performance

Job rotation practice is a method employed by organizations in order to improve their workers performance and make them more committed towards their work (Mohan & Gomathi, 2015). Job rotation enables employees in the organization to be aware and also be equipped with the necessary rudiments of their job processes thereby making them more versatile and competent to perform any task given to them with little or even no supervision (Oparanma & Nwaeke, 2015)

Review of empirical studies on job rotation and employee performance indicated a positive association between the two variables (Hosseini *et al.*, 2015; Khan *et al.*, 2014). To be more specific, the study by Khan *et al.* (2014) found significant positive relationship between job rotation and performance of bank employees in Pakistan. They supported that adoption of effective job rotation practice in organization brings high employee performance and commitment. The findings was in line with the study of Hosseini *et al.* (2015). In addition, the study of Rashki, (2014) revealed that movement of employee from one duty post to another within the organization promote high employee performance. Job rotation, as perceived by the employees enable them to acquire new skills and knowledge. This will in return encourage high performance. However the result from the study of Saravani and Abbasi (2013) indicated that the relationship between job rotation and performance was not direct relationship but rather indirect through the mediation of employee job satisfaction.

Moreover, Casad (2012) argued that job rotation practice develop abilities and skills (e.g., knowledge), that help in identifying and optimize employees' strengths (e.g., capacities), and positively influence their willingness to perform. Similarly, Way (2002) together with Fægri, Dybå, and Dingsøyr (2010) opined that job rotation in general improves the workers' problem solving competencies, abilities and skills that enable them to produces superior performance in organization. Based on the above argument and empirical supports, the present study proposed the following hypotheses:

H1a: *Job rotation is positively related to task performance.*

H1b: *Job rotation is positively related to contextual performance*

H1c: *Job rotation is positively related to adaptive performance*

2.9.2 Relationship between Training & Development and Employee Performance

Training & development refers to all the methods used by organizations to give both new and existing (already working) employees the required skills, knowledge and other abilities needed to perform their jobs in organization (DeNisi & Griffin, 2001). Training & development practice is considered as one of the most significant and effective process intended to achieve positive result in the strategic HRM (Jerez Gómez, Céspedes Lorente, & Valle Cabrera, 2004).

Previous researches that study the relationship between training & development and employee performance have reported a positive relationship (Cho & Yoon, 2009; Marwat, Qureshi, & Ramay, 2006; Tessema & Soeters, 2006). The study by Akhter *et al.* (2013) conducted in cement industry at Bangladesh, revealed that training & development have significant positive impact on employee performance, and this findings was consistent with previous studies (Amin *et al.*, 2013; Jagero *et al.*, 2012; Khan, 2012; Nadarasa, 2013; Sultana *et al.*, 2012; Tabiu & Nura, 2013; Tiwari, 2011). Additionally, the study by Dysvik and Kuvaas (2008), also established that perceived training opportunities is positively significant with both task performance and contextual performance in Norwegian service organizations. The study further show that perceived training opportunities explained 13 per cent of the variance in task performance, 19 per cent of the variance in contextual performance. This was in line with the work of Rehman, Mansoor, Rafiq, and Rashid (2011) who posited that training & development have significant positive relationship with contextual performance. Similarly, the recent study by Falola *et* *al.* (2014) and Issahaku *et al.* (2014), all provided evidences that training & development positively influence employee performance.

Moreover, Smith and Hayton (1999) supported that training & development of employees is an important factor that developed the workers towards adaptability to changes as well as adoption to new situations. Accordingly, for employee(s) to perform well towards achievement of organizational objectives, they most have the abilities and relevant skills and knowledge. And these can only be achieved through training & development practice.

In addition to the above empirical support, the SET (Blau, 1964) also provided a theoretical support. It argued that in the context of employment relationship, when the management of an organization provided employees with sufficient training & development opportunities, this will send message to employees that the organization cares for its employees development (Aguinis, 2009). Then such employees will tend to reciprocate by performing both task, contextual and adaptive performance in the most effective and efficient ways towards the achievement of organizational objectives. From the above empirical and theoretical supports, this study formulates the hypotheses below.

H2a: *Training & development is positively related to task performance.*

H2b: *Training & development is positively related to contextual performance.*

H2c: *Training & development is positively related to adaptive performance.*

2.9.3 Relationship between Compensation and Employee performance

Compensation practice is considered to be one of the key HRM functions in organization. Compensation conceptualized as the forms of rewards or pay given to the employees by the organization (employer) in relation to their employment (Dessler, 2007). Compensation in organizational setting refers to the financial and non-financial intrinsic or extrinsic system of rewards that are provided by an organization (employer) for the time, skills and efforts made by employees toward fulfilling job requirements aimed at achieving the organizational objectives (Dowling, Festing, & Engle, 2008). Compensation is important to both the organization and the employees. One of the reasons why people work in organization especially in the developing countries like Nigeria is for them to be compensated appropriately and a sound compensation practice attract, retain and motivate competent employees and allowed them to perform actively toward the attainment of organizational effectiveness.

Previous studies have empirically supported a positive association between the perception of employee on compensation practices and their performance in organization (Baloch *et al.*, 2010; Marwat *et al.*, 2006; Shahzad *et al.*, 2008). In addition, the study by Nadarasa (2013) found a positive relationship between perceived compensation practice and employee performance. Similarly, the study of Akhter *et al.* (2013) and Rizwan *et al.* (2013) all established a positive relationships between perceived compensation practice and employee performance. In contrast, the study of and Bowra *et al.* (2012) have found no significant relationship between perceived compensation practice and employee performance. Furthermore, recent studies like Abdul Hameed, Ramzan, Zubair, Ali, and Arslan (2014) and Oluigbo and Anyiam (2014) all supported a positive relationship between perceived compensation practice and employee performance. Moreover, the study of Sopiah (2013) and Samuel and Esther (2013) all established positive significant relationship between perceived compensation practice and employee performance.

Theoretically, SET (Blau, 1964) can provide a theoretical support for the relationship between compensation practice and employee performance. The SET argued that, in a social relationship the reciprocity and good gesture between two parties govern the entire relationship. In a situation whereby, a good gesture from one party (i.e. employer through HRM practices) is returned with a similar good gesture (i.e. employee through performance). In this regard, if employee perceived that the organization provided him/her with appropriate compensation (both financial and non financial), then such employee will tend to reciprocate with good task, contextual and adaptive performance. These empirical and theoretical support lead to the following hypotheses:

H3a: *Compensation is positively related to task performance.*

H3b: *Compensation is positively related to contextual performance.*

H3c: *Compensation is positively related to adaptive performance.*

2.9.4 Relationship between Job Autonomy and Employee performance

Job autonomy as HRM practice is defined as ‘‘the extent or degree to which the employees’ task provides or allow him/her substantial freedom, discretion and independence in scheduling the task and also in determining the methods to be used in undertaking the assigned task’’(Hackman & Oldham, 1975, 1980). Employee job autonomy has for long been identified as a significant antecedent of several outcomes like positive work attitudes and work satisfaction (Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). With regard to performance at employee level, the summary of meta-analysis of Humphrey *et al.* (2007) revealed that job autonomy was found to have a positive link with both objective/subjective performance ratings.

Additionally, previous literature revealed that job autonomy as a HRM practice has been linked with employee performance (Gellatly & Irving, 2001; Saragih, 2011). The study of Cho and Yoon (2009), conducted a research in the Korean public sector organization demonstrated that providing freedom and discretion to employees to discharge their assigned responsibilities freely positively increases their individual performance in organization. Again, findings from the study of Gellatly and Irving (2001) supported the positive effect of job autonomy on contextual performance. They found out that the managers with higher job autonomy recorded better performance compared with managers that perceived low autonomy. Similarly, Langfred and Moye (2004) supported that job autonomy practice enhances employee performance arguing that autonomy enable the employees to perceive that they are more capable in performing the task. Based on the above evidences, this study stated the following hypotheses:

H4a: *Job autonomy is positively related to task performance.*

H4b: *Job autonomy is positively related to contextual performance.*

H4c: *Job autonomy is positively related to adaptive performance.*

2.9.5 Relationship between Communication and Employee Performance

Communication as HRM practice refers to the exchange of organizational information (policies, procedures, and practices) between organization and employees about their job (Kehoe & Wright, 2013). Employees that enjoyed open lines of upward and down ward communication with their management are said to be more likely to build an effective and good work relationships that will enhance their performance and above all contribute to the overall organizational productivity (Gray & Laidlaw, 2004; Tsai, Chuang, & Hsieh, 2009). Relatedly, employees who reported positive and open communication practice with their management are also found to have better ability in coping with major organizational changes and adaptability (Gopinath & Becker, 2000). Scholars (Kacmar, Witt, Zivnuska, & Gully, 2003; Neves & Eisenberger, 2012), agreed that several aspects of effective communication management practice, such as openness and accuracy, high frequency, adequacy of information and performance feedback about policies and procedures of organization had a positive influence on employees' performance.

Previous research findings regarding the relationship between communication practice and employee performance revealed positive links. The study by Singh,

(2010) conducted at Sarawak Economic Development Corporation in Malaysia provided an empirical support on the positive link between communication practice and employee performance. This finding was in line with the study of Asamu (2014), that found positive relationship between communication practice and employee performance. Relatedly, Neves and Eisenberger (2012), argued that in an organization, employees that enjoyed open communication practice with their management are likely to establish an effective relationship at work with their managers. This will allow them to enhance more organizational identification, increase their performance, and contribute towards attaining organizational goals (Chuang, & Hsieh, 2009; Gray & Laidlaw, 2004).

From the theoretical perspective, SET as argued earlier can supported the link between communication practice with both task, contextual and adaptive performance. Upon these, the present study put forward the following hypotheses:

H5a: *Communication is positively related to task performance.*

H5b: *Communication is positively related to contextual performance.*

H5c: *Communication is positively related to adaptive performance.*

2.9.6 Relationship between Career Planning and Employee Performance

Career planning is an important HRM practice of identifying employees' career preferences and setting up a development objective by establishing an action plans that enable employees match their capabilities and interests with organizational available opportunities (Ismail, Adnan, & Bakar, 2014). Scholars (Gardner *et al.*, 2011), observed that individuals (employees) mostly prefer to join the organization that provides enough opportunities to attain their career goals and fully displayed their potential. Through career planning practice, organizations designed favorable systems that provide opportunities for employees to develop and improve their skills, administrative knowledge and new technologies that increase the employees' abilities and performance (Pynes, 2009).

Empirical studies on the relationship between career planning and employee performance revealed that there is a significant positive relationship (Akhter *et al.*, 2013; Khalid *et al.*, 2014; Nadarasa, 2013). To be specific, the study of Khalid *et al.* (2014) on 120 mangers of eleven selected public organization in Lahore, Pakistan provided empirical evidence on the positive relationship between career planning and employee performance. The study also argued that the career planning practice provided by organizations inspires the individual employees in the organization to excel in performance. Similarly, the study of (Akhter *et al.*, 2013), conducted in a cement industry in Bangladesh also established positive significant relationship between career development and employee performance. Also, Tiwari (2011) provided another empirical support on the significant influence of career development practice on employee performance. The study also revealed that employees attached strong importance to their career development opportunity and they prepare to work for an organization that provides better career development practice. Additional evidence from the study of Nadarasa (2013) also supported positive relationship between career planning and employee performance.

In another development, presence of a well-planned career planning and development practice in an organization, along with the provision of effective internal advancement and promotion opportunities that are based on merit brings high motivation to employees. This will also lead to high employee and organizational performance (Milkovich & Boudreau, 1998). Thus, the presence of good promotion practice and other career opportunities is an indication to the employees that their organization is concern about their development and career progression. Therefore, attaining career opportunities and success within the organization is obtainable. Wan, Sulaiman, and Omar (2012) had argued that when employees perceived that the promotion decisions of their organization is fair, then they are more likely to be highly committed, experience career satisfaction with their organization and subsequently perform better.

SET can support the relationship between career planning and the three dimensions of employee performance. Based on the above empirical studies and theory that supported positive links between career planning and employee performance, this study formulated the following hypotheses:

H6a: *Career planning is positively related to task performance.*

H6b: *Career planning is positively related to contextual performance.*

H6c: *Career planning is positively related to adaptive performance.*

2.9.7 Mediating Hypotheses

Taking into cognizance that the present study has three different mediating variables, therefore, hypotheses were developed in relation to the intended relationship each mediator is proposed to mediate.

2.9.7.1 Mediating Effect of Self Efficacy

In this study, self-efficacy represents the ability component of AMO theory and is proposed to be the mediating mechanism on the relationship between two HRM practices (job rotation and training & development) and task, contextual and adaptive performance. Parker (1998), conducted a study within a private company investigating how organizational practice like HRM practices influence ability to perform. She proposed that various organizational interventions, such as job enlargement and job rotation could promote the extent to which employees feel confident. The results of her study suggest that employee judgment about their capability to perform particular task could be enhanced through organizational interventions like job rotation and job enrichment which are the most significant strategy for promoting self-efficacy of employees.

In another development, some previous studies have supported the positive relationship between self-efficacy and employee performance (Chen, Casper, & Cortina, 2001a; Liao & Chuang, 2007; Sultan & Tareen, 2014). In a meta-analysis of 114 studies conducted by Stajkovic and Luthans (1998), self-efficacy was found to have positive influence on task performance. The study by Chen *et al.* (2001a), also established that self-efficacy has a positive link with task performance in organization. Similarly, Liao and Chuang (2007), in their longitudinal studies found a positive link between self-efficacy and employee service performance. These two studies are in line with the recent study by Sultan and Tareen (2014) that found positive significant relationship between self-efficacy and employee performance.

Additionally, the mediating effects of self-efficacy have been recorded in the literature. For instance, in the study of Tsai *et al.* (2007) self-efficacy and task persistence were found to have mediated the relationship between positive mode and task performance. Also, the study by Shantz and Latham (2012), provided a support for the mediating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between written self-guidance and performance. This was in line with study of Yang *et al.* (2011), were self-efficacy mediated the relationship between the two dimensions of personality (consciousness and extraversion) and objective sales performance. Furthermore, the study by Shacklock *et al.* (2013) revealed that self-efficacy mediated the relationship between ethical work climate and decision making. In addition, the studies of (Cavazotte *et al.*, 2013; Kura *et al.*, 2014), all provided evidence on the mediating effect of self-efficacy.

Based on the empirical evidences that supported the link between self efficacy and employee performance and also the mediating effects of self-efficacy on several studies, this study postulates the following hypothese:

H7a: *Self-efficacy will mediate the relationship between job rotation and task performance.*

H7b: *Self-efficacy will mediate the relationship between job rotation and contextual performance.*

H7c: *Self-efficacy will mediate the relationship between job rotation and adaptive performance.*

Hdg: *Self-efficacy will mediate the relationship between training & development and task performance*

H7e: *Self-efficacy will mediate the relationship between training & development and contextual performance.*

H7f: *Self-efficacy will mediate the relationship between training & development and adaptive performance.*

2.9.7.2 Mediating Effect of PSM

As mention earlier, the main motive of PSM on employee is grounded at doing good to others in order to shape the wellbeing of the society (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). In the present study, PSM is employed to represent motivation component of AMO theory and is proposed to be the mediating mechanism on the relationship between two HRM practices (compensation and job autonomy) and employee performance (task, contextual and adaptive performance). Previous studies have supported the positive link between PSM and performance (Bellé, 2013; Cun, 2012; Leisink & Steijn, 2009; Li, 2009; Naff & Crum, 1999; Park & Rainey, 2008; Pedersen, 2011; Petrovsky & Ritz, 2014; Taylor, 2010; Vandenabeele, 2009). The study of Giauque *et al.,* (2013) conducted in Switzerland found out that HRM Practices were positively related to public service motivation in Switzerland.

Similarly, Schott and Pronk (2014) conducted a study on 251 nurses working both in public and private hospitals in Germany. The findings revealed that HRM practices have a significant impact on PSM. Also, Cun (2012) conducted a study at Guangzhou public sectors in China, the analysis of SEM shows that public service motivation significantly influences both contextual performance and job satisfaction. Similarly, the study of Li (2009) which was also conducted in China revealed that Public service motivation has a direct significance on employee performance.

In addition, previous empirical studies (Ritz & Fernandez, 2011; Wright *et al.,* 2012) have used PSM as mediating variable in their studies to explain how certain relationship existed between the independent variables and the dependent variables whereby PSM proved to significantly mediates the relationship. This implied that PSM is capable to be used as mediating variable. Based on the above, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H8a: *PSM will mediate the relationship between compensation and task performance.*

H8b*:* *PSM will mediate the relationship between compensation and contextual performance.*

H8c*:* *PSM will mediate the relationship between compensation and adaptive performance*

H8d*:* *PSM will mediate the relationship between job autonomy and task performance.*

H8e*: PSM will mediate the relationship between job autonomy and contextual performance.*

H8f*: PSM will mediate the relationship between job autonomy and adaptive performance*

2.9.7.3 Mediating Effect of Career Opportunity

In this study, career opportunity is proposed to be the mediating mechanism on the relationship between two HRM practices (communication practice and career planning) and task, adaptive and contextual performance. The study of Kraimer *et al.* (2011) provided an empirical support on the positive relationship between Career Opportunity and employee performance. The study further revealed that, when an employee perceives higher attractive career opportunities in their organization these will translate into higher employee performance and low turnover rate. The argument here is that, when employees perceived valued career opportunities present in their organization, they have greater motivation and courage to work hard for the organization. Because they will see their hard work in the organization to be potentially important opportunities towards achieving their own career goals and objective (Day & Allen, 2004).

The mediating effect of career opportunity has been supported in the previous studies. In the study of Reiche *et al.* (2011) perceived career prospect mediated the relationship between inpatriate's fit with the head quarter and inpatriate retention. Also in the same study, career prospect mediated the relationship between inpatriate's trusting ties with head quarter staff and their retention. Similarly, in the study by Wall *et al.* (1999) perception of opportunity mediated the relationship between peer, family and teacher support and educational expectation among females. Based on the above empirical supports, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H9a: *Career opportunity will mediate the relationship between communication and task performance.*

H9b: *Career opportunity will mediate the relationship between communication and contextual performance.*

H9c: *Career opportunity will mediate the relationship between communication and adaptive performance.*

H9d: *Career opportunity will mediate the relationship between career planning and task performance.*

H9e: *Career opportunity will mediate the relationship between career planning and contextual performance.*

H9f: *Career opportunity will mediate the relationship between career planning and adaptive performance.*

2.10 Summary of the Chapter

The review of related literature provided that employee performance (task, contextual and adaptive performance) as dependent variable in this study can have relationship with all the six HRM practices (job rotation, training & development, job autonomy, compensation, communication, and career planning). The chapter also provided empirical evidences on the link between two HRM practices (job rotation and training & development) and self efficacy. Similarly, the relationship between two HRM practices (communication and career planning) and career opportunity was reviewed. The chapter further reviewed empirical studies that established relationship between the three proposed mediating variables (self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity) with employee performance (task, contextual and adaptive performance). Lastly, the chapter present research framework for the study, explained the underpinning theories that relates the variables theoritically, and hypotheses were developed based on the rewiewed literature and theoritical explanation.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHOD

3.1 Introduction

Chapter three describes the method for the study. In this chapter, the sample design, population, sampling techniques, survey materials used in this study, procedure for collecting data and the research measures are described. The chapter concludes with the strategies for analyzing the data.

3.2 Research Design

According to Zikmund, Babin, Carr, and Griffin (2013), research design is the master plan that specified all the procedures and methods that will be employed in the collection and analysis of the data. In this study, quantitative research design was employed. Quantitative research explained phenomena using numerical data that are analyzed based on statistical methods (Aliaga & Gunderson, 2000). Based on the primary objective of this study, which is to find out how perceived HRM practices can influence employee performance through the mediation of self efficacy, PSM, and perceived career opportunity, quantitative research design is believed to be the most appropriate. Quantitative research allows the researchers to generate a reliable population and is well suited to established cause and effect relationship which the present study intends to achieve.

The unit of analysis is at the individual level (public sector's employees) and the primary data for this study was collected through distribution of questionnaire. Using individual as the unit of analysis is considered appropriate as the study is intended to assess the perception of individual employees regarding the HRM practices, self efficacy, PSM, and PCO on employee performance.

Finally, this study adopted cross-sectional method, whereby all the data were collected at one point of time. Compared to longitudinal design, a cross-sectional design is simple, inexpensive and allows for the collection of data in a relatively short period (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

3.3 Population and Sampling Design

3.3.1 Population of the Study

Population of the study simply refers to the total collection of people, places, events, and any other things of interest which the researcher intends to investigate (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

In this study, the major focus was the public sector employees of 27 local governments of Jigawa states in Nigeria. The rationale for the selection of public sector employees as the main area of focus in the present study, was based on the fact that in most of the developing countries like Nigeria, the role of public sector can never be overemphasized. One important reason is that, public sector is central to the economic, political and socio- political development of most of the developing countries, largely due to relative weakness of private sectors (WorldBank, 2007). Secondly, the public sector in Nigeria is regarded as the guarantor of national development and social welfare and the success of any government largely depends on the contribution of public sector employees towards effective and efficient implementation of government policies and programs. Thirdly, the performance of Nigerian public sector in general, and public sector employees have been a call for concern over the years with many cases of unsatisfactory performance leading to the establishment of various reform measures like Civil Service Reforms Decree No 43 of 1988; Ayida Review Panel of 1994; Civil Service Reforms Under President Olusegun Obasanjo from 1999-2007; and more recently the Steven Oransanya Daniel reform 2010-2013, but yet the desired result was not properly achieved (Adegoroye, 2006; Inyang & Akaegbu, 2014; Nwoye, 2002; Onah, 2012; Salisu, 2001).

In this study, Jigawa state local government senior staffs were chosen as the population of the study. As in Nigeria, the public sector organizations have almost similar condition of service. Jigawa state is located in the North West geo-political zone that comprises seven states. The states are very important in the political and economic development of Nigeria. Furthermore, the study also utilized only the senior staff of all the 27 local government areas.The study excludes senior officers occupying management positions like the head of depaartments, head of units, and other political office holders. These class of officials are not included in the study because the objective of the study was to get the perception of employees not the management. In addition, junior staff are also not included because they are just supporting staff that are not responsible for the direct provision of goods and services to the general public.

The total population of the senior staff working in the 27 local governments of Jigawa states as at 2012 based on the statistics obtained from the Jigawa State Local Government Service Commission annual report (2012) is 4, 669 employees.

Table 3.1
Total number of employees in the 27 local government areas of Jigawa state

S/No.	**Name of Local Government**	**No. of Senior Staff**	**Percentage**
01	Auyo	122	2.1%
02	Babura	213	4.6%
03	Birnin kudu	200	4.3%
04	Birniwa	114	2.5%
05	Buji	104	2.2%
06	Dutse	219	4.7%
07	Gagarawa	125	2.7%
08	Garki	210	4.5%
09	Gumel	302	6.5%
10	Guri	118	2.5%
11	Gwaram	171	3.7%
12	Gwiwa	149	3.2%
13	Hadejia	232	5.0%
14	Jahun	167	3.6%
15	Kafin Hausa	209	4.5%
16	Kaugama	153	3.3%
17	Kazaure	266	5.7%
18	Kiri Kasamma	126	2.7%
19	Kiyawa	182	3.9%
20	Maigatari	205	4.4%
21	Malam Madori	185	4.0%
22	Miga	104	2.2%
23	Ringim	239	5.1%
24	Roni	111	2.4%
25	Sule Tankarkar	144	3.1%
26	Taura	165	3.6%
27	Yan kwashi	134	2.9%
	Total	**4,669**	**100%**

Source: Jigawa State Local Government Service Commission Annual Report (2012)

Considering the large number of employees that constitute the entire population of of the study, and based on the fact that it will cost the researcher a lot of energy, time, and financial resources to locate all members of the population. Therefore, the researcher resorted to select a sample to represent the entire population (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

3.3.2 Sample Size

Sampling simply means a process of selecting out adequate number of the right subjects or elements from the general population (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Since the total number of population for this study is 4,669 as shown in Table 3.1, the next is to determine the required sample size. In determining the appropriate sample size, this study firstly considered the power of a statistical test (Cohen, 1988). The power of analysis is simply a statistical technique used in determining appropriate sample size (Bruin, 2006). Therefore, power of statistical test in research refers to the probability that a null hypothesis (which assume that no significant relationship) will therefore be rejected when it is in fact false (Cohen, 1988, 1992; Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). In this regards, researchers like Borenstein, Rothstein, and Cohen (2001) and Snijders (2005) argued that in research, the larger the sample size, then the stronger will be the power of a statistical test. Based on this argument, the present study conducted a *priori* power analysis by applying G*Power 3.1 software in determining the minimum sample size (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). The parameters followed in generating the G*Power output includes: (1) Power (1-β err prob; 0.95); (2) an alpha significance level (α err

Probability: 0.05); (3) medium effect size f² (0.15); and (4) Nine predictor variables which include six independent variables (job rotation, training & development, compensation, job autonomy, career planning, communication), and three mediators (self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity). The output of G*Power 3.1 software suggested that a minimum sample of 166 is needed to test the regression based models(Cohen, 1988; Cohen, 1992; Faul *et al.*, 2009). Figure 3.1 provide the output of *Priori* Power Analysis using G*Power test showing the minimum sample size required.

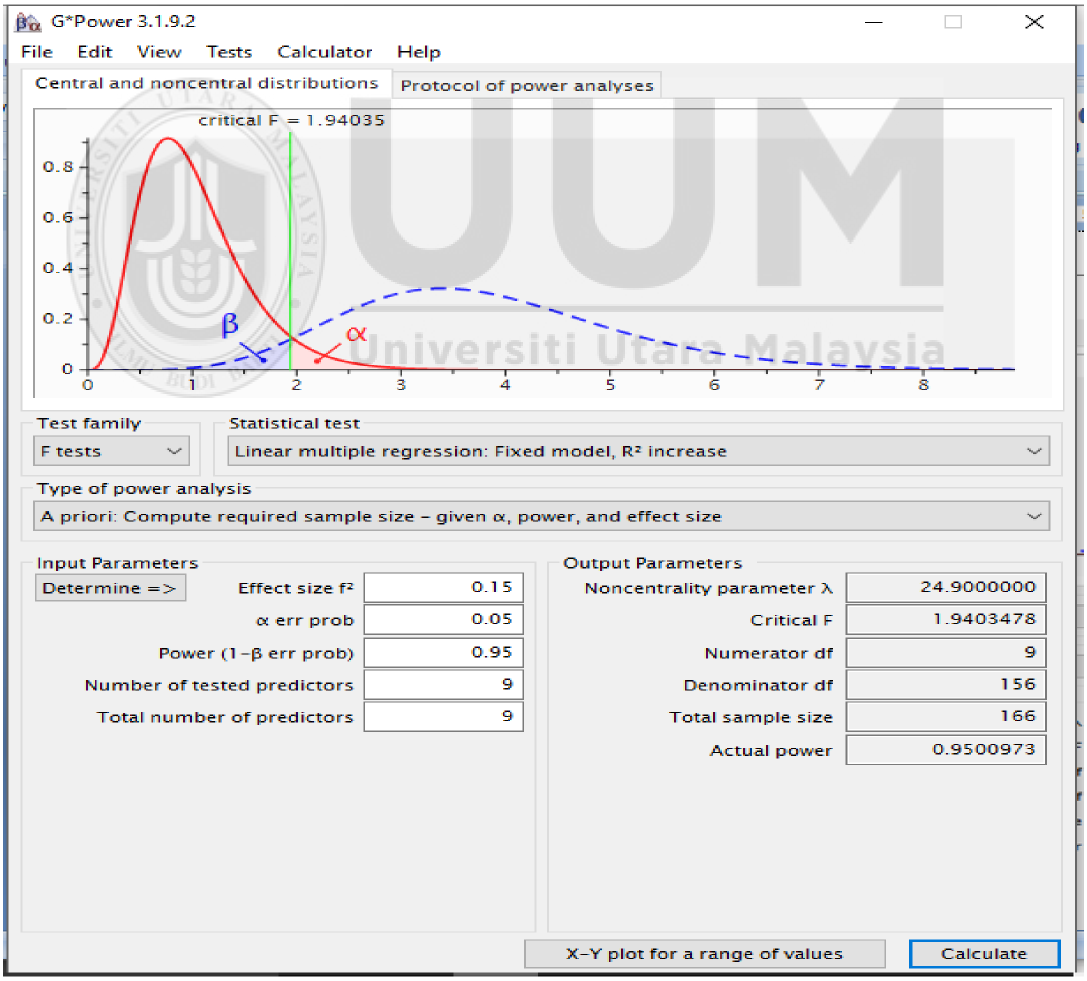


Figure 3.1
The Output of a Priori Power Analysis

Consequently, the above output indicates that 166 is the required minimum sample size for this study, however, considering the nature of response rate in Nigerian public context which is somehow poor even among educated employees (Adomi, Ayo, & Nakpodia, 2007), this sample size generated by employing a *priori* power analysis is therefore considered in adequate. Thus, the need to consider other options became imperative. In this regards, this study compromised a *priori* power analysis by employing the table provided by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). The selection of Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table has many advantages. For example, both the formula and table has taken into consideration the measures that highly minimize sampling errors (both type I & type II errors) by providing desired confidence level and precision.

Therefore, based on the table provided in Krejcie and Morgan (1970) it indicated that the sample size for this study will be 354. This was arrived at because the table provided that any population from 4,500 to 4,999 the appropriate sample size is 354 and our population (4,669) fall within this range.

3.3.3 Sampling Technique

This study utilized stratified sampling technique. The stratified sampling simply refers to a technique of sampling in which the researcher divided the entire population of the study into different stratum and then randomly select subject from each stratum (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013; Wilson, 2010). Therefore, considering that the population of the study comprises of employees from 27 different local governmnts of the state, startified sampling is considered the best technique in order to ensure that all the employees in the 27 local governments are fully represented. Another reason for the selection of stratified sampling technique is that it minimizes the sampling errors. Additionally, stratification allows homogeneity within the stratum (i.e local government employees in Nigeria), and also heterogeneity across groups (i.e different local governments with different departments, sections and units.

Several steps are involved in adopting this form of stratified sampling techniques. For the purpose of this study, the intended respondents were grouped into 27 different stratums. After stratifying the respondents into 27 strata, the next thing was determining from each stratum the number of respondents that will represent it from the total population of the study. These was achieved by dividing the number of each stratum by total number of the entire population and then multiply by 100. For instance, the number of Auyo local government employees stand at 122/4,669 (total population of the study) and then multiply by 100. This will give us 2.1%. This means that the employees of Auyo local government represent 2.1% of the total population. After getting the percentage from each strata, the next step taken was determining the proportion of subjects from each stratum. Here, the total number of the sample size which is 354 was divided by the number of percentage of each stratum. For example, Auyo local government employees represent 2.1% and the sample size is 354, then 354/2.1% gave us 7. Therefore, 7 was the number of subjects that will represent employees from Auyo local government. Same method was used in determining the number of respondents for each stratum. See table 3.2 for more details.

Table 3.2
The disproportionate stratified sampling of respondents

S/No.	Name of Local Government	No. of Senior Staff	Percentage (%)	Disproportionate Sample
01	Auyo	122	2.1%	07
02	Babura	213	4.6%	16
03	Birnin kudu	200	4.3%	15
04	Birniwa	114	2.5%	09
05	Buji	104	2.2%	08
06	Dutse	219	4.7%	17
07	Gagarawa	125	2.7%	10
08	Garki	210	4.5%	16
09	Gumel	302	6.5%	23
10	Guri	118	2.5%	10
11	Gwaram	171	3.7%	13
12	Gwiwa	149	3.2%	11
13	Hadejia	232	5.0%	18
14	Jahun	167	3.6%	13
15	Kafin Hausa	209	4.5%	16
16	Kaugama	153	3.3%	12
17	Kazaure	266	5.7%	20
18	Kiri Kasamma	126	2.7%	09
19	Kiyawa	182	3.9%	14
20	Maigatari	205	4.4%	15
21	Malam Madori	185	4.0%	14
22	Miga	104	2.2%	08
23	Ringim	239	5.1%	18
24	Roni	111	2.4%	08
25	Sule Tankarkar	144	3.1%	11
26	Taura	165	3.6%	13
27	Yan kwashi	134	2.9%	10
	Total	**4,669**	**100%**	**354**

Source: Developed for the study (2015).

Based on the above calculations, it shows that this study employed disproportionate stratified sampling. The selection of disproportionate stratified sampling in this study is considered appropriate because it allows stratum with large number of employees to have high number of representation over stratum with small number of employees (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Additionally, disproportionate stratified sampling technique have been used and proved to be very effective in previous similar studies (Bambale, 2013a; Johari, 2010).

3.3.4 Estimating Expected Respondent Rate

In order to address the issues associated with non cooperative subjects, poor response rate and non response bias, scholar suggested increase of certain percentage on the sample size. In this regards, Babbie (1973) and Barlett, Kotrlik, and Higgins (2001) recommended increase of 50% to be appropriate in social science research. Based on that, this study increased 50% from the initial sample size. Therefore, instead of 354 questionnaires, the study now added 50% of 354 which is 177. Going by this increase, the present study arrived at 531. Thus, the researcher distributed 531 questionnaires. This implied that, each single local government area will have an increase of 50% as recommended.

The next section provided the operational definitions of all the five major variables

3.4 Operational Definitions and Measurement of Variables

3.4.1 Employee Performance

In this study, employee performance was measured by task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance. Task performance is operationalized as the behaviors of employee that contributes to the core transformation and maintenance activities in the organization as specified in the job description (Tsui *et al*., 1997).

Task performance was measured by 11 items adapted from Tsui *et al*., (1997). Contextual performance is operationalized as the behaviors of employee which are not part of their job description but assist towards enhancing organizational effectiveness (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994) and was measured by 16 items developed by Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994). Also, adaptive performance was measured with 8 items developed by Koopmans *et al.*, (2013). The item of task performance scale has been shown to be both reliable and valid for measuring task performance. Several studies have reported that the scale has adequate internal consistency with Cronbach alphas ranging from .84 in Rodgers and Deng (2004) to .93 in Sasovova, Mehra, Borgatti, and Schippers (2010) and also .83 in the study of Taştan (2014). Similarly, the 16-item of contextual performance scale has also been reported to have excellent internal consistency with Cronbach alpha of .95. It also recorded cronbach's alpha ranging from .93 to .95 in the studies of Jayaweera (2015) and Van Scotter (2000) respectively. To achieve conformity with context of this study, some modifications were made, like "employee's creativity when performing" was replaced with "I am creative when performing" and also "I" and "My" were added to conform to a self- reporting format. This method was found to be used in previous similar studies in which supervisors/peer rating scales were changed to self-rating, and a good internal reliability was reported (Alfes *et al.,* 2013). Based on a five-point scale whereby, 1 = strongly disagree, and 5 = strongly agree, participants were asked to rate their degree of agreement with their performance.

Table 3.3
Employee performance items

Variable	Dimensions	Operational Definition	Items	Authors
Employee performance	Task performance	Task performance is operationalized as the behaviors of employee that contributes to the core transformation and maintenance activities in the organization as specified in the job description.	My quantity of work is higher than average My quality of work is much higher than average. My efficiency is much higher than average. My standard of work quality are higher than average standard for this job I strives for higher quality work than required. I upholds highest professional standards. I have good ability to perform core job task. I have good judgment when performing core job task. I perform my core job task accurately. I have job knowledge with reference to core job task. I am creative when performing core task.	Tsui *et al.,* (1997)
	Contextual Performance	Contextual performance is operationally defined in this study as the behaviors of employee which are not part of their job description but assist towards enhancing	I volunteer for additional responsibility. I look for challenging assignment. I comply with instructions even when supervisors are not present.	Motowidlo and Van scotter (1994).

		organizational effectiveness.	I cooperate with others in the team I persist to overcome obstacles to complete a task. I follow standard procedures and avoid unauthorized shortcuts. I pay close attention to details. I help others to accomplish their work. I defend the supervisor's decisions. I render proper business courtesy. I support and encourage a coworker with a problem. I take the initiative to solve a work task I exercise personal discipline and self-control I tackle a difficult work assignment. I voluntarily do more than the job requires to help others or contributes to organizational effectiveness.	
	Adaptive Performance	Adaptive performance is operationally defined as the ability of employee to adapt to changes or adjustments in response to changing conditions in their work environment.	I worked at keeping my job skills up to date. I have demonstrated flexibilities. I was able to cope well with difficult situations and set backs at work. I recovered fast, after difficult situations or	Koopmans *et al.* (2013)

	set backs at work.
	I came up with creative solutions to new problems.
	I am able to cope with well with uncertain and unpredictive situations at work.
	I easily adjust to changes in my work

Source: Adapted from Tsui *et al*., (1997), Motowidlo and Van scotter (1994) and Koopmans *et al.,* (2013)

3.4.2 HRM Practices

As mentioned above, HRM practices in this study is the independent variable comprising of six different variables which include: job rotation; training & development; compensation; job autonomy; communication; and career planning.

3.4.2.1 Job Rotation

In order to measure job rotation, this study adapted eleven (11) items scale from Tarus (2014) with little modification so as to match with the context of the present study. Job rotation is operationally defined in this study as the perception of employees on lateral transfers between jobs within an organization to increase learning, experience and knowledge without change in ranks or salary increase (Tarus, 2014). The respondents were asked to rate their perception of the job rotation practice as offered in their organization. Based on a five-point scale whereby, 1 = strongly disagree, and 5 = strongly agree, participants were asked to rate their degree of agreement or disagreement with the items.

Table 3.4
Job rotation items

Variable	Dimensions	Operational Definition	Items	Authors
Job rotation	Uni-dimensional	Job rotation is operationally defined in this study as the perception of employees on lateral transfers between jobs within an organization to increase learning, experience and knowledge without change in ranks or salary increase	I am satisfied that job rotation has led to employees to advanced learning Since coming to this organization, i have developed positive attitude towards learning I am confident that job rotation has increased our efficiency in learning. I am fully aware that job rotation is a tool for career development. I have accumulated a lot of experience through job rotation. Job rotation has promoted communication between employees. I believe job rotation has improved my job stability. I am confident that job rotation has achieved effective results in my organization. Iam confident that job rotation has promoted health of employees in my organization. Iam aware that job rotation has not achieved effective results in my organization. I am aware that job rotation does not create effective results.	Tarus (2014)

Source: Adapted from Tarus, (2014)

3.4.2.2 Training & Development

Training & development practice is operationally defined in this study as the degree to which employee perceived that their organization have provided them with the required training and development program. To measure training & development, this study adapted six (6) items of perceived training & development from Lam, Chen, and Takeuchi (2009). To suit this study some amendments were made, for example, “our company” was replaced with “my organization”. In addition, respondent self-ratings was used to measure all the six (6) items on the perceived training & development scale. To justify the selection of the adapted scale, the Cronbach alpha (α) value was .93 which indicated that the scale demonstrated an internal reliability above Nunnally (1978) yardstick. Additionally, the study of Abubakar, Chauhan, and Kura (2014) used this scale in the Nigerian context and recorded .98 internal consistency and reliability. Based on a five-point scale whereby, 1 = strongly disagree, and 5 = strongly agree, participants were asked to rate their degree of agreement with regard to their organization’s training and development practices.

Table 3.5
Training & development items

Variable	Dimensions	Operational Definition	Items	Authors
Training & Development	Uni-dimension	operationally defined in this study as the degree to which employee perceived that their organization have provided them with the required training and development program	The contents and types of training programs offered in my organization are satisfactory. The amount and duration of training programmes offered in my organization are satisfactory. In my organization many 'non-technical' programmes have already been systematize. Compared to other organizations, extensive training programmes are provided for employees in their jobs in my organization. In my organization, training programs are conducted by professionals and experienced managers or trainers. In my organization, many 'technical' training programmes have already been systematized	Lam *et al.,* (2009)

Source: Adapted from Lam *et al.* (2009)

3.4.2.3 Compensation

Compensation practice is operationally defined in this study as the perception of employees with regards to the type of rewards provided to them in exchange of their performance compared to their counterparts within and outside their organization. In this study, six (6) items adapted from the work of Amin *et al.* (2014). Compensation scale was used to measure the perception of respondents on compensation practice in the Nigerian public sector organizations. Some words were added to reflect the context of the study. For example, “my organization” was added. Self-rating method will be used in which the respondents will rate their perception regarding their organization’s compensation practice toward them based on a five-point scale whereby, 1 = strongly disagree, and 5 = strongly agree. This scale of measurement was found to have an internal reliability of .87 which is above Nunnally (1978) yardstick. Based on a five-point scale whereby, 1 = strongly disagree, and 5 = strongly agree, participants were asked to rate their degree of agreement with their compensation. Table 3.6 provided the list of the adapted items below.

Table 3.6
Compensation practice items

Variable	Dimensions	Operational Definition	Items	Authors
Compensation	Uni-dimension	Compensation is operationally defined in this study as the perception of employees with regards to the type of rewards provided to them in exchange of their performance compared to their counterparts within and outside their organization	In my organization compensation is decided on the basis of competence or ability of employee. My compensation is directly linked to my performance. My organization offered attractive compensation system. My salary reflects the standard of living. My salary is comparable to other public and private organization. In my organization, performance is an important factor in determining the incentives and compensation of employees.	Amin, *et al,* (2014)

Source: Adapted from Amin *et al.* (2014)

3.4.2.4 Job Autonomy

Job autonomy practice is operationally defined as the level or degree of independence and discretion provided to an employee regarding his/her job. Nine (9) items of work autonomy scale adapted from Breaugh, (1999) was used to measure the perception of employees with regards to job autonomy. To suit this study, some adjustments on wordings were made. For instance, "competency-based" was removed. The reliability of this measurement was .88 which is also above the minimum requirement. Additionally, the measure was used in previous studies and recorded a good Cronbach's alpha above .70 (Daly & Dee, 2006; Joarder, Sharif, & Ahmmed, 2011). Based on a five-point scale whereby, 1 = strongly disagree, and 5 = strongly agree, participants were asked to rate their degree of agreement with their job autonomy practice.

Table 3.7
Job Autonomy items

Variable	Dimensions	Operational Definition	Items	Authors
Job Autonomy	Uni-dimension	Job autonomy is operationally defined as the level or degree of independence and discretion provided to an employee regarding his/her job	I am allowed to decide how to go about getting my job done (the methods to use) I am able to choose the way to go about my job (the procedures to utilize). I am free to choose the methods to use in carrying out my work. I have control over the scheduling of my work. I have some control over the sequencing of my work activities (when I do what) My job is such that I can decide when to do particular work activities. My job allows me to modify the normal way we are evaluated so that I can emphasize some aspects of my job and play down others	Breaugh, (1999)

Source: Adapted from Breaugh, (1999).

3.4.2.5 Communication

Communication practice is operationally defined in this study as the degree to which employee perceived the presence of open and easy ways of communicating ideas from employees to management and vice visa. To measure communication practice, this study adapted Den Hartog *et al.* (2013) scale. The scale consisted of six items asked employees to rate their perception regarding communication practice in their organization based on a five-point scale whereby, 1 = strongly disagree, and 5 = strongly agree. The questionnaire scale has recorded a Cronbach's alpha of .79 which is above the minimum range as provided by Nunnally (1978). To suit the context of this study some modifications were made.

Table 3.8
Communication items

Variable	**Dimensions**	**Operational Definition**	**Items**	**Authors**
Communication	Uni-dimension	Communication is operationally defined in this study as the degree to which information and communication regarding the organization flows from the management to employee and vice visa.	My organization provides sufficient amount of information to me. The information provided to me by my organization is very useful in discharging my duties. I understand the information communicated to me by my Head of Department (HOD). My HOD share and respond to information in a timely manner. My HOD actively listens to other viewpoints. My organization utilizes different communication channels.	Den Hartog *et al.* (2013)

Source: Adapted from Den Hartog *et al.* (2013)

3.4.2.6 Career Planning

Career planning is operationally defined in this study as the HRM practice of planning and aligning the interest, skills,and knowledge of employees with the requirement and needs of the organization in order to achieve individual and organizational goals . Career planning was measured with eight (8) items of career planning scale adapted from Amin *et al.* (2014) . Based on a five-point scale whereby, 1 = strongly disagree, and 5 = strongly agree, participants were asked to rate their degree of agreement with their organizational career planning. This scale also has a Cronbach's alpha of .85. Little modifications were also made to fit the context of the present study. Table 3.9 provided the list of all the three items below.

Table 3.9
Career planning items

Variable	Dimensions	Operational Definition	Items	Authors
Career planning	Uni-dimension	Career planning is operationally defined in this study as the HRM practice of planning and aligning the interest, skills,and knowledge of employees with the requirement and needs of the organization in order to achieve individual and organizational goals.	My organization prefers an internal employee when vacancy occurs. My organization plans for career and development for me as an employee. I am aware of my career path. I have clear career paths. My personal and organizational growth needs are matched. Promotion is done based on merit.	Amin *et al.* (2014)

		My career aspirations are known by my immediate Supervisor I have more than one potential position for promotion.	

Source: Adapted from Amin *et al*. (2014).

3.4.3 Self efficacy

Self efficacy will be measure by 8 items adopted from New General Self-Efficacy Scale (NGSES) developed and validated by Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001b). Self efficacy is operationalized as beliefs in one's abilities to mobilize the motivation, courses of action, and cognitive resources needed to achieve a given situational demands (Chen *et al*. 2001b). The NGSES has recorded internal consistency of .86 and .90 (Chen *et al.,* 2001b). Several studies have also reported that the scale has adequate internal consistency ranging from .83 to .89 in the studies of Viana, (2014) and Raub and Liao, (2012) respectively. Based on a five-point scale whereby, 1 = strongly disagree, and 5 = strongly agree, participants were asked to rate their degree of agreement with their abilities.

Table 3.10
Self efficacy items

Variable	Dimensions	Operational Definition	Items	Authors
Self efficacy	Uni-dimension	Self efficacy is operationalized as beliefs in one's abilities to mobilize the motivation, courses of action, and cognitive resources needed to achieve a given situational demands.	I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well	Chen *et al.,* (2001b)

Source: Adapted from Chen *et al.,* (2001b)

3.4.4 Public Service Motivation

In this study, Public service motivation was measured by four dimensions of attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, compassion and self-sacrifice (Kim, 2009). Attraction to policy making will be measured by 3 items Kim, (2009). Commitment to the public interest will be measured by 3 items adopted from Kim, (2009). Compassion will be measured by 4 items adopted from Kim, (2009). Self sacrifice will be measured by 4 items adopted from Kim, (2009). Perry (1996) was the first that provided a 40 items scale that measure public service. Kim (2009), revised the Perry's 24 items and developed a 14 items scale. The Kim (2009) PSM scale has a total of 14 items that ask about all the four components of PSM (attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, compassion; and self-sacrifice) and also reported a Cronbach's alpha of .75, 70, .71 and .75 respectively. Based on a five-point scale whereby, 1 = strongly disagree, and 5 = strongly agree, participants were asked to rate their degree of agreement with their level of PSM.

Table 3.11
Public Service Motivation items

Variable	Dimensions	Operational Definition	Items	Authors
Public Service Motivation	Attraction to Policy Making	Operationally defined as the individual motive to serve in the public sector so as to participate in the public policy process and other activities for community and social development	I am interested in making public programs that are beneficial for my country or the community I belong to. Sharing my views on public policies with others is attractive to me. Seeing people get benefits from the public program I have been deeply involved in brings me a great deal of satisfaction	Kim, (2009)
	Commitment to the public interest	Commitment to the public interest is operationally defined as the personal disposition to pursue public interest and public values	I consider public service my civic duty. Meaningful public service is very important to me. I would prefer seeing public officials do what is best for the whole community even if it harmed my interests	Kim (2009).
	Compassion	Compassion dimension refers to a sense of patriotism and the humane quality of understanding the suffering of others and wanting to do something about it.	It is difficult for me to contain my feelings when I see people in distress. I am often reminded by daily events how dependent we are on one another. I feel sympathetic to the plight of the underprivileged.	Kim (2009).

			To me, patriotism includes seeing to the welfare of others	
	Self-Sacrifice	Self-Sacrifice means the desire and willingness to provide tangible services to others just for personal reward or satisfaction	Serving other citizens would give me a good feeling even if no one paid me for it Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements. I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society I believe in putting duty before self.	Kim (2009).

Source: Adapted from Kim (2009).

3.4.5 Career opportunity

Career opportunity was measured by 3-items adapted from Kraimer *et al*. (2011). Career opportunity is operationally defined in the present study as employees' perceptions with regards to the degree to which his/her work assignments and job opportunities that match their career interests and goals are available within their current organization (Kraimer *et al.,* 2011). Based on a five-point scale whereby, 1 = strongly disagree, and 5 = strongly agree, participants were asked to rate their degree of agreement with their organization's career opportunity. To conform to the context of this study the word "company" was replaced with "organization".

Table 3.12
Career opportunity items

Variable	Dimensions	Operational Definition	Items	Authors
Career opportunity	Uni-dimension	Operationally defined in the present study as employees' perceptions with regards to the degree to which his/her work assignments and job opportunities that match their career interests and goals are available within their current organization	There are career opportunities within my organization that are attractive to me. There are job opportunities available within my organization that are of interest to me. My organization offers many job opportunities that match my career goals	Kraimer *et al.*, (2011)

Source: Adapted from Kraimer *et al.,* (2011).

3.5 Layout of the Questionnaire

All questionnaires will be prepared in English, as workers in public sectors in Nigeria can and often do work in English. Each participant in this survey will receive 10-page questionnaire (with cover letter attached). The questionnaire used in this study is shown in Appendix A.

The 10-page questionnaire consisted of 6 sections. Section 1 asked about perceived HRM Practices and there are 46 items. Section 2 asked about employee performance and there are 27 items. In Section 3 of the questionnaire, there are 14 questions on PSM. Section 4 of the questionnaire consisted of 3 items that asked about perceived career opportunity. Section 5 asked about self efficacy and there are 8 items.

The final section of the questionnaire, Section 6, is the demographic variables. A number of demographic variables will also be measured for descriptive and control purposes. These include gender, age, highest academic qualifications, number of years with the present organization and position. This information is necessary to show that the sample is representative and to ensure that generalizations to the wider population of organizations and employees can be made.

3.6 Pilot Test

Pilot test simply refers to the use of a few number of respondents as a trail to test the appropriateness or other wise of the questionnaire item (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). This assists in clarifying any possible inadequacies and also reduces bias.
As this study used a questionnaire as the primary source of data, therefore, the need for instrument validity and reliability test became imperative (Hair, Money, Samouel, & Page, 2007). In this regard, the validity and also the reliability of the questionnaire were all undertaken so as to ascertain if the questionnaire items can really measured the construct they are intended to measure (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

In this study, the questionnaires were first taken to academicians including one professor and two senior lectures who specialize in HRM and organizational behavior for content validity for some possible suggestion and observations. Based on their recommendations, the questionnaire was reproduced and distributed to some of the potential respondents among the public sector employees that form the population of the study in Nigeria. Scholars differ on the number of required respondent for pilot study. Some scholars (Lopez-Gamero, *et al,* 2009; Plaza-Ubeda*, et al*, 2010), recommended that the number of responses in pilot test should be within the range of 15-30 complete responses. In another development, Cooper and Schindler (2008) recommended only 25-100 responses to be adequate for pilot study. Therefore, this study distributed 100 questionnaires to potential respondents so as to avoid poor response. However, only 57 were retrieved and used in the pilot study as recommended. Table 3.13 provided detail summary of reliability test of the constructs. From the table it shows that all the eleven (11) variables recorded higher composite reliability of above .70 been the threshold. Similarly, all the constructs recorded good average variance extracted above .50.

Table 3.13
Summary of pilot study reliability test

Variables	No. of items	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Job Rotation	11	0.883	0.524
Training & Development	06	0.862	0.512
Compensation	06	0.831	0.554
Job Autonomy	09	0.896	0.522
Communication	06	0.890	0.578
Career Planning	08	0.911	0.573
Self-efficacy	08	0.868	0.526
Career Opportunity	03	0.874	0.699
Task Performance	11	0.870	0.529
Contextual Performance	16	0.872	0.533
Adaptive Performance	08	0.796	0.567

Table 3.14 also revealed that all the 11 constructs are distinct from each other based on the squared roots of their AVE when compared with their correlations.

Table 3.14
Pilot Test: Discriminant validity

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
JRT	**.72**										
TRN	.38	**.72**									
CMP	.51	.44	**.74**								
AUT	.53	.66	.64	**.72**							
COM	.45	.41	.62	.62	**.76**						
CPL	.44	.30	.50	.52	.71	**.76**					
SEF	.48	.34	.16	.25	.35	.34	**.73**				
COP	.24	.53	.33	.43	.32	.49	.38	**.84**			
TSK PERF	.33	.59	.29	.51	.37	.31	.49	.58	**.73**		
CTX PERF	.13	.36	.36	.29	.54	.38	.48	.34	.36	**.73**	
ADP PERF	.13	.16	-.25	-.10	-.26	-.12	.22	.12	.16	.09	**.75**

Note: JRT= Job rotation; TRN= Training & development; CMP= Compensation; AUT=Job autonomy; COM= Communication; CPL= Career planning; SEF= Self efficacy; PSM= Public service motivation; COP= Career opportunity; TSK PERF= Task performance; CTX PERF= Contextual performance; ADP PERF= Adaptive performance.

3.7 Data Collection Procedures

Data collection procedure is regarded as an essential part of research design (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). The actual data collection began after the pilot study was conducted. Each of the 27 local governments were all contacted by visiting their office during working hours. A letter from Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business introducing the researcher and also prepared formal letter seeking the permission of the local governments were sent to each of the 27 local governments that constituted the population of the study. Once the public sectors agreed to participate in the study, an appointment will be set at their convenience.

For this study, the questionnaire were personally distributed and administered by the researcher. This self-administered technique allows the researcher to collect a large amount of completed responses within short period of time (Hair, Money, Samouel & Page, 2007). Similarly, the researcher was able to provide immediate clarification when needed by the respondents and provide opportunity to build rapport and motivate the respondents to participate in the study (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Each respondent was briefed about the purpose of the study. Respondents were assured that all the responses given will be treated as confidential and will be used for the study only. For those who may not have time to complete the questionnaire, more time was given to them.

After the distribution of all 531 survey package, firstly, 229 answered and usable questionnaires were retrieved through the staff of personnel departments. These 229 questionnaires were tagged as early responses. They were further used to check for the non-response bias based on the twelve main study variables. Apart from these significant response rates of 229 recorded, still the researcher employed other ways to encourage the remaining participants to respond. These include: personal visits, phone calls, e-mail messages and short service messages through members of the personnel departments. Through this method 36 additional questionnaires were retrieved and tagged as late responses. These late and early responses collected were later used in order to dictate the presence or otherwise on response bias.

In total, from the 531 questionnaires distributed 293 were retrieved (both early and late responded) which give 55% response rate. However, out of these 293 responded questionnaires 28 were excluded as they are found to be not useable for further analysis. Therefore, the remaining 265 considered as usable were all utilized in the analysis. They accounted for about 50% response rate.

As researchers usually encountered some challenges and difficulties especially in data collections, this study was not an exception. The major problem encountered during the course of data administration/collection relates to the issue of security and geographical location (i.e. distance) of participating organizations. In relation to the security, the issue of “Boko Haram insurgency” which creates a serious insecurity and fear in the northern part of Nigeria necessitates public and even private organizations to restrict entrance to organizations. Public organizations been the prime targets increases security checks at entrance as the researcher must always identify himself and undergoes several security checks before been allowed to enter organizations to distribute or collect back answered questionnaires. With regards to the geographical location (i.e. distance) of participating organizations, the researcher in some areas has to travel for more than 200 kilometers to some remote local government areas. For instance, from Gumel local government to Gwaram local government is about 207 kilometers. Similarly, from Gumel to Birnin-kudu is 159 kilometers. Despites these problems, the data administration/collection period lasted 13 good weeks (i.e. three months one week).

3.8 Techniques of Data Analysis

Several techniques were employed in an attempt to make sure that the data for this study are properly presented and analyzed. Preliminary analysis and the main data analysis were all conducted.

3.8.1 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive statistics in research summarizes the essential features of data. It also allows the researchers to meaningfully describe many pieces of data with a few indices. The SPSS version 22.0 was used to descriptively analyzes the data. Here, several steps were followed in determining the frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations and ranges for all the major variables (dependents, independents, and mediating). Data screening was also employed to dictate and replace the missing values, treat outliers and test for normality and other related tests (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Conversion of data from SPSS to Microsoft excel format (comma delimited) follows so as to ease the use of Smart PLS-SEM.

Next, the Smart PLS-SEM multivariate data analysis was conducted for determining the items loadings, composite reliability (internal consistency and reliability), discrimnant validity, convergent validity. Additionally, the path coefficients through bootstrapping was employed in testing the hypotheses (Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2005).

3.8.2 Smart PLS-SEM

The present study utilized the Smart Partial least Square Structural Equation Modeling (Smart PLS-SEM) version 2.0 M3. The Smart PLS-SEM is a second-generation statistical tool that enables researchers to analyzes simultaneously multiple variables. The PLS-SEM is regarded as a family member of regression techniques design to estimate simultaneously the relationships or links between the structural model (constructs) and measurement model also called indicators (Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted, 2003).

Recently, researchers in social sciences and management have turned to the application of second-generation techniques of data analysis so as to overcome the weaknesses associated with the use of first generation techniques (Hair Jr, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014). The Smart PLS-SEM allows the researcher to incorporate variables (unobservable) measured indirectly by scale items/indicator variables. Additionally, the Smart PLS-SEM in observed variables facilitates in accounting for the measurement error (Chin, 1998; Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014). Smart PLS-SEM as a technique for data analysis takes care of both the reflective and formative constructs (Robert, Dennis, & Ahuja, 2008). The Smart PLS-SEM also accommodates the presence of large number of constructs (Pavlou & Gefen, 2005).

Furthermore, as mentioned earlier that the goal of this study is mainly to predict the role of HRM practices in promoting and enhancing employees task, adaptive and contextual performance in organization. Again, testing the mediation effect of self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity is another goal. Therefore, present research is considered to be explorative in nature by employing social exchange theory and ability-motivation-opportunity (AMO) theory. Hence, a path modeling approach is required to be applied as it has been suggested by scholars (Hair et al., 2011; Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009) that if the goal of research is prediction or an extension of existing theory, the best statistical analysis that should be used is PLS path modeling.

Moreover, Smart PLS-SEM has some advantages over other related SEM, like AMOS and LISREL that are covariance-based. In contrast, the PLS-SEM is a component-based approach with algorithm that minimizes the variances of all the dependent latent construct rather than just explaining the co-variantion alone (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). Additionally, Smart PLS-SEM places only minimal restrictions on measurement scales, sample size and residual distribution (Pavlou & Fygenson, 2006).

3.8.3 Measurement and Structural Model Assessment

The literature indicated that there are two stages in conducting PLS SEM analysis. The structural model assessment and the measurement model assessment (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014). The present study assessed both structural model and measurement model in its analysis. To assess the measurement model in PLS SEM several test are involved. Firstly, is determining the individual items reliability through examining the outer loadings of each construct or simple correlation of indicators. The rule of thumb widely accepted is that the loadings most be 0.707 or more (Barroso, Carrión, & Roldán, 2010). The commonly used measure of internal consistency instrument in PLS SEM is composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha (Barroso *et al.*, 2010). Secondly, is determining the average variance extracted (AVE). The AVE provides the amount of variance to which a construct captured from its indicators or manifest variable relative to the amount due to the measurement error. The rule of thumb for AVE value is from 0.50 and above (Barroso *et al.*, 2010). Thirdly, discriminant validity measures the extent to which an individual construct is different from other constructs. In the assessment of discriminant validity, Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommended that the AVE most be higher than the variance between the variable and other variables in the model.

The second stage in PLS SEM analysis is the structural model assessment. To measure the structural model, standard bootstrapping procedures was followed with 5000 sample as recommended by scholars (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014; Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009). Measuring the structural model allows for the assessment and ascertaining the significance of path coefficient (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014), the coefficient of determination R^2, the effect size of all the relationships and lastly the predictive relevance of all models (Hair, *et al*, 2011; Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010).

3.8.4 Mediation Effects Test

Hair Jr *et al.* (2014), provided that a mediating effect is establish when another (regarded as third) variable(s) or construct(s) intervenes between two other related constructs (independent and dependent). Similarly, Ramayah, Lee, and In (2011) opined that mediation tests were mainly undertaken to ascertain whether the mediator variable extends the influence of the independent variable to the dependent variable.

From the theoretical point of view, mediation is commonly applied so as to "explain" why a particular relationship between an exogenous (independent variable) and endogenous (dependent variable) exist. There exist several numbers of techniques used by researchers in testing mediation effect. These include the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982), three conditions of (Baron & Kenny, 1986), bootstrapping (Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008), distribution of products approach by Holbert and Stephenson (2003), etc.

In testing the mediation effect, the Hair *et al* (2014) procedure suggested that, the first thing is to establish significant relationship between the independent(s) variable and the dependent(s) variable (direct effect). But if the relationship between the independent(s) variable and the dependent(s) variable (direct effect) is not significant then no mediation. Therefore, significant direct effect provides ground for testing indirect effect. However, scholars like Hayes (2009), Zhao, Lynch, and Chen (2010), Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, and Petty (2011) argued that in testing mediation, the direct (IV to DV) relationship must not be a necessary condition, as mediation can be statistically significant in the absent of direct relationship. Furthermore, Rucker *et al.* (2011) recommended that a non-significant direct effect should not be considered as a stopping rule or condition in the process of testing mediation. Secondly, significant indirect effect provides ground for testing the variance accounted for (VAF). But if the indirect effect is not significant then it signifies that no mediation effect. Lastly, testing the VAF determines the degree of indirect effect (mediation). In this case, the VAF value of 80% and above indicates full mediation. But VAF value of 20% -79% indicates partial mediation. While, VAF value less than 20% indicates no mediation (Hair *et al.,*2014).

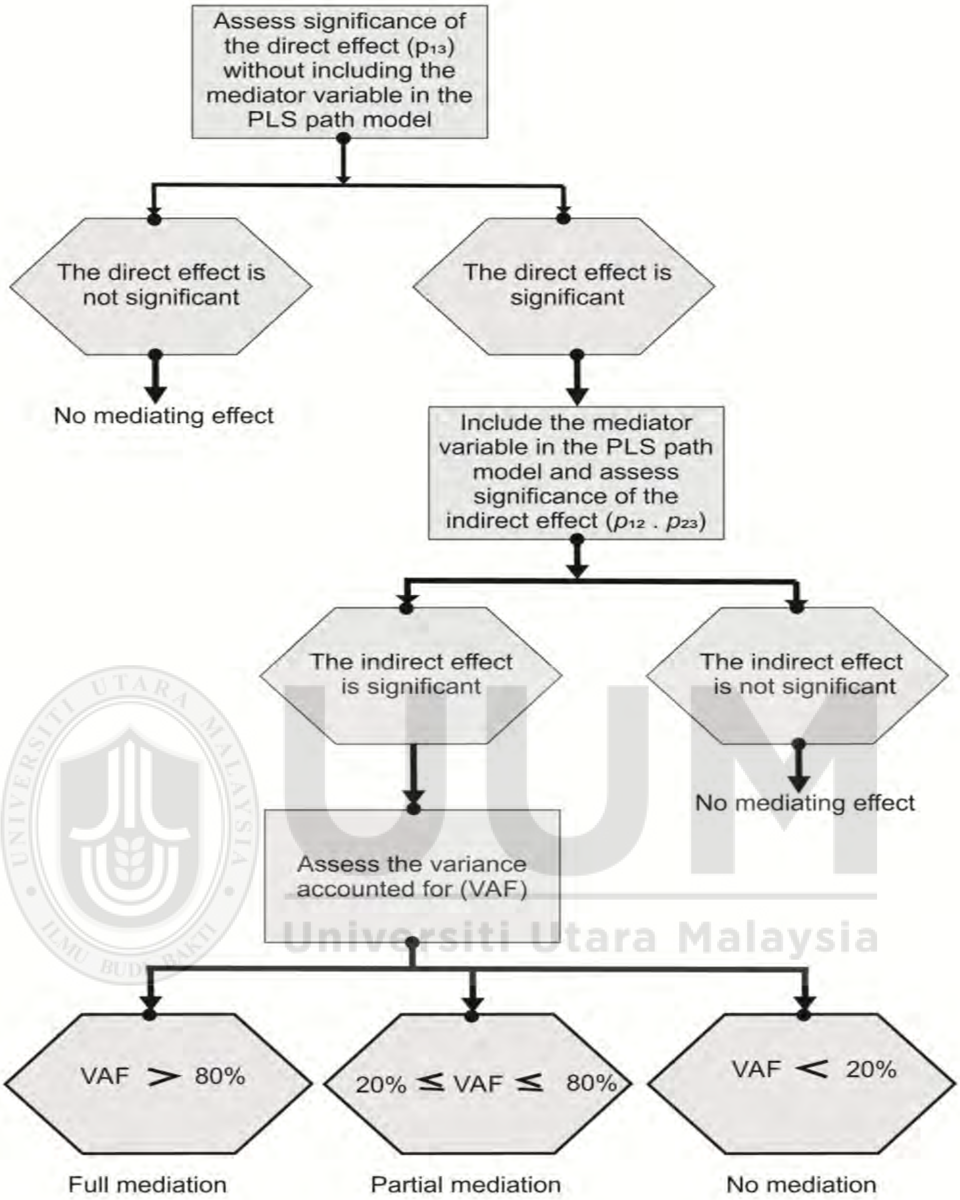


Figure 3.2
Procedure of mediation analysis in PLS SEM
Source: Hair *et al* (2014)

In testing the mediation effect the present study employed the bootstrapping method (Hayes, 2009: Preacher & Hayes, 2010) based on the recommendation of Hair *et al,* (2014). They argued that, when testing mediation effect researchers are recommended to follow Preacher and Hayes (2004, 2008) by bootstrapping the sampling distribution of indirect effect, which works for both simple and multiple mediator(s) models. The advantages of bootstrapping over other methods is that the bootstrapping makes no assumptions about either the shape of the variables' distribution nor the sampling distribution of the statistics and can be applied to small sample sizes with more confidence. Again, the bootstrapping approach is perfectly suited for the PLS-SEM method (Hair, *et al*, 2014). Additionally, the bootstrapping technique of testing mediation exhibits higher levels of statistical power when compared with the Sobel test which lack statistical power when applied in small samples (Hair, *et al,* 2014).Furthermore, mediation test using the bootstrapping approach uses standard errors for path coefficients while the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach does not involve the use of standard errors (Hayes & Preacher, 2010).

In order to test the significance of the mediating effect of all the three mediating variables (self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity), the present study used Smart PLS SEM 2.0 M3 (Ringle *et al.,* 2005) by using the bootstrapping method. This research work also run a 5000 re sampling bootstrapping based on the suggestion of Hair *et al,* (2014). Having run the bootstrapping of the full structural model, the study first analyzed the path coefficients of path ***a*** and ***b***. The path ***a*** represent the relationship between the independent variables to mediating variables. While path ***b*** represented the relationship between the mediating variables to the independent variables. The present study also employed the formula provided by Hayes and Preacher, (2010) in calculating the t values in mediation. The formula is as follows:

$$\text{Tab} = \frac{(a*b)}{S\,(a*b)}$$

In which:

a = value(s) of relationship between the independent variable(s) and the mediator(s)
b=value(s) of the relationship between the mediator(s) and the dependent variable(s)
Sab = standard error of the "***a***" and "***b***"

3.8.5 Magnitude of Mediating Effects (VAF)

Finally, variance accounted for (VAF) was analyzed to assess the extent of mediation effects. The VAF determines an extent or magnitude to which the variance of the dependent variable is directly explained by the independent variable and how much of the target construct's variance is explained by the indirect relationship through the mediator(s) variable(s). Therefore, VAF simply determines only the size of the mediation (indirect effect), in relation to the total effect which is direct effect plus the indirect effect. Thus, VAF=a*b/a*b+c

Therefore, $\text{VAF} = \dfrac{\text{Indirect Effect}}{\text{Indirect Effect + Direct effect}}$

Where:

a = is coefficient value between the independent(s) variable and mediating variable(s);

b= is coefficient value between the mediating variable(s) and dependent variable(s);

c= is coefficient value between the independent variable(s) and dependent variable(s).

3.9 Conclusions

This chapter has explained the research method and strategy for the study. It described how the sample of organizations was obtained, the selection of the respondents, development of the questionnaire, the research materials, and the survey procedure. This chapter also briefly explains the adoption of several analyses such as descriptive analysis, preliminary analysis and the use of Smart-PLS SEM structural and measurement model assessment to test the research hypotheses. The chapter ended by explaining the processes involved in testing mediation effect and also how to test the magnitude of the mediation effect.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provided a comprehensive report of the results obtained from the questionnaires administered to the participants using SPSS and PLS SEM. To be specific, the chapter presents the report of preliminary data screening and also presented the response rate, test of non response bias, the common method bias and the descriptions of sample of the study. The chapter further presented the results of measurement and the structural models. In the measurement model, individual item reliabilities, internal consistency, and also convergent validity along with discriminant validity assessments were all presented. In addition, the structural model discusses the relationship between the major constructs of the study (HRM practices, self efficacy, public service motivation, career opportunity, task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance.

4.2 Response Rate

In this study, a total number of 531questionnaires were distributed to the senior staffs of the 27 local government areas of Jigawa state government. As mentioned earlier that Jigawa state was located in the Northwest geo-political zone of Nigeria. These 531 questionnaires were all personally distributed to the participants one and one in their respective local government areas. Out of the 531 distributed questionnaires only 293 were returned to the researcher. The 293 responded questionnaires accounted for 55% response rate. However, out of these 293 returned questionnaires 28 were considered not usable based on the fact that in the 5 returned questionnaires the respondents have left either a page or two unanswered. Therefore, these 5 returned questionnaire are considered as incomplete and therefore excluded. Also, 23 returned questionnaires were detected as outliers based on Mahalanobis distance (D^2). The remaining 265 questionnaires which accounted for 50% are considered a valid response rate. The 50% valid response rate is considered sufficient and also adequate for further analysis based on the argument of Sekaran and Bougie (2009) that a response rate of 30% is considered acceptable for further analysis in surveys. Table 4.1 provided a detail analysis of response rate.

Table 4.1
Response Rate of the Questionnaires

Item	Frequency/Rate
Number of distributed questionnaires	531
Number of returned questionnaires	293
Number of returned and usable questionnaires	265
Number of returned but excluded questionnaires	28
Number of questionnaires not returned	238
Response rate	293/531 = 55%
Valid response rate	265/531 = 50%

4.3 Data Screening and Preliminary Analysis

In any quantitative research the importance of data screening cannot be overemphasize as it provides ground towards the attainment of a significant results. Hair *et al.* (2010), pointed out that the quality of the output and analysis largely dependent upon the quality of preliminary data screening. Data screening allows the researchers to identify any possible violations of the key assumptions regarding the application of multivariate techniques of data analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2007).

Prior to the actual data screening, the researcher coded all the 288 returned and usable questionnaires in the SPSS version 22. Firstly, the items were coded based on the construct they are intended to represent. For instance, job rotation was coded JRT and it has 11 items, therefore all items representing job rotation were coded JRT01 to JRT11. Similar pattern was done to all constructs and their respective items. See Table 4.2.

Table 4.2
Constructs /Items Coding

Constructs	Code	No of items
Job rotation	JRT	11
Training & Development	TRN	06
Compensation	CMP	06
Job Autonomy	AUT	08
Communication	COM	06
Career Planning	CPL	09
Public Service Motivation	PSM	14
Self Efficacy	SEF	08
Career Opportunity	COP	03
Task Performance	TSK	11
Contextual Performance	CTX	16
Adaptive Performance	ADP	08

Additionally, items that are negatively worded in the questionnaire were carefully reversed coded. In this regard, two items which include JRT10 and JRT11 were reversed coded. Immediately after the coding and data entry, some preliminary data analyses follows. These includes: (1) the missing value analysis; (2) the assessment of outliers and (3) Multicollinearity test (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) were all conducted.

4.3.1 Missing Value Analysis

Missing data as argued by Acuna and Rodriguez (2004b) is a common problem in the statistical analysis. Acuna and Rodriguez (2004b), provided that if the rates of missing data is less than 1% then it will be generally considered trivial, but if it is between 1-5% is considered manageable. However, if the rate of missing data is between 5-15% then it required sophisticated techniques or methods to handle. But if more than 15% then it may severely impact any kind of interpretation.

From the original SPSS data, 26 data points were randomly missed in the present study. To be specific, training & development, job autonomy, communication, task performance and public service motivation had 3 missing values each. Similarly, compensation and career planning had 2 missing values each. While, contextual performance had the highest number of missing values which is 7.

Even though, there are various methods for dealing with missing values, yet there is no one best way or technique as they are all applicable based on the nature of analysis. Therefore, based on the recommendation of some researchers like Little and Rubin (2002) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) that suggested the use of serial mean in the replacement of missing data if the percentage of the missing values is not more than 5%, this study replaced the missing values using serial mean (mean substitution). Table 4.3 shows the variables with missing values and the number of the missing values found in each variable.

Table 4.3
Variables and number of missing values

Variables	Number of missing values
Training & Development	3
Compensation	2
Job Autonomy	3
Communication	3
Career Planning	2
Public Service Motivation	3
Task Performance	3
Contextual Performance	7
Total	**26**

4.3.2 Assessment of Outliers

According to Acuna and Rodriguez (2004a) detecting outliers in a database is regarded an important data mining task. As presence of outliers in any give data set invariably distorts the estimates of the regression coefficients and can also lead to misleading results (Verardi & Croux, 2008). An outlier in simple term refers to an observation(s) that deviates very much from other observations.

In line with the recommendation of some scholars (Pallant, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), the present study employed Mahalanobis D^2 in identifying and dealing with multivariate outliers. As treating the multivariate outliers in data set also take care of univariate outliers. But, treating univariate outliers alone might not necessarily handle multivariate outliers in data set (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Consequently, Mahalanobis D^2 was computed by running linear regression methods on SPSS version 22. After obtaining the Mahalanobis D^2 output, given that 106 items were used, then 105 represented the degree of freedom (d/f). Using the chi-square table at $p < 0.001$, therefore, a value of 155.528 was arrived at (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Thus, indicating that any case having Mahalanobis D^2 value of 155.528 and above is considered to be a multivariate outlier and a right candidate for deletion. In this regards, 23 cases (1, 5, 15, 52, 60, 93, 96, 102, 114, 117,121,127, 129, 150,161, 166, 170, 180, 189, 199, 217, 266, and 277) were detected and subsequently deleted from further analysis.

4.3.3 Multicollinearity Test

Multicollinearity is a situation in which two or more independent (exogenous latent constructs) variables become highly linearly related (Field, 2009). Multicollinearity among the independent variables may substantially distort the estimates of any regression coefficients and also their statistical significance (Chatterjee & Yilmaz, 1992; Hair *et al.*, 2007). Again, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) added that, presence of multicollinearity among variable increases the standard errors, which may successively make the coefficients to be statistically non-significant.

In order to determine the presence of multicollinearity or otherwise, the present study start by examining the correlation matrix as suggested by Hair *et al.* (2010) and Sekaran and Bougie (2013). Furthermore, Hair *et al.* (2010) indicated that correlation coefficient of between .90 and above shows there is multicollinearity between latent constructs.

Table 4.4
Correlation Matrix of the independent variables

	JRT	TRN	CMP	AUT	COM	CPL	COP	SEF	PSM
JRT	1								
TRN	.578**	1							
CMP	.501**	.704**	1						
AUT	.385**	.559**	.581**	1					
COM	.776**	.670**	.565**	.480**	1				
CPL	.724**	.663**	.591**	.557**	.618**	1			
COP	.715**	.624**	.529**	.433**	.723**	.719**	1		
SEF	.691**	.550**	.472**	.440**	.739**	.786**	.678**	1	
PSM	.655**	.524**	.393**	.452**	.709**	.708**	.642**	.694**	1

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); JRT= Job rotation; TRN= Training & development; CMP= Compensation; AUT= Job autonomy; COM= Communication; CPL= Career planning; SEF= Self efficacy; PSM= Public service motivation; COP= Career opportunity; TSK PERF= Task performance; CTX PERF= Contextual performance; ADP PERF= Adaptive performance.

In line with the Hair *et al.* (2010) threshold values of .90 and above, Table 4.4 indicated that multicollinearity is not a problem in the present study as the highest value was below the minimum yardstick.

Again, apart from checking multicollinearity using correlation matrix table, the present study also looked at the variance inflated factor (VIF) and tolerance value for further confirmation. In this regard, Hair, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2011) opined that multicollinearity is present when the VIF value of a construct is lower than .20 or the tolerance value is greater than 5. Based on the collinearity statistics on Table 4.5 It depicts that all the variables had a tolerance value greater than .20, and also a VIF value lower than 5 respectively. This indicated that no multicollinearity issues in the present study.

Table 4.5
Results of Multicollinearity Test

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	**VIF**
JRT	.326	3.064
TRN	.367	2.724
CMP	.426	2.346
AUT	.561	1.784
COM	.230	4.355
CPL	.218	4.581
COP	.361	2.773
SEF	.318	3.142
PSM	.390	2.563

Note: Tolerance > 0.2 and VIF value < 5; JRT= Job rotation; TRN= Training & development; CMP= Compensation; AUT= Job autonomy; COM= Communication; CPL= Career planning; SEF= Self efficacy; PSM= Public service motivation; COP= Career opportunity; TSK PERF= Task performance; CTX PERF= Contextual performance; ADP PERF= Adaptive performance.

4.4 Test of Non Response Bias

Non-response bias in simple terms refers to “the difference between the answers of non-respondents and respondents” (Lambert & Harrington, 1990). Non-response bias is considered a common problem faced by the researcher(s) especially in recent time. This is because the probability of getting differences in the behavior may exist, more especially between the respondents and non-respondents (Matteson, Ivancevich, & Smith, 1984). To overcome the potential problem of non-response bias the present study adopted some measures so as to get higher response rate. The measures includes: an increase of 50% of the sample size as advised by Salkind (1997), follow-up and remainders through phone calls, and personal visits, were all employed to motivate respondents (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2004). Apart from the aforementioned measures, additional methods were also followed. In this regard, Armstrong and Overton (1977) suggested that early respondents and late respondents have similar characteristics. Therefore, time-trend extrapolation is considered appropriate to check for any possible response bias. To check for non response bias, the recommendation of Armstrong and Overton (1977) was followed in which a t-test on early and late responses was performed in this study. In this regard, the respondents that responded within the first two weeks after collecting the questionnaires are classified as the early respondents, while those that responded after two weeks are considered late respondents. Based on this categorization, the results of the independent t-test revealed that all the twelve variables under study had recorded an equal variance value greater than 0.05 (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010). Therefore, no significant difference found between those that responded early (within two weeks), and those that responded late (after two weeks). Thus, the dilemma of non response bias is not an issue in the present study. Additionally, considering the recommendation of Lindner and Wingenbach (2002) that since the present study had achieved 50% response rate, it can also be added that the issue of non-response bias appeared not to be a major concern.

Moreover, as shown in Table 4.6 there is no significant difference between the average mean of early respondents and late respondents. This also provides additional support on the absence of non response bias.

Table 4.6
Descriptive Statistics of the Early and Late Respondents groups

Construct	Group	Number	Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances F	Sig.
JRT	Early Response	229	4.03	.161	.688
	Late Response	36	4.01		
TRN	Early Response	229	4.04	.026	.872
	Late Response	36	4.18		
CMP	Early Response	229	3.97	2.68	.103
	Late Response	36	4.08		
AUT	Early Response	229	3.94	.002	.961
	Late Response	36	3.93		
COM	Early Response	229	4.08	.130	.719
	Late Response	36	4.13		
CPL	Early Response	229	4.05	.022	.882
	Late Response	36	4.11		
COP	Early Response	229	4.08	.280	.597
	Late Response	36	4.14		
SEF	Early Response	229	4.13	.721	.397
	Late Response	36	4.14		
PSM	Early Response	229	4.14	.001	.969
	Late Response	36	4.16		
TSK	Early Response	229	4.06	.086	.769
	Late Response	36	4.10		
CTX	Early Response	229	4.10	.059	.809
	Late Response	36	4.14		
ADP	Early Response	229	4.03	.013	.910
	Late Response	36	4.10		

Note: JRT= Job rotation; TRN= Training & development; CMP= Compensation; AUT=Job autonomy; COM= Communication; CPL= Career planning; SEF= Self efficacy; PSM= Public service motivation; COP= Career opportunity; TSK PERF= Task performance; CTX PERF= Contextual performance; ADP PERF= Adaptive performance.

4.5 Common Method Bias Test

In behavioral research, majority of the researchers agreed that common method variance (CMV) is a potential problem in research (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Common method variance simply refers to variance that is credited to the measurement method not to the constructs the measures represent (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003).

Several procedural remedies were utilized in this study to minimize the effects of CMV as suggested by scholars (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012; Viswanathan & Kayande, 2012). At first instance, all the respondents were informed both in written and verbally that their responses will be anonymous as their identity will not be disclosed. Negative worded questions were also used to measure some items. The negative worded questions were later reversed coded. Additionally, simple English was used in all items in the questionnaire so as to eliminate vague questions and were necessary examples were provided. Again, as suggested by Podsakoff *et al.* (2012) the measures of independents and dependents variables were obtained from different sources.

Furthermore, apart from the above mentioned procedural measures, again the statistical remedy was also utilized as recommended (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2012). In this regard, Harman's single factor test was also utilized in the present study. The Harman's single-factor is considered to be one of the most commonly employed procedures to ascertain the likely predicament of Common Method Variance. The basic assumption of Harman (1976) single-factor procedure is that, presence of common method variance indicates that a single factor will emerge, or one factor will account for more than 50% of total variance (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). The un-rooted factor results of the present study indicated distinct factors with the largest factor accounting 29.6%. This suggested that no single factor accounted for 50%. Therefore, it is suggested that common method bias is not present in this study.

4.6 Respondents Profile

In this section the respondents/demographic profile of all the participants who responded to the questionnaires were described. The demographic characteristics of participant as examined in the present study include respondent gender, age, marital status, highest academic qualification, number of years with present organization, present position and current organization (current local government). Table 4.7 provided the details.

Table 4.7
Respondents Profile

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	244	92.1
Female	21	7.9
Age		
19 – 25 Years	48	18.1
26 – 35 Years	74	27.9
36 – 45 Years	95	35.8
46 – 55 Years	46	17.4
56 – Above Years	02	0.8
Marital Status		
Single	42	14.9
Married	229	81.5
Divorced/Separated/Widowed	09	3.2
Missing	01	0.4
Highest Academic Qualification		
Certificate	16	6.0
Diploma/NCE	99	37.4
Degree/HND	122	46.0
Master	21	7.9
PhD	01	0.4
Others	05	1.9
Missing	01	0.4
Number of years with present organization		
Less than 1 year	9	3.4
1 – 3 years	32	12.1
4 – 7 years	58	21.9
More than 7 years	166	62.6

Present position		
GL 07 – 08	67	25.3
GL 09 – 10	77	27.7
GL 12 – 13	81	30.6
GL 14 – 15	43	16.2

Note: GL = Grade Level; NCE = National Certificate in Education; HND = Higher National Diploma; PhD = Doctor of Philosophy.

Table 4.7 indicated that majority of the participants 244 representing 92.1% in the sample were males, while the remaining number 21 that representing 7.9% were females. This distribution of respondents may be as a result of the Nigerian population distributions were males represent 60% and females constitute the remaining 40%.

With regards to the age of the respondent, the result as provided in the table indicated that 95 respondents representing 35.8% fall within the age group of 36-45 years. Similarly, 74 respondents representing 27.9% are between 26 -35 years. Also, 48 respondents who represented 18.1% of the sample are youth between 19-25 years, while 46 respondents representing 17.4% of the sample are between 46-55 years. Lastly, respondents that fall within the age bracket of 55-above years accounted for only 0.8% which is less than 1% of the total sample.

In terms of marital status, majority of the participants 229 representing 81.5 % were married, followed by 42 single participants who represented 14.9%. While the Divorced/Separated/Widowed class were only 9 (3.4%). However, 1 respondent had not indicated his/her marital status.

Regarding the highest qualification of the sample, most of the participants 122 representing 46% had first degree/HND as their highest academic qualification, while 99 of the participants who represent 37.4% had Diploma/NCE as their highest academic qualification. Similarly, 21 respondents who represent 7.9% followed by 16 (6.0%) have master degree and certificates. Lastly, 5 of the respondents have other qualifications not mentioned, while 1 participant has a PhD and another1had not indicate his/her qualification.

In relation to number of years spent in the present organizations, majority of the respondents 166 (62.6%) spent more than 7 years. 58 representing 21.9% are between 4 – 7 years, while 32 (12.1%) and 9 (3.4%) are within the range of 1 – 3 years and less than 1 year respectively.

Lastly, the positions of the participants based on their grade levels indicated that most of the participants 81 (30.6%) are between GL 12 – 13 followed by 77 (27.7%) that are between GL 09 – 10. In addition, 67 (25.3%) and 43 (16.2%) of the respondents are within the range of GL 07 – 08 and GL 14 – 15 respectively.

4.7 Descriptive Statistics of the Latent Variables

Table 4.8 presented the descriptive analysis of all the variables used in the study (i.e independents, mediators and dependents). The table provided the mean and the standard deviations of all the constructs. All the 12 latent constructs are measured using a five points Likert scale with 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree.

Results of descriptive statistics of the variables used as provided in table 4.8 Indicated that the mean score range from a minimum of 3.98 to a maximum of 4.10. Similarly, the standard deviation ranged between .380 to .684. This revealed that the perception of participants on the study variable is slightly above average.

Table 4.8
Descriptive statistics of the latent variables (n=265)

Variables	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
JRT	265	4.03	.513
TRN	265	4.06	.504
CMP	265	3.98	.602
AUT	265	3.94	.494
COM	265	4.09	.590
CPL	265	4.06	.516
COP	265	4.09	.684
SEF	265	4.13	.408
PSM	265	4.14	.380
TSK	265	4.07	.461
CTX	265	4.10	.396
ADP	265	4.04	.489
Valid No.	**265**		

Note: JRT= Job rotation; TRN= Training & development; CMP= Compensation; AUT= Job autonomy; COM= Communication; CPL= Career planning; SEF= Self efficacy; PSM= Public service motivation; COP= Career opportunity; TSK PERF= Task performance; CTX PERF= Contextual performance; ADP PERF= Adaptive performance.

4.8 Assessment of the PLS-SEM Path Model Results

Recently, scholars like Henseler and Sarstedt (2013) and Hair *et al*. (2014) provided that using the goodness-of-fit (GoF) index for model validation is not suitable. They argued that when using PLS SEM path models the goodness-of-fit index does not separate a valid model from invalid ones, therefore GoF is considered not suitable. Therefore, based on the above arguments the present study considered and followed the two way approach suggested by Henseler *et al.* (2009) as a suitable approach or process of evaluating and also reporting the results of PLS-SEM path models. The two step processes employed in this study are: the assessment of a measurement model; and the assessment of the structural model (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014; Henseler *et al.*, 2009). These two step process are also called the inner model and the outer model assessments (Ramayah *et al.*, 2011).

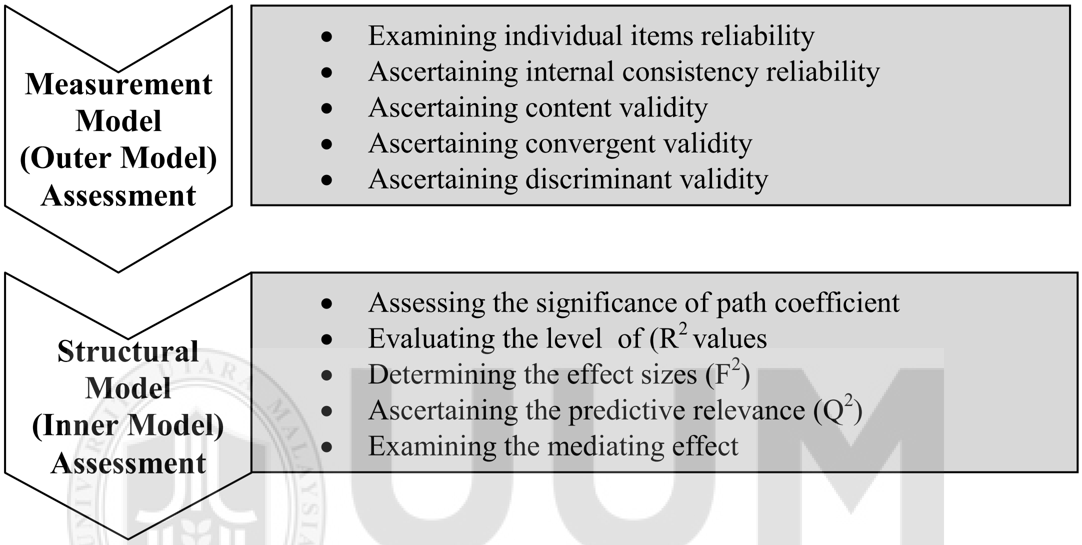


Figure 4.1
A Two- Step Process of PLS Path Model Assessment
Source: Henseler et al. *(2009)*

4.9 Assessment of Measurement Model (Reflective)

In PLS SEM the specification of a measurement model required the followings: (1) the determination of individual item reliability; (2) internal consistency reliability; (3) convergent validity and lastly the (4) discriminant validity for each of the reflective constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2011; Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014; Henseler *et al.*, 2009). But in the case of formative construct, two basic steps or assessment has to be checked. The first is the assessment of collinearity among formative indicators.

Secondly, is the assessment of significance and relevance of all formative indicators so as to determine the statistical contributions of all the formative items to the main construct(s).

In the present study, the only construct with formative indicators is public service motivation (PSM). The PSM construct was measured by 14 items. Of the 14 items, 3 items are for attraction to policy making, 3 items for commitment to public interest, 4 items for compassion and lastly 4 items for self sacrifice. Therefore, PSM been a mediating variable is a reflective formative construct. In this regard, hierarchical component model (HCM) using a repeated indicator approach was employed in measuring PSM. As shown in Figure 4.2, the lower order components (LOCs) of PSM including: attraction to policy making, self sacrifice, commitment to public interest and compassion are all repeated on the higher order component which is PSM in obtaining the latent variable score of all the LOCs (Becker, Klein, & Wetzels, 2012; Ringle, Sarstedt, & Straub, 2012b). Next to this, the latent variable scores were then used in the two stage approach (Figure 4.3 provides the two stage approach) by using the LOCs scores of each formative indicators for the HOCs (Ringle, et al., 2012). As shown in Figure 4.3, the latent variable scores of all the four LOCs that formed PSM construct are important and as such retained.

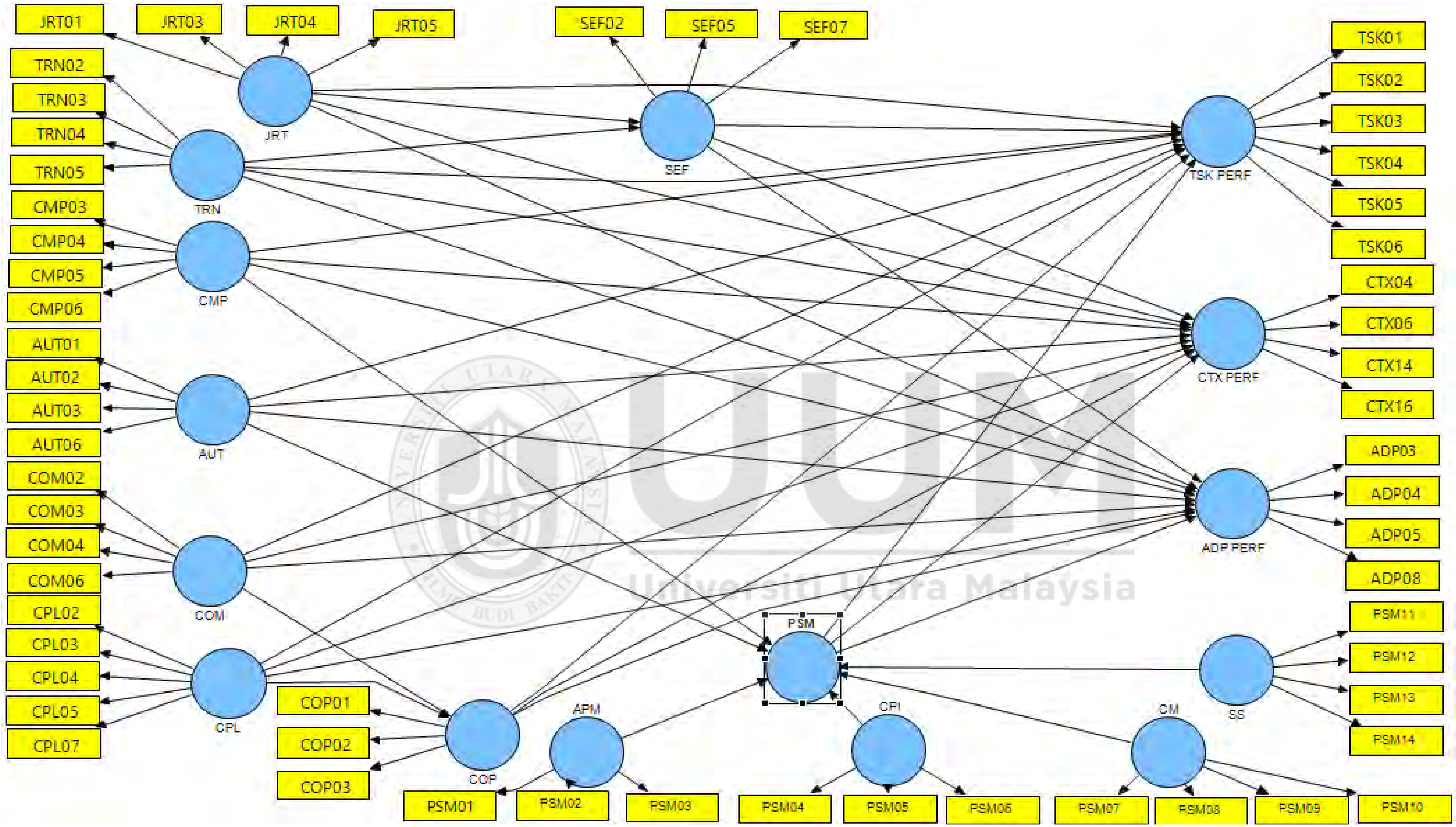


Figure 4.2

Repeated indicator approach

Note: The items loaded on the four LOCs of APM, CPI, CM and SS are also repeated on the HOC of PSM but hidden for good appearance.

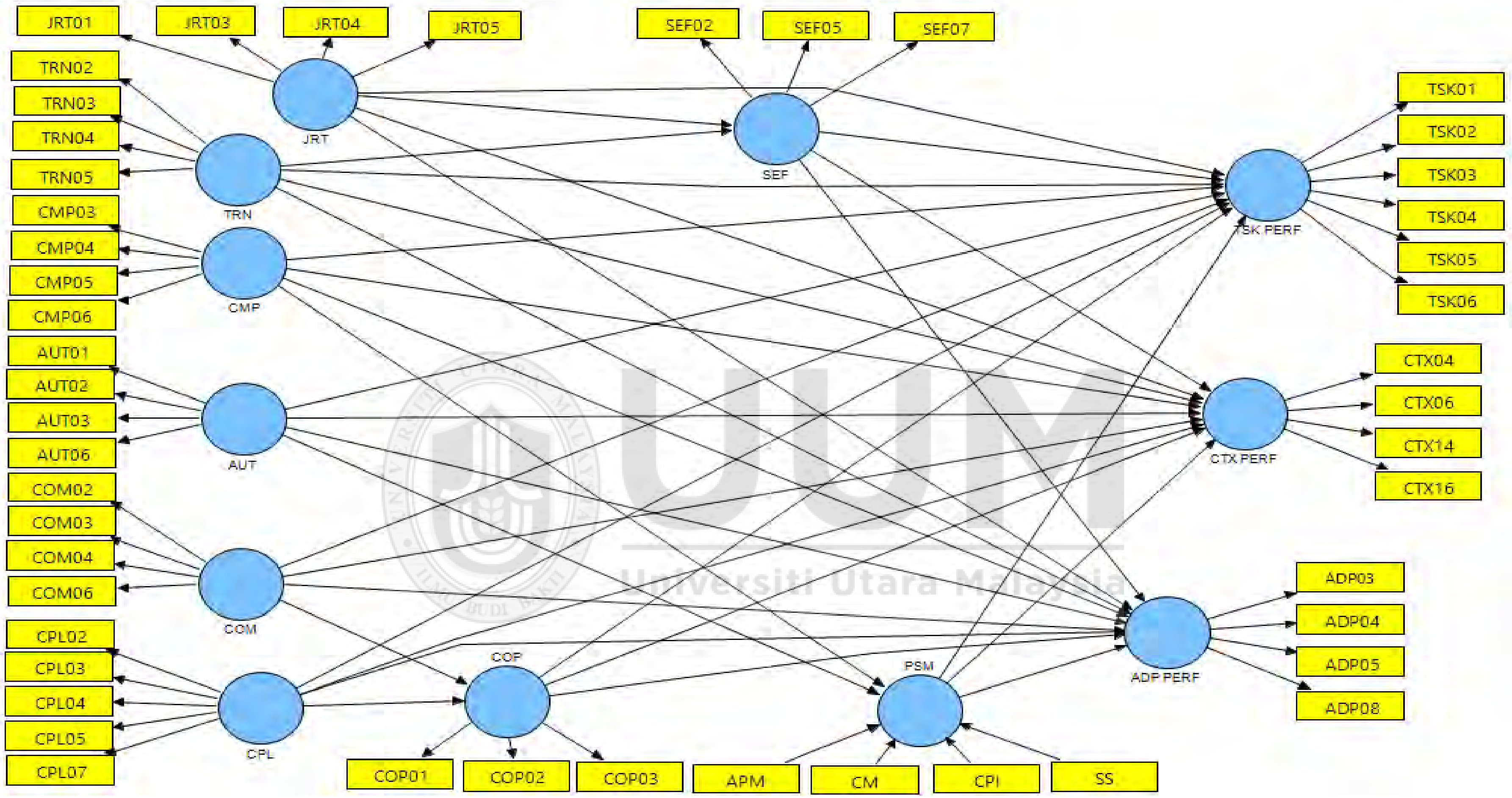


Figure 4.3

Two - stage Approach

Note: The formative factors of PSM are the variable score of APM= Attraction to policy making; CPI= Commitment to the public interest; CM= Compassion; SS= Self-sacrifice.

4.9.1 Individual Item Reliability of Reflective Models

In order to ascertain the individual item reliability using PLS SEM, scholars (Duarte & Raposo, 2010; Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012; Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014) provided that outer loadings of each construct most be examined. Therefore, based on the rule of thumb which specified that item with a loadings between .40 to .70 should be retained (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014), the present study observed that out of the 106 initial items, only 59 items were retained. This indicated that 47 items were deleted as a result of poor loading. The remaining 59 items that were retained in the model had a loading between 0.68 and 0.85 respectively. Table 4.9 provides more details.

4.9.2 Internal Consistency Reliability of Reflective Models

The internal consistency reliability is used in research in order to ascertain the extent to which all the items on a particular variable or (sub) scale are measuring the same concept (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). Traditionally, Cronbach's alpha coefficient and the composite reliability coefficient are the two most widely used measure for estimating internal consistency reliability in organizational research (Peterson & Kim, 2013; Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). In the present study, composite reliability was employed to determine the internal consistency reliability of all the variables. The justification for selecting composite reliability as against cronbach's alpha was due to the arguments provided by scholars (Götz, Liehr-Gobbers, & Krafft, 2010; Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010), that the composite reliability coefficient provided much more lesser bais estimates when compared with the cronbach's alpha. They further argued that, composite reliability coefficient provided that all the items of a particular construct contribute equally to that construct irrespective of the actual contribution of individual loadings. Also, it is argued that Cronbach's alpha may either over estimate or even under-estimate scale reliability. Nevertheless, Bagozzi and Yi (1988) and Hair *et al.* (2011), provided that the rule of thumb for the interpretation of internal consistency reliability when using composite reliability coefficient most be between .70 to above. As reliability value of .70 and above is considered satisfactory while reliability value of .60 and below indicate lack of reliability (Hair *et al.*, 2011).

Figure 4.4 below provides the image of the measure measurement model showing all the eleven reflective latent constructs and their respective items that attained the minimum reliability value of .70 and above. While, for PSM construct being the only formative construct, it shows that all the four dimensions are retained. Thus, indicating that all the dimensions are important both relatively and absolutely in the Nigerian context.

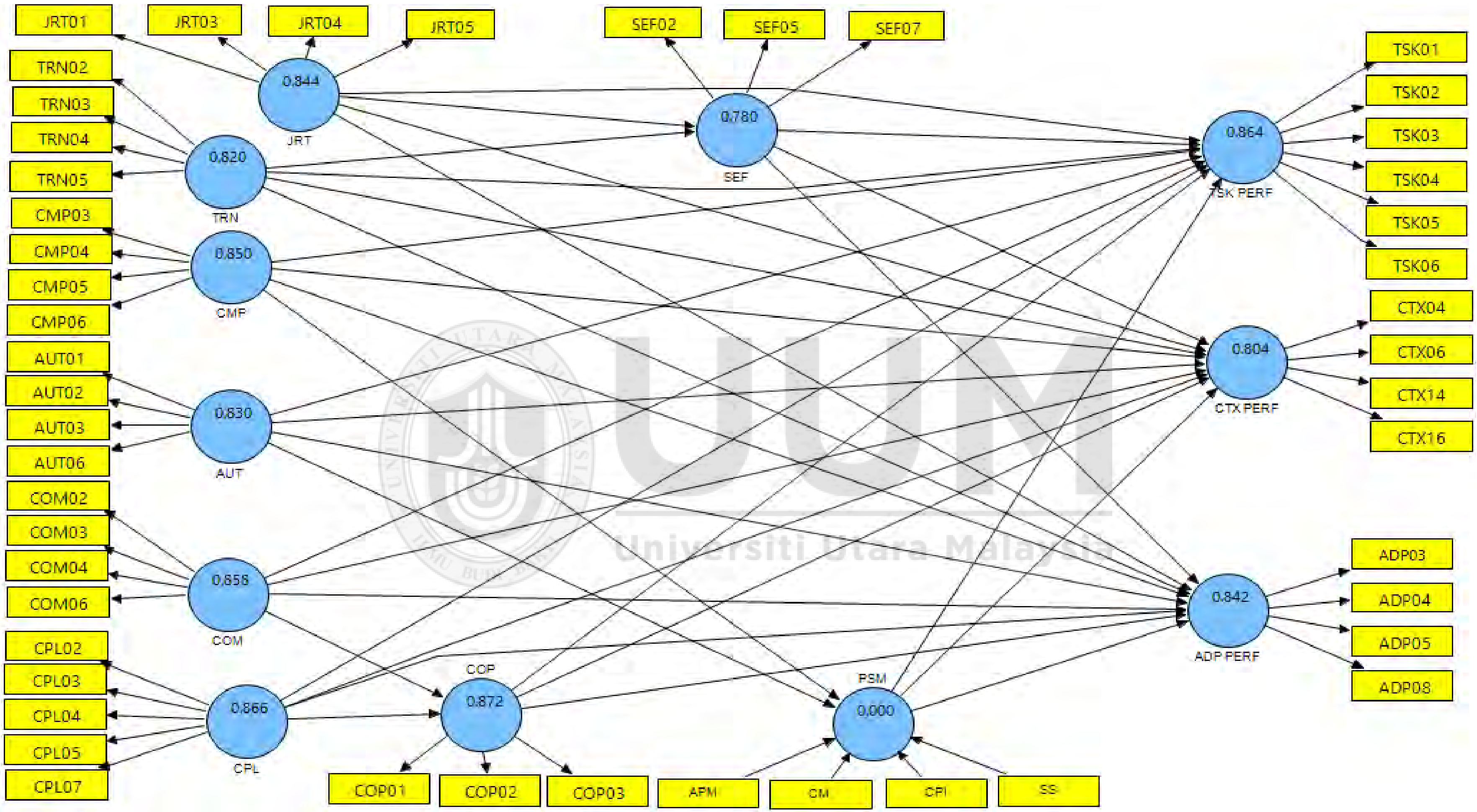


Figure 4.4
Measurement model

Table 4.9
Loadings, Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

Constructs and Items	Loadings	Composite Reliability	AVE
Task Performance		0.864	0.514
TSK01	0.700		
TSK02	0.711		
TSK03	0.715		
TSK04	0.720		
TSK05	0.753		
TSK06	0.701		
Contextual Performance		0.804	0.507
CTX04	0.711		
CTX06	0.724		
CTX14	0.685		
CTX16	0.727		
Adaptive Performance		0.842	0.571
ADP03	0.748		
ADP04	0.760		
ADP05	0.782		
ADP08	0.733		
Job Rotation		0.844	0.575
JRT01	0.719		
JRT03	0.777		
JRT04	0.770		
JRT05	0.766		
Training & Development		0.820	0.533
TRN02	0.724		
TRN03	0.707		
TRN04	0.763		
TRN05	0.725		
Compensation		0.850	0.588
CMP03	0.801		
CMP04	0.778		
CMP05	0.699		
CMP06	0.783		
Job Autonomy		0.830	0.551
AUT01	0.775		
AUT02	0.767		
AUT03	0.739		
AUT06	0.684		
Communication		0.858	0.601
COM02	0.783		
COM03	0.754		
COM04	0.787		
COM06	0.778		
Career Planning		0.866	0.564
CPL02	0.741		
CPL03	0.752		

CPL04	0.769		
CPL05	0.751		
CPL07	0.743		
Self Efficacy		0.780	0.541
SEF02	0.765		
SEF05	0.716		
SEF07	0.725		
Career Opportunity		0.872	0.694
COP01	0.835		
COP02	0.846		
COP03	0.818		

Note: AVE= Average Variance Extracted; JRT= Job rotation; TRN= Training & development; CMP= Compensation; AUT= Job autonomy; COM= Communication; CPL= Career planning; SEF= Self efficacy; PSM= Public service motivation; COP= Career opportunity; TSK PERF= Task performance; CTX PERF= Contextual performance; ADP PERF= Adaptive performance.

Table 4.9 above presented the composite reliability of all the twelve latent variables (both independents, mediators and dependents variables). As provided in the table, the composite reliability coefficients in this study ranged from 0.80 to 0.87 respectively. This indicated that all the twelve latent variables had a satisfactory value of internal consistency reliability as suggested by Bagozzi and Yi (1988) and Hair *et al.* (2011). In addition, the average variance extracted (AVE) of all the study reflective latent constructs ranged from .507 to .694. Based on the AVE statistics all the eleven variables had their AVE above the minimum rule of thumb of .50 as recommended by Chin (1998).

4.9.3 Convergent Validity of Reflective Models

Convergent validity explain the extent to which an individual items of a given construct truly represent the intended latent construct and at the same time correlate with other measures of that same construct (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, &

Tatham, 2006). Fornell and Larcker (1981), recommended that in order to ascertain adequate convergent validity of any latent construct, the average variance extracted (AVE) had to be at least from .50 and above. The reason for having at least .50 AVE value is to provide that on average the variable is able to account for 50% or more of its indicators variance for it to demonstrate adequate convergent validity (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010).

Results of loadings and the cross loading in Table 4.10 indicated that all the eleven constructs apart from attaining AVE of .50 and above also converged with higher loading on the intended construct. This indicated that, all the variables in this study had attained adequate convergent validity.

Table 4.10
Loadings and cross loadings

	ADP PERF	AUT	CMP	COM	COP	CPL	CTX PERF	JRT	SEF	TRN	TSK PERF
ADP03	0.748	0.361	0.346	0.488	0.445	0.494	0.503	0.461	0.463	0.348	0.464
ADP04	0.760	0.399	0.311	0.452	0.397	0.479	0.546	0.447	0.480	0.380	0.475
ADP05	0.782	0.445	0.294	0.526	0.539	0.578	0.561	0.491	0.485	0.417	0.469
ADP08	0.733	0.322	0.337	0.552	0.482	0.519	0.517	0.527	0.515	0.413	0.449
AUT01	0.438	0.775	0.358	0.311	0.331	0.391	0.350	0.232	0.348	0.359	0.429
AUT02	0.363	0.767	0.362	0.289	0.303	0.329	0.339	0.210	0.323	0.359	0.312
AUT03	0.311	0.739	0.333	0.234	0.266	0.324	0.332	0.205	0.338	0.292	0.326
AUT06	0.373	0.684	0.448	0.290	0.257	0.332	0.332	0.156	0.274	0.341	0.394
CMP03	0.332	0.416	0.801	0.381	0.377	0.407	0.333	0.315	0.369	0.528	0.476
CMP04	0.295	0.378	0.778	0.320	0.310	0.373	0.299	0.289	0.206	0.479	0.446
CMP05	0.360	0.308	0.699	0.408	0.350	0.394	0.420	0.365	0.354	0.379	0.375
CMP06	0.310	0.447	0.783	0.333	0.397	0.408	0.277	0.241	0.303	0.557	0.492
COM02	0.459	0.291	0.377	0.783	0.551	0.536	0.489	0.500	0.485	0.461	0.461
COM03	0.494	0.234	0.267	0.754	0.557	0.529	0.510	0.572	0.502	0.460	0.423
COM04	0.537	0.342	0.395	0.787	0.524	0.566	0.558	0.566	0.461	0.440	0.487
COM06	0.578	0.313	0.423	0.778	0.556	0.587	0.543	0.632	0.513	0.505	0.522
COP01	0.568	0.317	0.341	0.639	0.835	0.586	0.590	0.598	0.581	0.502	0.525
COP02	0.504	0.322	0.432	0.576	0.846	0.547	0.568	0.565	0.535	0.502	0.569
COP03	0.471	0.344	0.404	0.541	0.818	0.541	0.465	0.495	0.446	0.465	0.513
CPL02	0.540	0.298	0.460	0.569	0.539	0.741	0.481	0.509	0.493	0.492	0.532
CPL03	0.542	0.360	0.345	0.517	0.552	0.752	0.529	0.521	0.532	0.414	0.521
CPL04	0.534	0.355	0.400	0.597	0.488	0.769	0.588	0.558	0.565	0.415	0.481
CPL05	0.487	0.479	0.401	0.467	0.457	0.751	0.499	0.446	0.464	0.484	0.487
CPL07	0.470	0.260	0.334	0.535	0.476	0.743	0.471	0.514	0.489	0.327	0.420

CTX04	0.509	0.370	0.314	0.507	0.491	0.493	0.711	0.512	0.471	0.362	0.434
CTX06	0.527	0.327	0.319	0.421	0.404	0.465	0.724	0.419	0.427	0.352	0.453
CTX14	0.484	0.267	0.308	0.481	0.454	0.477	0.685	0.481	0.468	0.312	0.405
CTX16	0.485	0.333	0.303	0.514	0.503	0.514	0.727	0.474	0.453	0.374	0.457
JRT01	0.435	0.138	0.234	0.522	0.427	0.457	0.451	0.719	0.412	0.318	0.363
JRT03	0.504	0.221	0.363	0.570	0.489	0.564	0.526	0.777	0.489	0.399	0.422
JRT04	0.494	0.286	0.314	0.565	0.554	0.543	0.526	0.770	0.549	0.355	0.500
JRT05	0.499	0.166	0.284	0.568	0.541	0.492	0.506	0.766	0.485	0.464	0.411
SEF02	0.529	0.359	0.310	0.490	0.484	0.541	0.490	0.506	0.765	0.405	0.516
SEF05	0.432	0.252	0.285	0.444	0.444	0.485	0.463	0.476	0.716	0.287	0.379
SEF07	0.453	0.338	0.301	0.459	0.458	0.468	0.459	0.433	0.725	0.356	0.455
TRN02	0.453	0.366	0.404	0.500	0.484	0.495	0.436	0.438	0.369	0.724	0.466
TRN03	0.345	0.376	0.513	0.345	0.421	0.363	0.302	0.268	0.329	0.707	0.438
TRN04	0.347	0.341	0.502	0.411	0.395	0.381	0.343	0.316	0.358	0.763	0.468
TRN05	0.351	0.248	0.443	0.490	0.410	0.410	0.342	0.447	0.336	0.725	0.447
TSK01	0.375	0.307	0.328	0.430	0.442	0.438	0.388	0.398	0.389	0.398	0.700
TSK02	0.429	0.309	0.351	0.409	0.405	0.438	0.421	0.423	0.407	0.347	0.711
TSK03	0.450	0.362	0.395	0.488	0.499	0.467	0.481	0.506	0.486	0.448	0.715
TSK04	0.438	0.339	0.469	0.392	0.467	0.452	0.413	0.371	0.410	0.464	0.720
TSK05	0.496	0.392	0.449	0.472	0.462	0.491	0.489	0.345	0.491	0.480	0.753
TSK06	0.440	0.411	0.493	0.436	0.485	0.509	0.441	0.386	0.451	0.522	0.701

Note: JRT= Job rotation; TRN= Training & development; CMP= Compensation; AUT= Job autonomy; COM= Communication; CPL= Career planning; SEF= Self efficacy; PSM= Public service motivation; COP= Career opportunity; TSK PERF= Task performance; CTX PERF= Contextual performance; ADP PERF= Adaptive performance

4.9.4 Discriminant Validity of Reflective Models

Unlike convergent validity, the discriminant validity simply ascertained the extent to which each particular construct is distinct from other constructs (Duarte & Raposo, 2010). But like in the convergent validity, the AVE is also used to ascertain the discriminant validity of a given latent construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The rule of thumb for ascertaining adequate discriminant validity as provided by Fornell and Larcker (1981) is that the AVE has to be at least .50 and above. In the present study, the discriminant validity was attained using the Chin (1998) criteria of comparing the correlations within the latent construct with the square root of AVE.

Table 4.11beow provided the correlations values among the latent variables which are then compared with the squared roots of AVE were it indicated that square roots of AVE are all far greater than the values of correlations within the latent constructs. Based on this criterion, the researcher observed that the square roots of AVE of all the latent constructs were far greater than the correlations among the latent variables. Thus, it is concluded that all the study latent variables are distinct from one another and attained discriminant validity.

Table 4.11
Discriminant validity

Latent constructs	ADP PERF	AUT	CMP	COM	COP	CPL	CTX PERF	JRT	PSM	SEF	TRN	TSK PERF
Adaptive performance	**0.756**											
Job autonomy	0.506	**0.742**										
Compensation	0.425	0.506	**0.766**									
Communication	0.669	0.382	0.473	**0.775**								
Career opportunity	0.620	0.392	0.470	0.705	**0.833**							
Career planning	0.687	0.467	0.518	0.716	0.671	**0.751**						
Contextual performance	0.704	0.456	0.437	0.678	0.653	0.686	**0.712**					
Job rotation	0.638	0.272	0.397	0.734	0.666	0.680	0.664	**0.758**				
Public service motivation	0.681	0.400	0.367	0.681	0.631	0.641	0.689	0.674	**Formative**			
Self efficacy	0.643	0.433	0.406	0.632	0.628	0.679	0.640	0.642	0.654	**0.736**		
Training & development	0.517	0.457	0.634	0.602	0.589	0.569	0.492	0.508	0.482	0.478	**0.730**	
Task performance	0.614	0.497	0.584	0.612	0.644	0.652	0.615	0.563	0.639	0.616	0.624	**0.717**

Note: The diagonals that are bolded signify the squared root of AVE, whereas, the rest of values under the bolded represent the correlations among variables. JRT= Job rotation; TRN= Training & development; CMP= Compensation; AUT= Job autonomy; COM= Communication; CPL= Career planning; SEF= Self efficacy; PSM= Public service motivation; COP= Career opportunity; TSK PERF= Task performance; CTX PERF= Contextual performance; ADP PERF= Adaptive performance.

4.9.5 Assessment of Collinearity and Significance of Formative Models

In assessing the formative construct of the present study which is PSM, the two basic conditions that determine whether the indicator(s) are important to the construct or not as out lined by Hair *et al.* (2014) were all looked into. The first condition is the assessment of collinearity among all the indicators. In this regard, the value of variance inflated factor (VIF) has to be less than 5 and also the tolerance values most be greater than 0.20. Secondly, is the assessment of significance or contributions of each of the indicator(s) to the main construct.

Table 4.12
Measurement Model: Results of indicators significance and collinearity statistics

Formative construct	Formative indicators	Outer weights (loadings)	T statistics	Collinearity Statistics	
				Tolerance	**VIF**
Public	APM	0.124 (0.7088)	1.492*	.590	1.696
Service	CPI	0.349 (0.8098)	5.025***	.588	1.699
Motivation	CM	0.422 (0.8437)	5.194***	.605	1.654
(PSM)	SS	0.334 (0.8188)	4.528***	.576	1.735

Note: APM= Attraction to policy making; CPI= Commitment to the public interest; CM= Compassion; SS= Self-sacrifice.

Based on the table 4.12 above, the result shows that all the four lower order construct (attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, compassion and self-sacrifice) that formed PSM have a VIF value less than 5 and a tolerance value greater than 0.20. Thus, indicating that no collinearity among the indicators. Similarly, the outer weights of all the four indicators have statistical significance to the main construct of PSM. In addition, the outer loadings of all the four formative indicators have a value higher than the minimum threshold of 0.50. This clearly indicates that all the four formative indicators are important to the main construct (PSM) both relatively and absolutely (Hair *et al,* 2014). In this regard, it can be concluded that both the formative construct (PSM) and the eleven reflective constructs of the present study are reliable and valid for analyses.

4.10 Assessment of Significance of the Structural Model (Inner Model)

Having assessed the measurement model in section 4.9, in this section the significance of the structural model was also assessed. The structural model is generally regarded as a theory based and is also considered to be the prime focus of research question(s) and research hypotheses (Henseler, Hubona, & Ray, 2016). According to Henseler *et al.* (2016) structural model specification addresses two important questions: (1) the first one is which construct(s) should be included in the model? and (2) Secondly, how the constructs are hypothesized to be related? i.e direction(s) and strengths of causal effects between or among the constructs? Specifically, the structural model was determined by examining the coefficients of determination (R^2), the path coefficients and subsequently the effect size (f^2), then followed by assessment of model predictive relevance Q^2 (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014; Henseler *et al.*, 2009; Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). In assessing the structural model, this study employed the standard bootstrapping procedure using 5000 bootstrap samples and 265 cases as recommended by scholars (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014; Henseler *et al.*, 2009). Ultimately, on the basis of calculated path coefficients the results of all the hypotheses tested were determined.

In the present study, two structural models were examined based on the study objectives. The first model deals with the relationship between HRM practices and employee task, adaptive and contextual performance. The last model, which is the full model, examined the relationship between the six HRM practices and employee task, adaptive and contextual performance when the three mediators were included.

4.10.1 HRM Practices and Employee Performance

In order to ascertain the relationship between the HRM practices (job rotation, training, compensation, autonomy, communication and career planning) which are the independents variables in this study and the employee performance (task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance) which are the dependents variables, PLS SEM analysis was conducted using bootstrapping procedure with 5000 re-samples (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014). Table 4.10 and similarly Figure 4.5 and 4.6 depict the standardized path coefficient (β), the standard error, the t-values and also the decision taken for the hypothesized relationships between the independents and dependents variables.

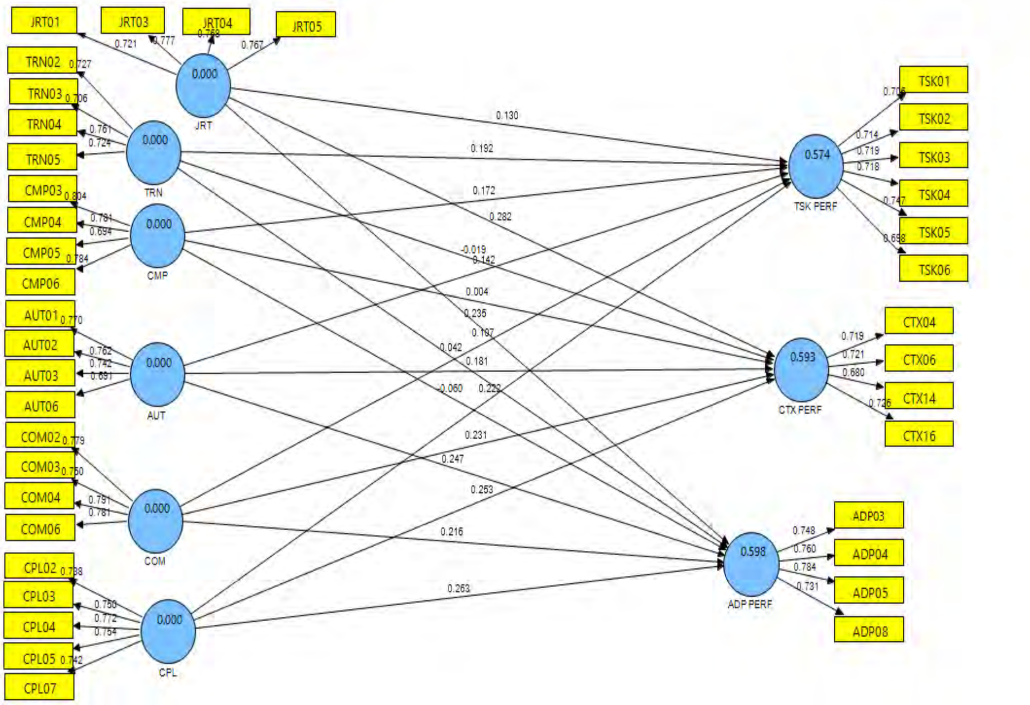


Figure 4.5
PLS Algorithm graph for HRM practices and employee task, contextual and adaptive performance

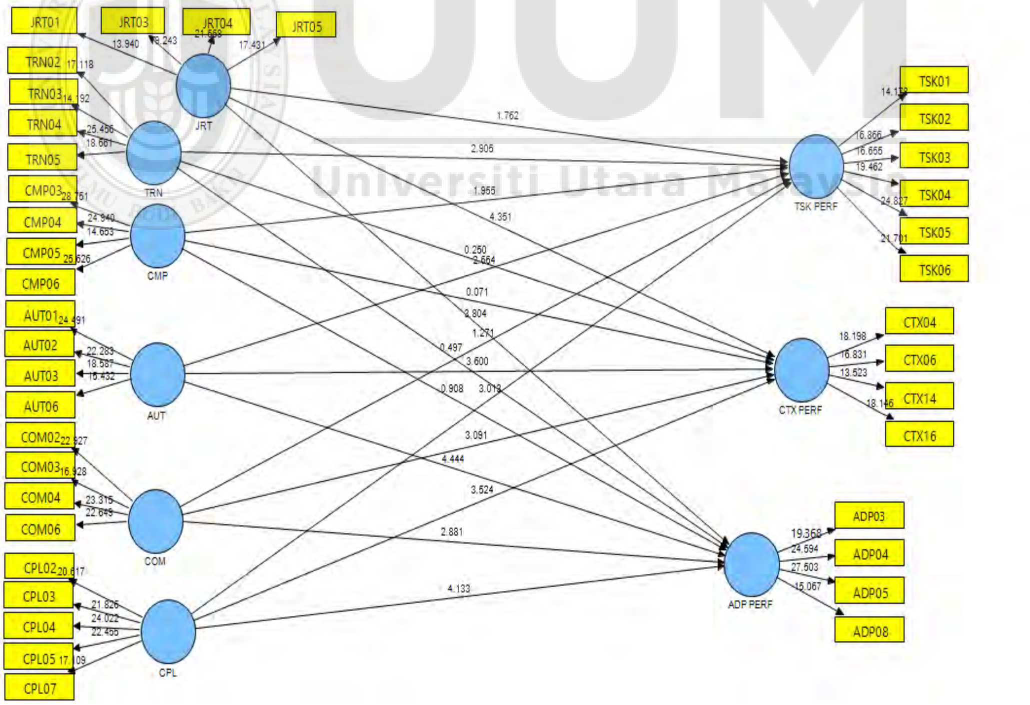


Figure 4.6
PLS bootstrap graph for HRM practices and employee task, contextual and adaptive performance

4.10.1.1 HRM Practices and Task Performance

From Table 4.13 and also the Figure 4.5 and 4.6 it indicated that out of the six direct hypotheses that proposed relationship between the six HRM practices and employee task, contextual and adaptive performance five (5) were supported while the remaining one (1) hypothesis was not supported.

Table 4.13
Results of Hypotheses testing direct relationships (HRM practices and task performance)

No	Hypothesis	Beta	Std.	T- Value	Findings
H1a:	JRT -> TSK PERF	0.130	0.074	1.762**	Supported
H2a:	TRN -> TSK PERF	0.193	0.066	2.905***	Supported
H3a:	CMP -> TSK PERF	0.172	0.088	1.955**	Supported
H4a:	AUT -> TSK PERF	0.142	0.053	2.664***	Supported
H5a:	COM -> TSK PERF	0.107	0.084	1.271	Not Supported
H6a:	CPL -> TSK PERF	0.222	0.074	3.013***	Supported

Note: ***indicated significant at 0.01; ** indicated significant at 0.05; and * indicated significant at 0.10; JRT= Job rotation; TRN= Training & development; CMP= Compensation; AUT= Job autonomy; COM= Communication; CPL= Career planning; TSK PERF= Task performance.

Precisely, the significant positive relationships supported in this study includes: (1) job rotation and task performance (β=0.130, $p < 0.05$); (2) training & development and task performance (β= 0.193, $p < 0.01$); (3) compensation and task performance (β =0.172, $p < 0.05$); (4) job autonomy and task performance (β= 0.142, $p < 0.05$) and (5) Career planning and task performance (β =0.222, $p < 0.01$) respectively. However, the hypothesized direct relationships between communication practice and task performance was not statistically supported by the present data.

4.10.1.2 HRM Practices and Contextual Performance

Similarly, in relation to the contextual performance which is the second dimension of employee performance, six direct hypotheses were also tested. Of the six hypotheses, four were empirically supported while the remaining two hypotheses were not statistically supported. Figure 4.6 and Table 4.14 provides the results of the hypotheses tested.

Table 4.14
Results of Hypotheses testing direct relationships (HRM practices and contextual performance)

No	Hypothesis	Beta	Std.	T- Value	Findings
H1b:	JRT -> CTX PERF	0.282	0.065	4.351***	Supported
H2b:	TRN -> CTX PERF	-0.019	0.075	0.250	Not Supported
H3b:	CMP -> CTX PERF	0.004	0.057	0.071	Not Supported
H4b:	AUT -> CTX PERF	0.181	0.050	3.600***	Supported
H5b:	COM -> CTX PERF	0.231	0.075	3.091***	Supported
H6b:	CPL -> CTX PERF	0.253	0.072	3.524***	Supported

Note: ***indicated significant at 0.01; ** indicated significant at 0.05; and * indicated significant at 0.10; JRT= Job rotation; TRN= Training & development; CMP= Compensation; AUT= Job autonomy; COM= Communication; CPL= Career planning; CTX PERF= Contextual performance

The Table 4.14 above revealed that the four significant positive relationships supported in this study include: (1) job rotation and contextual performance (β = 0.282; p < 0.01); (2) job autonomy and contextual performance (β = 0.181; p < 0.01); (3) communication and contextual performance (β = 0.231; p <0.01); and (4) Career planning and contextual performance (β = 0.253; p < 0.01). On the other, the relationship between training & development and contextual performance, and also the direct relationship between compensation and contextual performance are all not significant.

4.10.1.3 HRM Practices and Adaptive Performance

With regard to the adaptive performance, which is the third dimension of employee performance, six direct hypotheses were also formulated and tested. Results from Table 4.15 and Figure 4.6 respectively revealed that only four out of the six tested hypothesized direct relationships were empirically significant. While, the two remaining hypothesized direct relationships were empirically not significant

Table 4.15
Results of Hypotheses testing direct relationships (HRM practices and adaptive Performance

No	Hypothesis	Beta	Std.	T- Value	Findings
H1c:	JRT -> ADP PERF	0.236	0.062	3.804***	Supported
H2c:	TRN -> ADP PERF	0.042	0.085	0.497	Not Supported
H3c:	CMP -> ADP PERF	-0.060	0.066	0.908	Not Supported
H4c:	AUT -> ADP PERF	0.248	0.056	4.444***	Supported
H5c:	COM -> ADP PERF	0.217	0.075	2.881***	Supported
H6c:	CPL -> ADP PERF	0.263	0.064	4.133***	Supported

Note: ***indicated significant at 0.01; ** indicated significant at 0.05; and * indicated significant at 0.10; JRT= Job rotation; TRN= Training & development; CMP= Compensation; AUT= Job autonomy; COM= Communication; CPL= Career planning; ADP PERF= Adaptive performance.

Specifically, the significant positive relationships supported in this study includes: (1) job rotation and adaptive performance (β =0.236, $p < 0.01$); (2) job autonomy and adaptive performance (β= 0.248, $p < 0.01$); (3) Communication and adaptive performance (β= 0.217, $p < 0.01$); and (4) Career planning and adaptive performance (β= 0.263, $p < 0.01$). However, the remaining two hypothesized direct relationships including the relationship between the training & development and adaptive performance and relationship between compensation practice and adaptive performance are all not empirically substantiated by the present sample.

The results of PLS path coefficient indicated that when organization allows for the rotation or movement of employees from one duty post to another within the organization, then the employees tend to exhibit higher task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance. Similarly, the result revealed that, whenever the organization provided adequate and satisfactory training & development opportunities to their employees, the employees reciprocates with high task performance. The result further demonstrated that provision of good compensation to employees enable them to engage in high task performance within the organization. Also, the present study shows that allowing employees to enjoy autonomy towards discharging their assigned responsibilities enable them to respond with positive behaviors leading to high task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance. The results further provided that presence of effective communication practice in organization promote strong contextual and adaptive performance among employees. Lastly, the result revealed that effective career planning in organization strongly enhances employee adaptability, task and contextual performance.

4.10.2 Coefficient of Determination (R^2) of First Model

Among the most important criteria used for evaluation the structural model is coefficient of determination of the endogenous latent variables popularly called R^2 determination (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014). The R^2 reflect the influence or contribution to the latent constructs that account variance. Although, there is no generalizable yardstick in the best value of R^2, yet it is generally considered that the better the R^2

value, so also the larger will be the percentages of variance explained. Yet, scholars like Falk and Miller (1992) recommend that R^2 value of 0.10 to be a minimum acceptable level. Cohen (1988), classified the values for dependent latent variables in to three different categories. He provided that R^2 value of 0.02 is considered as weak; 0.13 is regarded as moderate; and 0.26 is to be counted as substantial respectively. On the other hand, Chin, (1998) suggested that R^2 values of 0.67, 0.33, and 0.19 when using PLS-SEM path modeling should be classified as substantial, moderate, and weak, respectively. Therefore, in any model the R^2 value indicates extent or magnitude to which the independent variable(s) account for the variation in dependent variable(s). Based on the above classifications, since this study used PLS SEM as the main statistical tool Chin, (1998) is considered to be the most appropriate.

Table 4.16
R^2 value of the first model (direct relationship between HRM practices and task, contextual and adaptive performance

Latent Constructs	R^2 Value	Assessment criterion by Chin, (1998)
Task performance	0.574	Moderate
Contextual performance	0.593	Moderate
Adaptive performance	0.598	Moderate

Table 4.16 and Figure 4.5 above displayed the variance explained of the first model. Based on the criterion for assessing R^2 (Chin, 1998), all the six independent variables explained 57% variance in task performance, 59% in contextual performance and about 60% in adaptive performance respectively. Thus, suggesting that all the six HRM practices explained a moderate variance in both task, contextual and adaptive performance in this model.

4.10.3 Effect Size (f^2) of the First Model

Effect size is used to determine whether a particular variable when omitted from the model has a substantive impact on the dependent constructs. This measure is referred to as the f^2 effect size.

The effect size is calculated as R^2 included - R^2 excluded/1-R^2 included. Where by R^2 included represent the value of R^2 on particular dependent variable while a particular independent variable is present or included. In contrast, R^2 excluded represent R^2 value when the independent variable of interest is removed from the model. This in essence translates the effect of the variance of every construct.

$$\text{Effect size } f^2 = \frac{R^2 \text{ included - } R^2 \text{ excluded}}{1\text{-}R^2 \text{ included}} \qquad \text{equation (4.1)}$$

In calculating the effect size, Cohen, (1988) provide that when an effect size f^2 has a value of 0.02 to 0.14 is considered as small effect size. When the value is between 0.15 to 0.34 is regarded as medium. A value of 0.35 and above is considered as large effect size. However, when the value is less than 0.02, then it is none effect size. Table 4.17 indicated the effect sizes of all the independents and mediating variables in this study.

Table 4.17
Effect size (f^2) of the first model (direct relationship between HRM practices and task, contextual and adaptive performance

Relationship	R^2 Included	R^2 Excluded	F^2	Effect Size
JRT -> TSK PERF	0.574	0.568	0.0141	-
JRT -> CTX PERF	0.593	0.561	0.0786	Small
JRT -> ADP PERF	0.598	0.576	0.0547	Small
TRN-> TSK PERF	0.574	0.557	0.0399	Small
CMP -> TSK PERF	0.574	0.559	0.0352	Small
AUT -> TSK PERF	0.574	0.561	0.0305	Small
AUT -> CTX PERF	0.593	0.571	0.0541	Small
AUT -> ADP PERF	0.598	0.558	0.0995	Small
COM -> CTX PERF	0.593	0.574	0.0467	Small
COM -> ADP PERF	0.598	0.582	0.0398	Small
CPL -> TSK PERF	0.574	0.556	0.0423	Small
CPL -> CTX PERF	0.593	0.570	0.0565	Small
CPL -> ADP PERF	0.598	0.572	0.0647	Small

Note: JRT= Job rotation; TRN= Training & development; CMP= Compensation; AUT= Job autonomy; COM= Communication; CPL= Career planning; TSK PERF= Task performance; CTX PERF= Contextual performance; ADP PERF= Adaptive performance.

Table 4.17 above displayed the effect size of all HRM Practices individually on the three dependent variables. Based on the formula provided by Cohen, (1988), the results of the effect size revealed that all the significant relationships had small effect size. However, the only exception that indicated none effect size is the relationship between job rotation and task performance. In spite of the fact that majority of the independent variables had small effect size on dependant variables, there is need to mention here the argument of Chin *et al.* (2003) that it does not mean that those independent variables that recorded small effect size (f^2) relationships are not statistically important. But rather no matter how minutest the strength of f^2 ought to be considered, because they do influence the dependent variable in their own way.

4.10.4 Predictive Relevance of the First Model

Having successfully determined the effect sizes of all the dependent variables, the present study also employed Stone-Geisser's measure of testing predictive relevance of research model through blindfolding (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974). The Blindfolding method is simply a sample re-use technique which calculates cross validated predictive relevance popularly called Stone-Geisser's Q^2 value (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974). When determining predictive relevance of a particular model, the values of Q^2 has to be above zero ($Q^2 > 0$), for that model to correctly predict the data points of the endogenous constructs (Chin, 1998, 2010; Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, the blindfolding method was run in generating the cross validated redundancy values. Table 4.18 and Figure provides the blindfolding results showing the predictive relevance of our first model.

Table 4.18
Predictive relevance of the first model (direct relationship between HRM practices and task, contextual and adaptive performance

Total	SSO	SSE	1-SSE/SSO
Task performance	1590.0000	1125.1456	0.2924
Contextual performance	1060.0000	746.7804	0.2955
Adaptive performance	1060.0000	720.0391	0.3207

Note: SSO = squared observations; SSE= squared prediction error

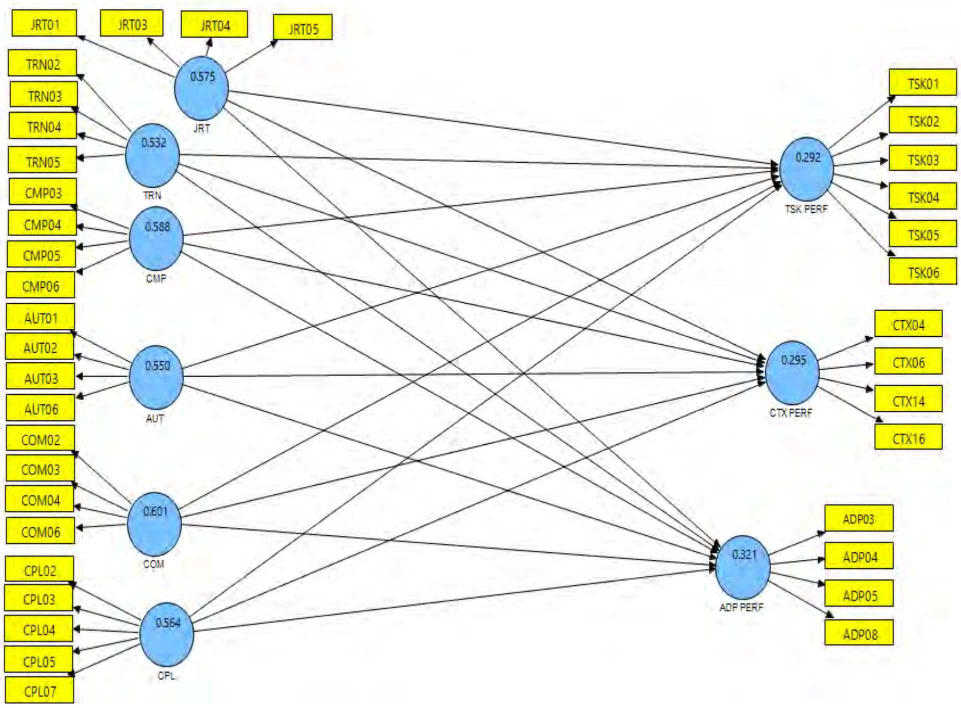


Figure 4.7
Blindfolding graph showing the predictive relevance (cross validated redundancy) of first model

As shown in both Table 4.18 and Figure 4.7 the cross-validation redundancy Q^2 values for all endogenous latent variables (task, contextual and adaptive performance) were greater than zero been the rule of thumb, thus, suggesting that the first model has predictive relevance (Chin, 1998; Henseler *et al.*, 2009).

4.11 Mediation Effects

Similar to the first model (direct relationship), here also in the full model smart PLS 2.0 was employed to test the relationship when the three mediating variables are included in the model.

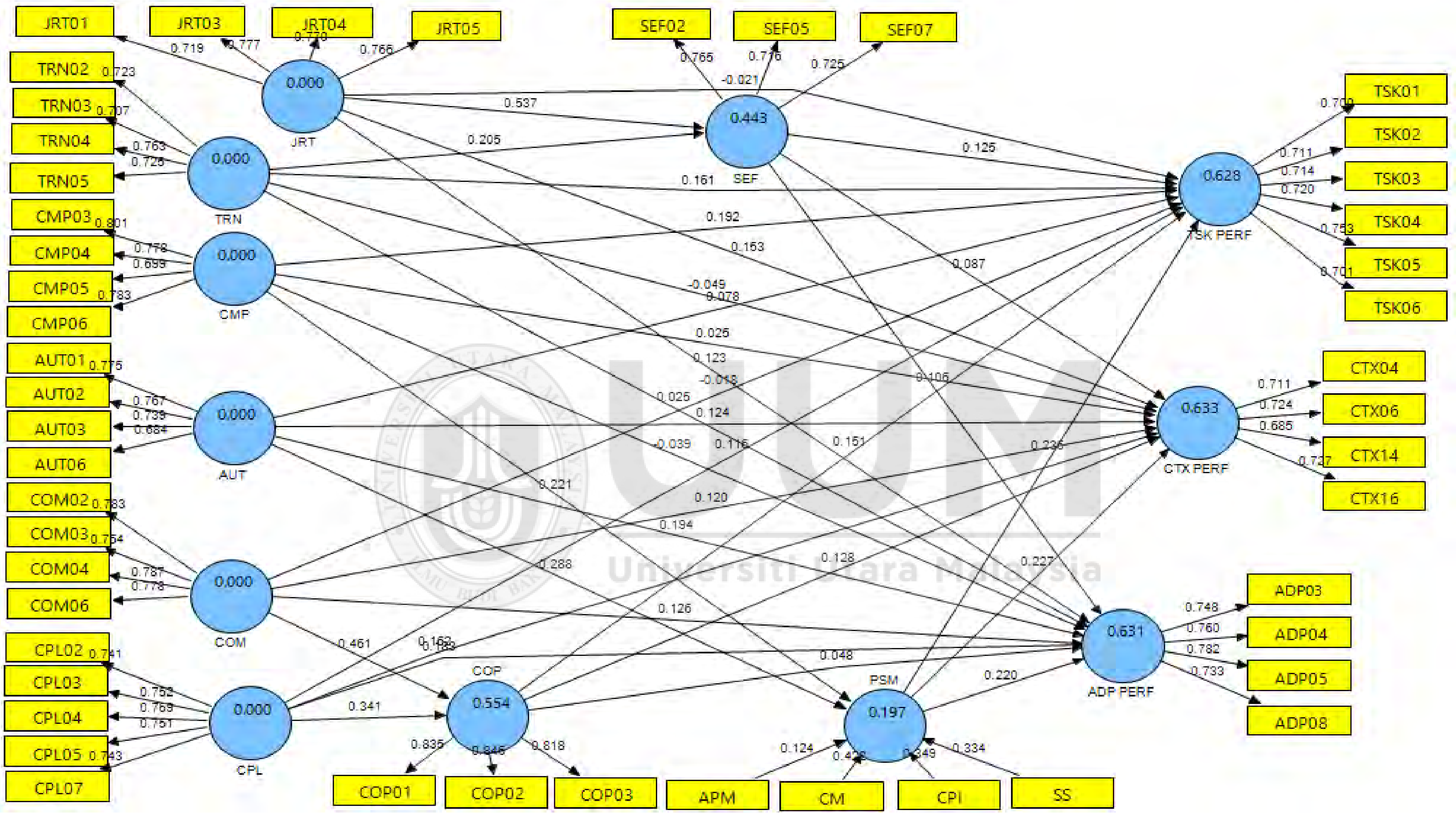


Figure 4.8

Algorithm graph of full model (mediating relationships)

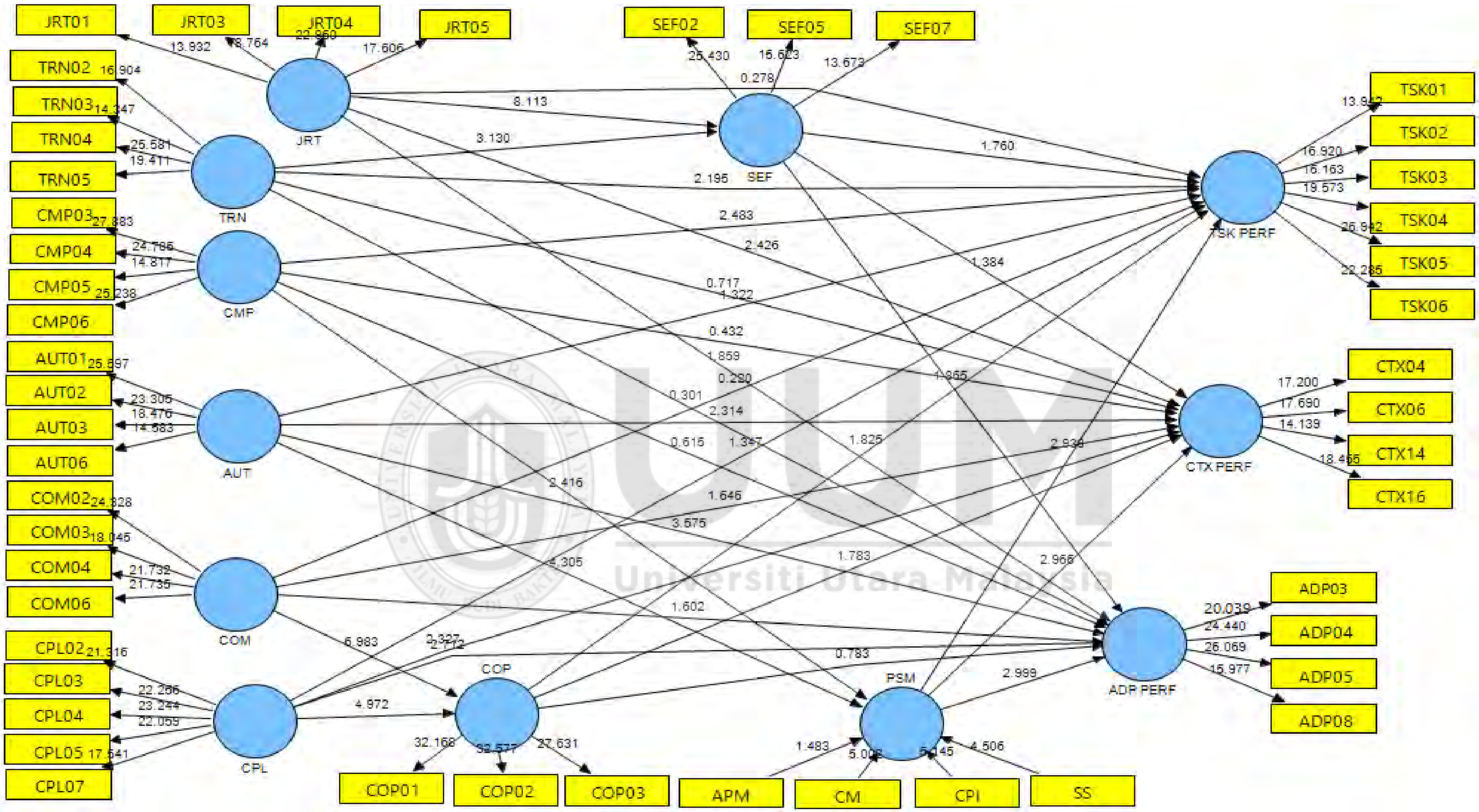


Figure 4.9

Bootstrapping graph of full model (mediating relationships)

Figure 4.8 and Figure 4.9 revealed the algorithm and bootstrapping path coefficient from the six independent constructs to each of the three mediating constructs (path ***a***), followed by the path coefficient from the mediators to the three dimension of employee performance (path ***b***) and lastly the path coefficient from the six independent constructs to the three dependent variables (path ***c***).

Table 4.19
Structural model showing the indirect effects (n=265)

Path *a*	**Beta**	**Path *b***	**Beta**	**Indirect effect *(a*b)***
JRT -> SEF	.537	SEF -> TSK PERF	.125	.067
TRN -> SEF	.205	SEF -> TSK PERF	.125	.026
CMP -> PSM	.222	PSM -> TSK PERF	.235	.052
AUT -> PSM	.288	PSM -> TSK PERF	.235	.068
COM -> COP	.461	COP -> TSK PERF	.151	.070
CPL -> COP	.341	COP -> TSK PERF	.151	.051
JRT -> SEF	.537	SEF -> CTX PERF	.087	.047
TRN -> SEF	.205	SEF -> CTX PERF	.087	.018
CMP -> PSM	.222	PSM -> CTX PERF	.227	.050
AUT -> PSM	.288	PSM -> CTX PERF	.227	.065
COM -> COP	.461	COP -> CTX PERF	.129	.059
CPL -> COP	.341	COP -> CTX PERF	.129	.044
JRT -> SEF	.537	SEF -> ADP PERF	.106	.057
TRN -> SEF	.205	SEF -> ADP PERF	.106	.022
CMP -> PSM	.222	PSM -> ADP PERF	.220	.049
AUT -> PSM	.288	PSM -> ADP PERF	.220	.063
COM -> COP	.461	COP -> ADP PERF	.048	.022
CPL -> COP	.341	COP -> ADP PERF	.048	.016

Note: JRT= Job rotation; TRN= Training & development; CMP= Compensation; AUT=Job autonomy; COM= Communication; CPL= Career planning; SEF= Self efficacy; PSM= Public service motivation; COP= Career opportunity; TSK PERF= Task performance; CTX PERF= Contextual performance; ADP PERF= Adaptive performance.

4.11.1 Mediation of Self Efficacy

Self efficacy is the first mediating variable hypothesized to mediate the relationship between two HRM practices including job rotation and training & development and three dimensions of employee performance (task, contextual and adaptive performance). Figure 4.8, 4.9 and Table 4.20 provides the mediation results of their relationships.

Table 4.20
Results of structural model showing the mediating effect of self efficacy

Hypotheses	Relationships	Path *a*b*	Std. Error	T. Statistics	Decision
H7a	JRT -> SEF -> TSK PERF	.067	.038	1.767*	Supported
H7d	TRN -> SEF -> TSK PERF	.026	.018	1.411	Not Supported
H7b	JRT -> SEF -> CTX PERF	.047	.035	1.316	Not Supported
H7e	TRN -> SEF -> CTX PERF	.018	.014	1.246	Not Supported
H7c	JRT -> SEF -> ADP PERF	.057	.031	1.847*	Supported
H7f	TRN -> SEF -> ADP PERF	.022	.014	1.522	Not Supported

Note: ***indicated significant at 0.01; ** indicated significant at 0.05; and * indicated significant at 0.10; JRT= Job rotation; TRN= Training & development; SEF= Self efficacy; TSK PERF= Task performance; CTX PERF= Contextual performance; ADP PERF= Adaptive performance.

Based on the presented results in Table 4.20 self efficacy mediated the relationship between job rotation and task performance (β= .067, p< .10).While, the relationship between training & development and task performance has not statistically been mediated by self efficacy. Similarly, self efficacy has not exerts mediating influence on the relationship between job rotation and contextual performance. Relatedly, the relationship between training & development and contextual performance has not statistically been mediated by self efficacy in the present sample. In another perspective, self efficacy mediated the relationship between job rotation and adaptive performance (β= .057, p< .10), whereas, the relationship between training & development and adaptive performance was not statistically been mediated by self efficacy.

4.11.2 Mediation of PSM

PSM is the second mediating variable in this study. Based on the objective of the study, PSM is hypothesized to mediate the relationship between two HRM practices which include compensation and job autonomy and employee task, contextual and adaptive performance. In this regard, six mediating hypotheses were also formulated and tested. Table 4.21 and Figure 4.8 and 4.9 provide the details.

Table 4.21
Results of structural model showing the mediating effect of PSM

Hypotheses	Relationships	Path *a*b*	Std. Error	T. Statistics	Decision
H8a	CMP -> PSM -> TSK PERF	.052	.028	1.872*	Supported
H8d	AUT -> PSM -> TSK PERF	.068	.031	2.183**	Supported
H8b	CMP -> PSM -> CTX PERF	.050	.030	1.679*	Supported
H8e	AUT -> PSM -> CTX PERF	.065	.026	2.526**	Supported
H8c	CMP -> PSM -> ADP PERF	.049	.029	1.705*	Supported
H8f	AUT -> PSM -> ADP PERF	.063	.026	2.482**	Supported

Note: ***indicated significant at 0.01; ** indicated significant at 0.05; and * indicated significant at 0.10; CMP= Compensation; AUT=Job autonomy; PSM= Public service motivation; COP= Career opportunity; TSK PERF= Task performance; CTX PERF= Contextual performance; ADP PERF= Adaptive performance.

The PLS path coefficient results as presented in Table 4.21 indicted that PSM mediated the relationship between compensation and task performance (β= .052, p< .10). Similarly, PSM mediated the relationship between job autonomy and task performance (β= .068, p< .05). In another development, PSM mediated the relationship between compensation and contextual performance (β= .050, p< .10), also PSM mediated the relationship between job autonomy and contextual performance (β= .065, p< .05). Furthermore, PSM also mediated the relationship between both compensation practice and adaptive performance (β= .049, $p< .10$), as well as job autonomy practice and adaptive performance (β= .063, $p< .05$) respectively.

4.11.3 Mediation of Career Opportunity

The third and also the last mediating variable in this study is career opportunity. Career opportunity was set to mediate the relationship between two HRM practices, specifically communication and career planning practices and employee task, contextual and adaptive performance.

Table 4.22
Results of structural model showing the mediating effect of career opportunity

Hypotheses	**Relationships**	**Path *a*b***	**Std. Error**	**T. Statistics**	**Decision**
H9a	COM -> COP -> TSK PERF	.070	.037	1.902*	Supported
H9d	CPL -> COP -> TSK PERF	.051	.033	1.547	Not Supported
H9b	COM -> COP -> CTX PERF	.059	.035	1.705*	Supported
H9e	CPL -> COP -> CTX PERF	.044	.026	1.660*	Supported
H9c	COM -> COP -> ADP PERF	.022	.029	0.764	Not Supported
H9f	CPL ->COP -> ADP PERF	.016	.021	0.760	Not Supported

Note: ***indicated significant at 0.01; ** indicated significant at 0.05; and * indicated significant at 0.10; COM= Communication; CPL= Career planning; COP= Career opportunity; TSK PERF= Task performance; CTX PERF= Contextual performance; ADP PERF= Adaptive performance.

As shown in table 4.22, the results of the path coefficient suggested that career opportunity mediates the positive relationship between communication practice and task performance (β= .070, $p< .10$), whereas, career opportunity has not mediates the relationship between career planning practice and task performance. In another perspective, the advanced PLS SEM result proved the mediating influence of career opportunity on the relationship between communication practice and contextual performance (β= .059, p< .10). Similarly, the mediation of career opportunity on the relationship between career planning practice and contextual performance (β= .044, p< .10) was statistically supported. However, the relationship between communication practice and adaptive performance and also relationship between career planning practice and adaptive performance were all not mediated by career opportunity.

4.11.4 Coefficient of Determination (R^2) of Full Model (Mediation)

Determining the R^2 is an important criterion in the assessment of structural models (Hair *et al.*, 2014; Henseler *et al.,* 2012). Like in the first model, also here in the second (full) model the value of all the coefficient of determination R^2 was ascertained. But unlike in the first model, were only the R^2 of task, contextual and adaptive performance are assessed, here in the full model the R^2 of the mediating variables (self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity) was also assessed because each mediator also served as dependent variables to some designated HRM practices. Therefore, a comprehensive summary of the R^2 values of all endogenous variables of the full model were provided in Table 4.23 below.

Table 4.23
Coefficient of determination (R2) of full model (Mediating relationships)

Latent Constructs	R^2 Value	Assessment criterion by Chin (1998)
Task performance	0.628	Moderate
Contextual performance	0.633	Moderate
Adaptive performance	0.631	Moderate
Self efficacy	0.443	Moderate
Public Service Motivation	0.197	Weak
Career opportunity	0.554	Moderate

Table 4.23, above provides the R^2 results of the full (mediating) model. The R^2 values suggested that all the six HRM practices (job rotation, training & development, compensation, job autonomy, communication and career planning) plus the three mediating variables (self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity) that also serve as exogenous variables explained 63% of variance in task performance, 63% variance in contextual performance and also another 63% of the variance in adaptive performance respectively. Based on these values it clearly indicates that all the six HRM practices and three mediators explained moderate variance in both task, contextual and adaptive performance (Chin, 1998; Hair *et al,* 2011). In another development, job rotation and training & development practices explained 44% variance in self efficacy, whereas, compensation and job autonomy practices explained only 20% of the variance in PSM. Lastly, communication and career planning practices also explained 55% of the variance in career opportunity. Consequently, the full model indicates a moderate R^2 values based on the Chins' (1998) criterion.

4.11.5 Effect Size (f^2) of the Full Model (Mediating Relationships)

As discussed in the preceding model that determining effect size is an important criterion in ascertaining structural model (outer model) as it provides the individual impact (contribution) of all exogenous latent construct on the endogenous (Hair, *et al,* 2014). Similar to the first model, changes in the R^2 value was assessed by comparing values before and after a particular exogenous construct was excluded from the model. Therefore, Table 4.24 shows the effect size of the all the relationships in the full model.

Table 4.24
Effect size (f^2) of the full model (Mediating relationships)

Relationship	**R^2 Included**	**R^2 Excluded**	**F^2**	**Effect Size**
JRT -> TSK PERF	0.628	0.628	0.0000	None
TRN -> TSK PERF	0.628	0.616	0.0323	Small
CMP -> TSK PERF	0.628	0.609	0.0511	Small
AUT -> TSK PERF	0.628	0.623	0.0134	None
COM -> TSK PERF	0.628	0.628	0.0000	None
CPL -> TSK PERF	0.628	0.623	0.0134	None
JRT -> CTX PERF	0.633	0.625	0.0218	Small
TRN -> CTX PERF	0.633	0.632	0.0027	None
CMP -> CTX PERF	0.633	0.633	0.0000	None
AUT -> CTX PERF	0.633	0.624	0.0245	Small
COM -> CTX PERF	0.633	0.629	0.0109	None
CPL -> CTX PERF	0.633	0.625	0.0218	Small
JRT -> ADP PERF	0.631	0.626	0.0136	None
TRN -> ADP PERF	0.631	0.631	0.0000	None
CMP -> ADP PERF	0.631	0.63	0.0027	None
AUT -> ADP PERF	0.631	0.608	0.0623	Small
COM -> ADP PERF	0.631	0.626	0.0136	None
CPL -> ADP PERF	0.631	0.620	0.0298	Small
JRT -> SEF	0.443	0.230	0.3824	Large
TRN -> SEF	0.443	0.412	0.0557	Small
CMP -> PSM	0.197	0.161	0.0448	Small
AUT -> PSM	0.197	0.135	0.0772	Small
COM -> COP	0.554	0.450	0.2332	Medium
CPL -> COP	0.554	0.497	0.1278	Small
SEF -> TSK PERF	0.628	0.621	0.0200	Small
PSM -> TSK PERF	0.628	0.606	0.0591	Small
COP -> TSK PERF	0.628	0.619	0.0242	Small
SEF -> CTX PERF	0.633	0.630	0.0082	None
PSM -> CTX PERF	0.633	0.614	0.0518	Small
COP -> CTX PERF	0.633	0.627	0.0200	Small
SEF -> ADP PERF	0.631	0.627	0.0108	None
PSM -> ADP PERF	0.631	0.612	0.0515	Small
COP -> ADP PERF	0.631	0.630	0.0027	None

Note: JRT= Job rotation; TRN= Training & development; CMP= Compensation; AUT=Job autonomy; COM= Communication; CPL= Career planning; SEF= Self efficacy; PSM= Public service motivation; COP= Career opportunity; TSK PERF= Task performance; CTX PERF= Contextual performance; ADP PERF= Adaptive performance.

The effect size results of the full model as indicated in table 4.19 above provided that the relationship between job rotation and task performance is the only relationship with the highest effect size (ie large), followed by the relationship between communication practice and career opportunity (medium). Whereas, most of the relationship indicates only small effect size. The results further indicated that effect size ranged between large, medium, small and none.

4.11.6 Predictive Relevance Q^2 of the Full Model (Mediating Relationships)

The predictive relevance of the full model that tested the mediation effect of self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity on the relationship between the six HRM practice and employee task, contextual and adaptive performance was provided in Table 4.25 and Figure 4.10.

Table 4.25
Predictive relevance (Q2) of the full model (Mediating relationships)

Total	SSO	SSE	1-SSE/SSO (Q^2)
Task performance	1590	1081.9414	0.3195
Contextual performance	1060	728.4436	0.3128
Adaptive performance	1060	702.6397	0.3371
Self efficacy	795	612.0121	0.2302
Public Service Motivation	1060	939.7571	0.1134
Career opportunity	795	495.1446	0.3772

Note: SSO = squared observations; SSE= squared prediction error

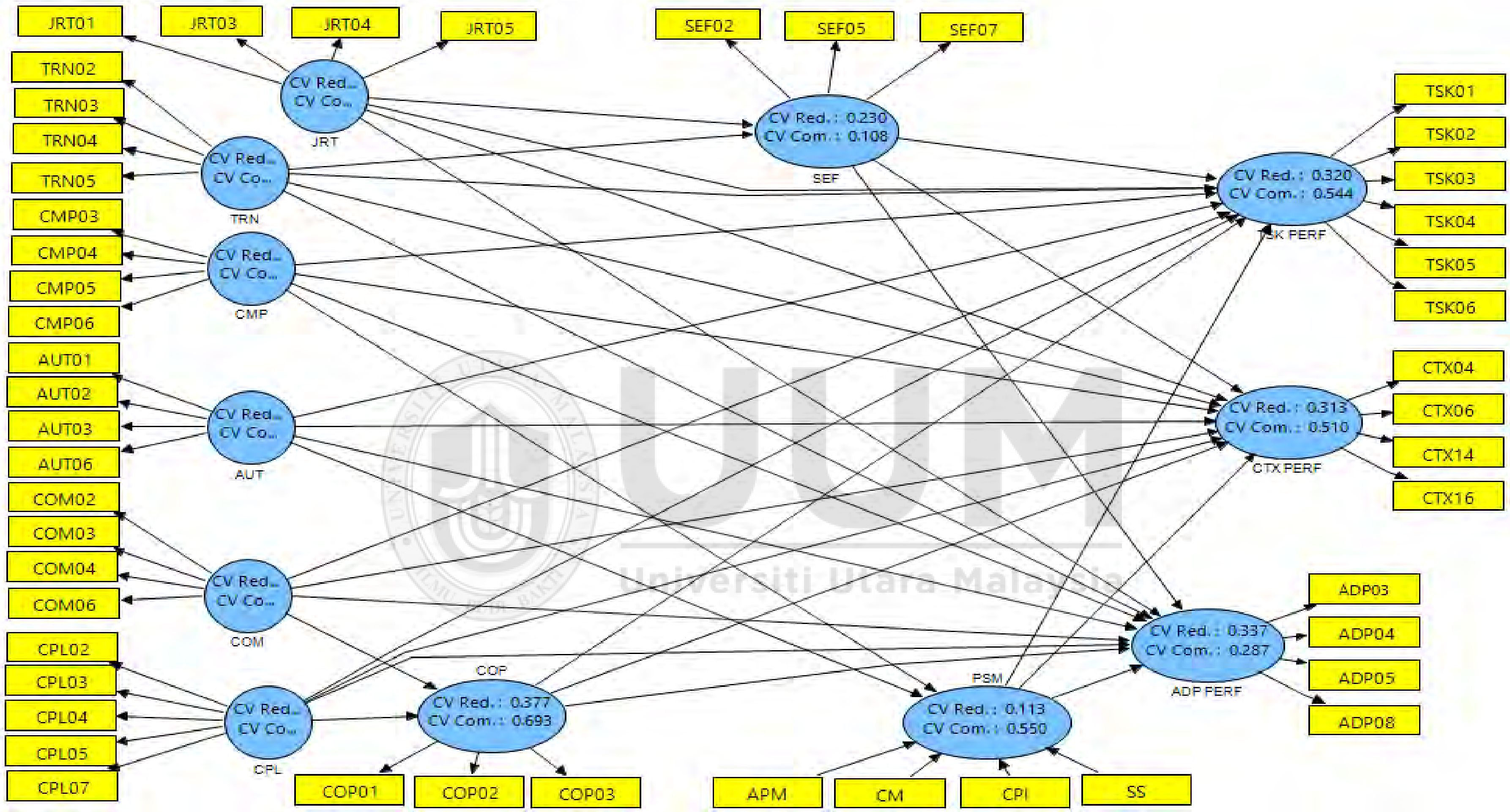


Figure 4.10

Predictive relevance graph of the full model (Mediating relationships)

Based on the construct cross validated redundancy generated through the blindfolding procedure, (Hair Jr. *et al*, 2014; Henseler *et al,* 2009), Table 4.25 above and Figure 4.10 revealed that Q^2 value of task performance is 0.3195, contextual performance is 0.3128 and adaptive performance is 0.3371 respectively. While, for the three mediating variables, self efficacy had a Q^2 value of 0.2302, PSM is 0.1134 and career opportunity 0.3772 respectively. Consequently, the results suggested that the full model had achieved predictive relevance as the Q^2 values of the entire endogenous construct were all above zero ($Q^2 > 0$).

4.11.7 Magnitude of Mediating Effects (VAF)

According to Hair *et al,* (2014) mediation based on the value of VAF is to be classified as either full mediation or partial mediation. Whereby, the VAF value of 80% and above it is considered to be full mediation. While, VAF value of 20% and above but less than 80% it is partial mediation. However, when the VAF value is less than 20% no mediation at all.

Table 4.26
Assessment on the magnitude of mediating effects (VAF)

H	Constructs	Direct	Indirect	Total	VAF	Mediation
H7a	JRT -> SEF->TSK PERF	-0.021	0.067	0.046	145%	Full
H7d	TRN -> SEF->TSK PERF	0.161	0.026	0.187	NA	NA
H8a	CMP -> PSM->TSK PERF	0.192	0.052	0.244	21%	Partial
H8d	AUT -> PSM->TSK PERF	0.079	0.068	0.147	46%	Partial
H9a	COM -> COP->TSK PERF	0.192	0.070	0.261	26%	Partial
H9d	CPL -> COP->TSK PERF	0.116	0.051	0.167	NA	NA
H7b	JRT -> SEF->CTX PERF	0.153	0.047	0.199	NA	NA
H7e	TRN -> SEF->CTX PERF	-0.049	0.018	-0.031	NA	NA
H8b	CMP -> PSM->CTX PERF	0.025	0.050	0.075	67%	Partial
H8e	AUT -> PSM->CTX PERF	0.124	0.065	0.189	34%	Partial
H9b	COM -> COP->CTX PERF	0.12	0.059	0.179	33%	Partial
H9e	CPL -> COP->CTX PERF	0.162	0.044	0.206	21%	Partial
H7c	JRT -> SEF->ADP PERF	0.123	0.057	0.180	32%	Partial
H7f	TRN -> SEF->ADP PERF	0.025	0.022	0.047	NA	NA
H8c	CMP -> PSM->ADP PERF	0.039	0.048	0.088	56%	Partial
H8f	AUT -> PSM->ADP PERF	0.194	0.063	0.257	25%	Partial
H9c	COM -> COP->ADP PERF	0.126	0.051	0.177	NA	NA
H9f	CPL -> COP->ADP PERF	0.183	0.016	0.199	NA	NA

Note: JRT= Job rotation; TRN= Training & development; CMP= Compensation; AUT=Job autonomy; COM= Communication; CPL= Career planning; SEF= Self efficacy; PSM= Public service motivation; COP= Career opportunity; TSK PERF= Task performance; CTX PERF= Contextual performance; ADP PERF= Adaptive performance. NA= Not Applicable

As shown above, Table 4.26 revealed that the VAF value of 145% for H7a is called ***suppressor effect*** (*see,* Hair *et al.*, 2014). This type of effect indicates that the inclusion of mediating variable (i.e. inclusion of self efficacy in the relationship between job rotation and task performance) had turned the positive relationship to negative (*see,* Hair *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, Hair *et al*, (2014) recommended that this kind of relationship always signifies full mediation. It is the highest kind of mediation effect, which is found only in exceptional cases.

In addition, the VAF values of 21% and 46% indicates that PSM partially mediates the relationship between compensation and task performance (H8a) and job autonomy and task performance (H8d) respectively, whereas, VAF value of 26% indicates the partial mediation of career opportunity on the relationship between communication practice and task performance (H9a). Moreover, VAF values of 67% and 34% revealed the partial mediation of PSM on both compensation (H8b) and job autonomy (H8e) with contextual performance. Also, 33% and 21% VAF values signified the partial mediation of career opportunity on both communication practice (H9b) and career planning (H9e) with contextual performance.

Furthermore, VAF value of 32% for H7c proved that self efficacy partially mediated the relationship between job rotation and adaptive performance. Similarly, VAF values of 56% and 25% revealed that PSM partially mediated the positive relationship of both communication practice (H8e) and job autonomy (H8f) with adaptive performance.

However, VAF assessments were not applied on seven hypothesized relationships, specifically hypotheses H7d, H9d, H7b, H7e, H7f and H9f respectively as no mediation effect on these relationships.

4.12 Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Having presented in the preceding sections all the results of both main (direct) and mediation (indirect) effects, Table 4.27 below provided a comprehensive summary of results of all the hypotheses tested in the present study.

Table 4.27
Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses	Statement	Results
H1a:	Job rotation is positively related to task performance.	Supported
H2a:	Training & development is positively related to task performance.	Supported
H3a:	Compensation is positively related to task performance.	Supported
H4a:	Job autonomy is positively related to task performance.	Supported
H5a:	Communication is positively related to task performance.	Not Supported
H6a:	Career planning is positively related to task performance.	Supported
H1b:	Job rotation is positively related to contextual performance.	Supported
H2b:	Training & development is positively related to contextual performance.	Not Supported
H3b:	Compensation is positively related to contextual performance.	Not Supported
H4b:	Job autonomy is positively related to contextual performance.	Supported
H5b:	Communication is positively related to contextual performance.	Supported
H6b:	Career planning is positively related to contextual performance.	Supported
H1c:	Job rotation is positively related to adaptive performance.	Supported
H2c:	Training & development is positively related to adaptive performance.	Not Supported
H3c:	Compensation is positively related to adaptive performance.	Not Supported
H4c:	Job autonomy is positively related to adaptive performance.	Supported
H5c:	Communication is positively related to adaptive performance.	Supported
H6c:	Career planning is positively related to adaptive performance.	Supported
H7a:	Self-efficacy mediate the relationship between job rotation and task performance	Supported
H7b:	Self-efficacy mediate the relationship between job rotation and contextual performance	Not Supported
H7c:	Self-efficacy mediate the relationship between job rotation and adaptive performance.	Supported
H7d:	Self-efficacy mediate the relationship between training & development and task performance.	Not Supported

H7e:	Self-efficacy mediate the relationship between training & development and contextual performance.	Not Supported
H7f:	Self-efficacy mediate the relationship between training & development and adaptive performance.	Not Supported
H8a:	PSM mediates the relationship between compensation and task performance.	Supported
H8b:	PSM mediates the relationship between compensation and contextual performance.	Supported
H8c:	PSM mediates the relationship between compensation and adaptive performance.	Supported
H8d:	PSM mediates the relationship between job autonomy and task performance.	Supported
H8e:	PSM mediates the relationship between job autonomy and contextual performance.	Supported
H8f:	PSM mediates the relationship between job autonomy and adaptive performance.	Supported
H9a:	Career opportunity mediates the relationship between communication and task performance.	Supported
H9b:	Career opportunity mediates the relationship between communication and contextual performance.	Supported
H9c:	Career opportunity mediates the relationship between communication and adaptive performance.	Not Supported
H9d:	Career opportunity mediates the relationship between career planning and task performance.	Not Supported
H9e:	Career opportunity mediates the relationship between career planning and contextual performance.	Supported
H9f:	Career opportunity mediates the relationship between career planning and adaptive performance.	Not Supported

4.13 Summary of the Chapter

In summary, this chapter comprehensively explained all the statistical analyses performed based on the data collected. Specifically, this chapter highlighted the procedure followed in data screening including assessment and handling missing values, assessment and handling outliers. It also discusses preliminary test and analysis like test of multicollinearity, test of non response bias and common method variance test. Furthermore, the chapter provides the methods and results of measurement model in which validity and reliabilities of all latent constructs were ascertained. Structural models were also assessed were by a detail reports and explanation of PLS SEM path coefficient significance, effect size, coefficient of determination, variance accounted for (VAF), and predictive relevance of all the models are provided. Lastly, the chapter closes with a detailed summary of all the hypotheses tested.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter been the final chapter focuses solely on the discussion of all the research findings which are presented in line with the research objectives, the research questions coupled with the developed hypotheses based on the reviewed literature. Furthermore, the chapter discusses the theoretical, methodological and managerial/practical implications. In addition, it also provides highlights on the limitations and recommendations for future research. Finally, the chapter closes with the conclusion of the study.

5.2 Recapitulation of Findings

This study examines direct relationship between six HRM practices (job rotation, training & development, compensation, job autonomy, communication and career planning) and employee task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance in the context of Nigerian public sector. Additionally, the study also investigates the mediation role of PSM, self efficacy and career opportunity on these relationships.

The results obtained provided an appreciating supports that self reporting method couple with the application of PLS path modeling had statistically supported the predictive relevance and significance of self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity as strong mechanism (mediators) through which HRM practices (job rotation, training & development, compensation, job autonomy, communication and career planning) influences employee task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance. In general, the results of PLS SEM analysis had statistically provided support for the greater number of the hypothesized direct and indirect relationships for this study. Specifically, the findings revealed that thirteen (13) out of the eighteen (18) hypothesized direct (independents to dependent variables) relationship were statistically positive and significantly supported. Furthermore, the chapter 4 reveals that out of the 18 initial hypothesized mediation (indirect) relationships, only 11 are statistically supported by the present sample of 265 senior staff of local governments in Nigeria. While, contrary to expectations the remaining 7 mediating hypotheses are not statistically substantiated.

5.3 Discussions

This section provided a comprehensive discussion on the results concerning all the relationships between: (1) HRM practices (job rotation, training & development, compensation, job autonomy, communication and career planning) as exogenous variables and employee task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance as endogenous variables, and (2) mediation of self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity in the relationships between HRM practices (job rotation, training & development, compensation, job autonomy, communication and career planning) and employee task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance.

5.3.1 Relationship between HRM Practices and Employee Task, Contextual and Adaptive performance

The first research question of the present study is concerned with direct relationships between six HRM practices (job rotation, training & development, compensation, job autonomy, communication and career planning) and employee task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance. Therefore, each of the dimensions of employee performance will be discussed separately in relation to individual HRM practices so as to have a clear understanding of each relationship. By discussing each dimension separately in relation to the six HRM practice, it will provide good understanding of which specific practices are more important in predicting the concerned dimension of employee performance.

5.3.2 Relationship between HRM Practices and Task Performance

Task performance is defined as the employees' behavior that are directly linked to the provision of goods and services, or other technical activities that provide direct support to the organizations' core technical process (Motowidlo and Van scotter, 1994; Tsui *et al*, 1997). This dimension of employee performance is within the prescribed duties of employees. Six direct hypotheses are formulated and tested on the relationship between HRM practice and task performance.

5.3.2.1 Job Rotation and Task Performance

Job rotation was found to exert positive and significant influence on task performance. This finding is in accordance with the arguments of Tiwari (2011) and Tuei and Saina (2015) that job rotation as HRM practice positively improves the performance of employees if adequately employed and properly managed. Additionally, this finding suggested that job rotation is an important HRM practice that needs to be considered and be given the desired attention by management in order to boost employee task performance. The finding supported that when organization allows for a movement of its employee from one duty post to another within the organization such employee(s) are provided with the opportunities of acquiring more knowledge, skills and experiences. Employees are therefore inclined to consider this lateral transfer as a good gesture from their employer and respond these positive gestures by demonstrating high task performance. These results are in agreement with the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) that suggested reciprocal relationship between two parties (employer/management and employee).

5.3.2.2 Training & Development and Task Performance

As expected, training & development predicted task performance. This result suggests that training & development practice plays a more salient role in influencing task performance. The possible reason is that, consistent with SET (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976) which is based on the norms of reciprocity in social relationships, it is argued that employees are propelled to demonstrate positive task behaviors in an organization when they perceive that their employer recognizes and values them by providing adequate training & development opportunities (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010). Similarly, extensive training & development opportunities convey to employees that their organization intent for a long-term investment towards their growth and development which obliges them to reciprocate with task behavior (Gong, Chang, & Cheung, 2010; Sun *et al.*, 2007). The significant relationship between training & development and employee task performance is consistent with the study of Dysvik and Kuvaas (2008) conducted among Norwegian service organizations.

5.3.2.3 Compensation and Task Performance

As predicted, compensation was found to be a significant and positive predictor of employee task performance among the Nigerian public sector employees. This significant result is consistent with previous studies (Demerouti, Bakker, & Leiter, 2014; Güngör, 2011). Demerouti *et al.* (2014), argued that compensation is the most successful strategy that predict employee task performance and at the same time buffer burnout and turnover intensions in organization. In other words, when organizations offered their employees adequate compensation (both financial and non financial), employees would view the reward as an indication of positive evaluations of their contributions. Therefore, it is argued here that when employee perceives a better compensation practice (like salary) within their organization then they are more likely to exhibit high task performance (Gungor, 2011). Theoretically, SET also argued that one good gesture obliged another.

5.3.2.4 Job Autonomy and Task Performance

Regarding the relationship between job autonomy and task performance, as expected the finding suggested that job autonomy is an important predictor of employee task performance. One plausible explanation for these result was that higher perceptions of employees on the availability of freedom and discretion in discharging assigned responsibilities allows them to engaged in higher task performance. Also, it is clear from these findings that the greater the perception of employees' with regards to job autonomy in their organizations, then the higher the level of his/her task performance (Goštautaitė, 2014). In this regard, Daly and Dee (2006) acknowledged that job autonomy is an important HRM practices that when implemented in organization it convey strong message to the employees that they are being recognized and valued as important long-term assets of the organization. More importantly, these significant relationships clearly translate social exchange. According to social exchange theory, in social settings people (employees) tend to feel obligated to respond or repay favorable gestures, benefits or treatment offered by another (their organization). Similarly, Cho and Yoon (2009) conducted a research in the Korean public sector organization demonstrated that providing freedom and discretion to employees to discharge their assigned responsibilities freely positively increases their individual performance in organization.

5.3.2.5 Communication and Task Performance

Contrary to expectations, communication practice did not positively influence task performance in the present sample. Thus, indicating that communication is not a predictor of task performance. Nevertheless, previous findings had also reported insignificant relationship between communication and task performance (Neves & Eisenberger, 2012). The possible explanation of the non significance is that, previous studies on communication and employee performance (Michael, 2011; Neves & Eisenberger, 2012), revealed that the relationship between communication practice and employee performance is not direct but rather indirect through the mediation of perceive organizational support (Neves & Eisenberger, 2012) and job dedication (Micheal, 2011). Moreover, Khattak and Ali (2010) supported that for communication practice to influence task performance it needs some factors like learning capabilities, motivation and interest in work.

5.3.2.6 Career Planning and Task Performance

Regarding the relationship between career planning and task performance, the result also indicates that career planning practice has a significant positive influence on task performance. This result supported that career planning practice is an important predictor of task performance (Nadarasa, 2013). This result suggested that presence of good career planning opportunities in organization inspired the employees to exhibit higher task performance. The finding was in line with some previous studies (Akhter *et al,* 2013; Tiwari, 2011) were significant positive influence of career planning on task performance was established. In addition, the finding revealed that employee more especially in the public sector attached more importance to their career development and promotion opportunities and when provided they reciprocate with higher performance.

Based on the discussed findings on the influence of HRM practice on task performance, it can be concluded that all the six HRM practices are important in predicting task performance with the exception of communication practice. In fact, the HRM practices as perceived by the public sector employees encouraged them to perform higher in achieving their assigned job responsibilities. In general, these findings are in line with the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) which proposes that in organization, obligations are generated based on reciprocated social exchange i.e between two different parties within a relationship (employee and employer). Therefore, HRM practices used by organizations are a sort of social exchange mechanisms initiated by organization by treating their employees in positive ways and furnish them with some economic and other socio-emotional resources (Gould-Williams, 2007). Employees in turn, feel obliged and reciprocate these positive treatments by engaging in higher levels of task performance. Even though, communication practice was not a predictor of task performance, on the other hand, it is a good predictor of contextual and adaptive performance (*see*, Table 4.14 and 4.15).

5.3.3 Relationship between HRM Practices and Contextual Performance

Contextual performance is the second dimension of employee performance in this study. Contextual Performance is defined as the employees' efforts (action and behaviors) that are outside their job description but yet enhances organizational effectiveness such as voluntary assisting coworkers (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). It covers extra role behaviors of employees. Six direct hypotheses on HRM practices and contextual performance were also tested.

5.3.3.1 Job Rotation and Contextual Performance

The relationship between job rotation and contextual performance was empirically substantiated. In fact, job rotation has proved to be a significant predictor of contextual performance in the present sample of Nigerian public organizations. This result implied that lateral transfer of employees from one duty post to another increases their knowledge and skills. It also encourage the employees to exhibit more extra role performance (Youssef, Martin, & Omrani, 2014). This finding is consistent with previous studies (Youssef *et al.*, 2014) were job rotation was found to induces higher contextual performance of employees in organization.

5.3.3.2 Training & Development and Contextual Performance

In contrary, the relationship between training & development and contextual performance was not supported. The result suggested that providing training &development do not necessary make the employee to engage in more contextual performance. The possible explanation for the non significant relationship between training & development and contextual performance could be attributed to employees' personal primacy or opportunistic reasons (Kuvaas 2008). Training & development opportunities given to employees may increase the likelihood of employees to act opportunistically by given importance to individual or personal interest rather than organizational interest. For instance, employee may perceive training & development opportunities as an opportunity (something they can use) to achieve personal career development. Therefore, instead of responding the good gesture given to them (training & development opportunities) with higher contextual performance, they may respond in ways that will indirectly (negatively) reduce their level of contextual behaviors (Kuvaas, 2008). Accordingly, such employees may consider the training & development opportunity given by organization as a way of promoting their personal careers and attractiveness in the labor market. Thus, exhibit low contextual performance after the training & development activities. Related to that, Nawaz and Pangil (2016) argued that training & development opportunities in some cases led to higher turnover intention, as some employee may decide to leave their organization after been trained. Based on that they may choose to exhibit low contextual perform behaviors before leaving.

5.3.3.3 Compensation and Contextual Performance

Unexpectedly, the finding has not found statistically support on the relationship of compensation practice and contextual performance on this sample. This showed that in the Nigerian public sector, compensation practice was not a predictor of contextual performance. Therefore, providing the staff with a compensation packages was not enough to allow them to enthusiastically engage in contextual performance. This result is in line with the findings of Pare and Tremblay (2007) where compensation was not directly related with contextual performance but rather indirect through the mediation of procedural fairness and affective commitment.

This finding contradicts previous study of Kashani (2012), that revealed positive influence of compensation on contextual performance. The possible reason for the non significant relationship between compensation and contextual performance is that, unlike in task performance were people perform because it is explicitly recognized by the organizational formal compensation system (Van Scooter, 2000), as in contextual performance people generally engaged in extra role behaviors voluntarily without expectation of any kind of reward from the organization. Therefore, compensation may not necessarily energize them towards contextual behaviors, as the motive is achieved internally or (inner satisfaction) by doing the action (Ryan & Deci, 2000; 2006). Another possible reason for the non significant relationship between compensation practice and employee contextual may be related to the context of the study. In the Nigerian context, as argued by Onah, (2012) and Obisi, Uche, and Ifekwem (2010) that public organizations compensation practice are mostly designed to improve employee behaviors related to assigned duties and responsibilities alone rather than contextual and adaptive behaviors. For instance, the salary, allowances, and other fringe benefits of public sector employees are generally linked to task behaviors. This indicated that contextual and adaptive behaviors are either neglected or not been considered in the compensation package of Nigerian public sector. Therefore, the need for considering and recognizing contextual and adaptive behaviors in the public sector became imperative.

5.3.3.4 Job Autonomy and Contextual Performance

With regard to job autonomy and contextual performance, as expected the result indicated that job autonomy practice exerted a strong influence on contextual performance of Nigerian public employees. This clearly means that the greater the level of job autonomy accorded to employee the higher will be the level of contextual performance. This result is in line with previous studies (Bizzi & Soda, 2011; Gellatly & Irving, 2001) that supported the positive effect of job autonomy on contextual performance. Gellatly and Irving (2001) revealed that the managers with higher job autonomy recorded better contextual performance compared with managers that perceived low autonomy. This implied that perception of high job autonomy and freedom encourage employees to develop more flexible work orientation that energies them to engage in performing voluntary behaviors that are beyond their job requirements (Bizzi & Soda, 2011).

5.3.3.5 Communication and Contextual Performance

In another development, communication practice was found to be a good predictor of contextual performance among public sector employees in Nigeria. This finding is consistent with Chen, Silverthorne & Hung (2006) who found that higher levels of communication led to higher level of performance among accounting professional of USA and Taiwan. Similarly, Asamu, (2014) and Muda *et al,* (2014) revealed significant and positive relationship between communication and performance. The finding established that perception of open communication practice between the management (organization) and employee is an effective way that increase employee contextual performance i.e extra role activities (Neves & Eisenberger, 2012). Theoretically, this finding is in line with SET norm of reciprocity (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960) when organization communicates openly with the employees by allowing both upward, downward and lateral lines of communication, it strengthen and consequently increase employees effort to reciprocate through contextual performance (behaviors that help the organization).

5.3.3.6 Career Planning and Contextual Performance

Moreover, career planning exerted strong positive influence on employees' contextual performance. This revealed that effective career planning practices that allowed for the smooth promotion and other career advancement opportunities increases employees performance and induces them to go beyond their assigned task i.e contextual performance (Diao & Park, 2011). The finding is in line with SET argument that providing career planning practice like career advancement and promotion opportunist to the employees makes them to perceive that the organization value and recognizes their effort, and in turn they reciprocate with more extra efforts in form of contextual performance (Lee & Lee, 2009).

Based on the discussed relationships between the six HRM practices and contextual performance, it can be concluded that, the findings proved that HRM practices are important predictors of contextual performance in the context of Nigerian public sector. Furthermore, in line with the SET (Blau, 1964), when organization periodically rotates employee, allowed them the freedom and discretion to choose method and procedures in doing their jobs, ensures free flow of communication (both up-ward and down-ward) and also integrates their career aspirations with organizational opportunities through career planning, such employees are obliged to reciprocate with more extra activities (contextual performance), that benefits both individual (employees) and organizational effectiveness at large.

5.3.4 Relationship between HRM Practices and Adaptive Performance

The third dimension of employee performance in this study is adaptive performance. Adaptive performance is conceptualized as the extent to which employee adapts to changes in the work system (organization) or work roles (Koopmans *et al*, 2013). Example, of adaptive behaviors include: creatively solving problems, handling unpredictable or uncertain work situations, and learning a new tasks among others. Like other dimensions, six direct hypotheses are also formulated and tested on the relationship between HRM practice and adaptive performance.

5.3.4.1 Job Rotation and Adaptive Performance

In relation to job rotation and adaptive performance, the relationship was statistically substantiated by the present sample, as a significant and positive relationship between job rotation and employee adaptive performance was established. This implied that the practice of moving employees from one duty to another allowed the employees to exhibit creative ideas and adapt to the new working environment (Mohan & Gomathi, 2015). This also suggested that, lateral transfer of employees enables them to be more familiar with different change related activities and creatively handle them. This finding is consistent with the arguments of Griffin and Hesketh (2003) and also Chan and Schmitt (2000), that familiarity with different change-related activities in organization increases and ease employees adaptability in creatively performing more similar and related future activities.

5.3.4.2 Training & Development and Adaptive Performance

Training & development does not predict adaptive performance of Nigerian public sector employees. Thus, indicating that training &development practice do not directly influence employees' adaptive performance. Although individuals employees who that received high levels of training & development in organization were also rated higher in adaptive performance by their supervisors/team leaders (*see*, Han & Williams, 2008), nevertheless, it also argued that, mostly non-routine task behaviors like adaptive performance require anticipatory skills, experience and decision-making strategies. In this regard, Han and Williams (2008), supported that adaptive performance may not necessarily be acquired through organizational formal employee training & development practices. They further argued that, organizational formal training & development practices focuses more on reactive instead of proactive performance related activities and mostly emphasizes on the accumulation of the job-specific skills and knowledge.

5.3.4.3 Compensation and Adaptive Performance

Compensation practice was not an important predictor of adaptive performance as the relationship was not supported in the Nigerian public sector employees' sample. The possible reason can be attributed to the context of the study. Generally, as observed by some scholars (Onah, 2012; Obisi *et al.* (2010), the Nigerian public organizations compensation packages (including salary, allowances and other fringe benefits) and other reward system are designed to compensate and improve employee behaviors that are related to assigned tasks and responsibilities rather than adaptive behaviors. For example, the salary, allowances, and other fringe benefits of public sector employees are generally linked to task related behaviors. This indicated that adaptive behaviors are either neglected or not been considered in the compensation package and annual performance evaluation reports of Nigerian public sector employees.

5.3.4.4 Job Autonomy and Adaptive Performance

In another development, it is also proved that job autonomy exert strong influence on employees' adaptive performance. Thus, revealing that the practice of job autonomy is a significant predictor of adaptive performance. In fact, allowing employee the freedom and discretion to use their own initiative in scheduling their assigned tasks, methods and procedures encouraged them to exhibit higher adaptive performance. The result is in line with the assertion of Battistelli, Montani, and Odoardi (2013), that for employee to effectively dealt with uncertain conditions at work or new demands, they required adequate job autonomy that can allowed them to successfully handle adaptive behaviors effectively and efficiently. Accordingly, employees that enjoyed higher job autonomy in organization also recorded higher adaptive performance (Battistelli *et al.*, 2013). This suggested that the higher the opportunity for job autonomy given to employee the better will be their adaptive performance.

5.3.4.5 Communication and Adaptive Performance

Similarly, it was also found that communication practice predict adaptive performance. The result indicated that effective communication that allows for the free flows of information both up-ward (from lower officers to senior officers), down-ward (from senior to lower officers) and lateral (officers of the same rank) build effective working relationships and enhance employee performance (Neves & Eisenberger, 2012). The result also implied that when public sector organizations provides an enabling environment where both the management and employees communicate freely with each other, and also share information that are very important for the successful completion of the employees' assigned jobs, these employees will be more willing to cope with new changes and adaptive behaviors (Pynes, 2009). In addition, the present finding concurred with previous studies (Kacmar *et al.*, 2003; Neves & Eisenberger, 2012), that several aspects of effective communication practice, such as openness and accuracy, performance feedback, high frequency and adequacy of information regarding the organizational procedures and policies are positively related to employees performance.

5.3.4.6 Career Planning and Adaptive Performance

Lastly, as expected career planning practice lead to more adaptive performance. The finding suggested that perception of good career planning promote employees' adaptive behaviors in organization. It also provides empirical evidence indicating that career planning is a good predictor of employees' adaptive performance. In addition, apart from been good predictor of performance, these result suggested that career planning had stronger influence on adaptive performance than with task and contextual performance. The findings are in line with the previous studies of Nadarasa, (2013) and Tiwari (2011) where career planning significantly and positively influenced employee performance.

Conclusively, the findings revealed that HRM practices specifically job rotation; career planning; job autonomy and communication are important predictors of employee adaptive performance in Nigerian public sector organization. Although training and compensation practices are not important in predicting adaptive performance but, still they are very important in predicting task performance. In general, the results of direct relationship disclosed that the influence of HRM practices on employee performance do not only confined to the private sectors alone or Western and Asian countries, but is also evident in the public sectors and across different cultures including Africa's largest economy which is Nigeria.

5.4 Mediation Effects

The second, third and forth main research questions solely deals with the mediation roles of self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity. In line with these research questions, the second, third and forth objectives are to address whether self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity act as mediators on the relationship between HRM practices and employee task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance. Sections that follow discussed the mediating role of each mediating variable one after the other.

5.4.1 Mediation Effect of Self Efficacy

The second objective is to investigate whether self efficacy had a mediating effect on the relationship between HRM practices (job rotation and training & development) and employee task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance.

To start with task performance, self efficacy was found to have exerted mediating influence on the relationship between job rotation and task performance. This implied that, moving employees to different task positions within the organization enhances their experience, knowledge and skills that make them to believe on their ability to successfully complete assigned tasks (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). This further indicated that task performance depend on job rotation when the employee rotated had a strong self efficacy (i.e the ability to perform the task). It also suggested that self efficacy is the fundamental reason explaining why and how job rotation increases or led to more task performance among employees. More importantly, this finding supported that when organization implemented job rotation and the employee perceived that the job rotation provided them the opportunity to gain more skills, experiences and knowledge this will increase their self efficacy belief that will in turn allowed for higher task performance.

However, self efficacy does not mediate the relationship between training & development and task performance in this study. The possible explanation for the non mediation influence of self efficacy in this relationship can be related to employees' opportunistic behaviors (Kuvaas, 2008). For instance, Kuvaas, (2008) argued that employees' self centered motive and opportunistic behaviors may influence their action and behaviors in discharging their assigned duties. In this regards, the employees' may considered the training & development opportunity as an opportunity for a potential higher position in another job not for the present job. Thus, may choose to be less efficacious in discharging assigned task.

With regard to contextual performance, unexpectedly, self efficacy does not mediate the relationship between job rotation and contextual performance. The likely reason for this non significant meditational influence of self efficacy is that, usually employee exhibit contextual behavior voluntarily (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Therefore, moving employee to different task position within the organization alone may not necessarily lead to more contextual performance as they may need the self efficacy belief as motivational supports before they move into contextual behaviors. Relatedly, Speier and Frese (1997) supported that self efficacy is very important for contextual performance because if an employee does not belief in his/her own ability to do contextual behaviors, then actually he/she may not probably do it.

Also, self efficacy was not found to have mediating influence between training & development and contextual performance. The likely reason for this non significant mediation influence is that most of the training & development provided to the employees of public sector in Nigeria do not encourage contextual behaviors but only task related behaviors (Obisi *et al*., 2010) . In addition, as the direct relationship between training & development and contextual performance was not supported, therefore, the indirect may also not necessarily be supported based on Baron and Kenny, (1986).

In relation to adaptive performance, self efficacy is found to be an important mediator between job rotation and adaptive performance. According to this result, the relationship between job rotation and adaptive performance is not direct but rather indirect through the influence of self efficacy. It also further proved that for job rotation practice to influence adaptive performance, the employees most belief in this ability (self efficacy) to adapt to new changes in organization (Bandura, 1986).

Contrary to expectation, the result revealed that self efficacy does not exert mediating influence between training & development and adaptive performance in Nigerian public sector organizations. In this regard, Onah (2012) reported that the training & development policies in Nigerian public sector organizations are geared to promote only task related performance but not contextual and adaptive performance. Therefore, even if the employee belief they can perform adaptive behaviors the organization is not fully supportive in providing the necessary training & development to exhibit adaptive performance.

To sum up, the significant findings supported that employees' perception of adequate training & development opportunities and periodic movement of employees from one duty post to another within the organization increases their knowledge, skills and competence (Fægri *et al.*, 2010; Way, 2002), that enables them to believe that they are capable of doing their assign duties and therefore effectively perform task and adaptive behaviors (Bandura, 1986). The mediating effect of self efficacy revealed in the present study had supports from the previous studies (Cavazotte, Moreno & Bernardo, 2013; Yang, kim & Mcfarland, 2011) were self efficacy exerted mediating influence. On the other hand, the possible reason for the non mediation influence of self efficacy on these relationships can be attributed the non significant influence of training & development practice on contextual and adaptive performance been the first condition in mediation (*see*, Baron & Kenny, 1986). Although training & development practice exert positive significant influence on task performance, yet it had not exerted same influence on contextual and adaptive performance. In addition, even though, the outcome of both direct and indirect hypotheses are not consistent with both underpinning (i.e., SET and AMO) theories, it justified the condition for indirect relationship. As there in no direct positive relationship (between training & development practice on contextual and adaptive performance), we also expect that the indirect relationship may not be significant. But in the case of mediation of self efficacy on the relationship between training & development practice and task performance were the direct relationship is significant, the possible explanation for the non mediation influence of self efficacy can be related to employees' opportunistic behaviors (Kuvaas, 2008).

5.4.2 Mediation Effect of PSM

The third objective is to examine the mediating effects of PSM on the relationship between HRM practices (job autonomy and compensation) and employee task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance.

To begin with task performance, it is proved that PSM mediates the relationship between compensation practice and task performance in the Nigerian public sector organizations. This result suggested that the positive link between compensation and task performance pass through PSM. This implied that compensating public employees adequately influences them towards self sacrifice, compassion and become more committed in discharging task related performance (Perry & Wise, 1990).

Equally important, PSM mediates the relationship between job autonomy practice and task performance. Job autonomy provides employees the opportunity to choose when and how to complete a given task in organization (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The result suggested that allowing employees to enjoy more freedom and discretion to choose their own way and methods increases their motive to serve the public (PSM) which ultimately geared them towards high task performance (Perry & Wise, 1990). Therefore, in this situation PSM serve as the mechanism through which job autonomy exert influence on task performance in public sector organization (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015).

For contextual performance, here also PSM is found to have exerted mediating influence between compensation practice and contextual performance. This suggested that the influence of compensation practice on contextual performance is not direct but indirect through the influence of PSM. According to this finding, when employees perceived their organizational compensation practices as fairly rewarding in relation to organizational demands, it increases their desire to serve beyond what is prescribed in their job description and engaged in more contextual performance that benefit both individuals and organization (Giauque *et al*, 2013).

Additionally, PSM was found to exert mediating role on the relationship between job autonomy practice and contextual performance. This result also established that job autonomy has a direct and indirect influence on contextual performance via PSM. Thus, the mediation result demonstrates that job autonomy is an important predictor of PSM in the context of public sector, which inturn enables the employees to exhibit more contextual performance. This result is in line with some previous finding (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015) were PSM exerted a mediation influence. This further implied that freedom over scheduling jobs make employees to feel intrinsically moved toward been public centered and become more committed to the organization and altruistically exhibiting more extra role behaviors that benefit the organization.

With regards to adaptive performance, it is found that PSM positively mediates the relationship between compensation practice and adaptive performance. This result suggested that, compensation practice had an indirect influence on adaptive performance through the mechanism of PSM. This further suggested that compensating public employee appropriately encourage them to develop a sense of PSM (self sacrifice, compassion and be more committed to public interest), that in-turn moved them towards adaptive performance. This finding concurred the argument of Gould-Williams, Mostafa, and Bottomley (2014) that HRM practices including compensation enhances the employees' desire to serve the general public, which successively contributes to more positive employee outcome including adaptive performance.

Moreover, as hypothesized PSM mediated the positive relationship between job autonomy and adaptive performance. The result suggested that job autonomy has both direct and indirect effect on adaptive performance through PSM. This also implied that allowing employee more freedom in organization triggered them to be more PSM minded which accordingly shaped their action towards adaptive behaviors in organization.

Conclusively, the PLS SEM results revealed that PSM is an important mechanism that explained how and why compensation and job autonomy practices exerted influences on employee task, contextual and adaptive performance. These findings clearly supported that perception of job autonomy and good compensation practice increases employee PSM which subsequently promote task, contextual and adaptive performance. Although no previous study in the available literature on the mediation of PSM on compensation and job autonomy practices and employee task, contextual and adaptive performance relationship, these supported findings are consistent with the previous findings (Caillier, 2014; Gould-Williams *et al.*, 2014; Mostafa, 2014; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015) were PSM exerted a mediation influence.

5.4.3 Mediation Effect of Career Opportunity

The forth and also the last objective is set to examine the mediating effects of career opportunity on the relationship between HRM practices (communication and career planning) and employee task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance. Similar to the first and second mediating variables, six hypotheses on the mediation of career opportunity on the relationship between communication and career planning practices and employee task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance were also formulated and tested using PLS SEM path modeling.

To begin with task performance, the hypothesis that proposes career opportunity will mediate the relationship between communication practice and task performance was substantiated. The result of PLS SEM path coefficient proved that career opportunity exerts mediating effect between communication practice and task performance in Nigerian public sector. The result also implied that effective communication practice enables the employees to understand that the organization valued their contributions and care about their careers (Neves & Eisenberger, 2012). This inturn will strengthen their perception of career opportunities and consequently increases their effort to respond with more task performance (Lee & Lee, 2009).

On the contrary, career opportunity does not mediate the relationship between career planning practice and task performance. The PLS SEM result indicates that career opportunity is not a mediator between career planning and task performance in Nigerian public sector. The possible reason for this non significant mediation influence of career opportunity can be attributed to the nature of Nigerian public sector organizations were career opportunity like promotions are not always based on merit bur rather on connections and year of service (Okafor, 2005). Thus, instead of career opportunity to energize employee toward more task performance, the reverse is the case. This suggested that being selective in providing career opportunities to employees adversely affect their zeal to perform more in attaining assigned responsibilities. In this regard, scholars Mostafa *et al*, (2015) opined that such selectivity unintentionally undermine positive employee outcomes.

In relation to contextual performance, as expected, the PLS SEM result proved that career opportunity is a mediator on the relationship between communication practice and contextual performance. This result suggested that, effective communication between the mangament and employees increases their career opportunity (a form of organizational support), that subsquently leads to contextual (extrarole) performance (Neves & Eisenberger, 2012). Effective commincation between the employers to employees served as medium through which the organization informed the employees about the available opportunities. This also allowed the employees to understand that such opportunities within the organization is for their own good which accordingly move them towards extra performance.

Relatedly, career opportunity exerted mediating influence on the relationship between career planning practices and contextual performance. The finding implied that career planning practice allowed employees to perceive more career opportunities which subsquently geared them toward engaging in extra role performance. Related to that, Diao and Park, (2011) observed that through career planning practice, the organization shaped the career opportunities for employees by defining clear promotion and advancement opportunities which in turn, enable employee to responde with extra performance.

For adaptive performance, contrary to expectatations, hypotheses H9e and H9f that tested the mediation effect of career opportunity on the relationship between communication and career planning practices with adaptive performance were all not supported. This suggested that career opportunity is not a mediator on the relationship between communication and adaptive performance (H9e), and similarly, career planning practices and adaptive performance (H9f). The PLS SEM result indicates that, the path from career opportunity to adaptive performance (path *b*) is not significant. Suggesting that career opportunity do not influence adaptive performance in the Nigerian public sector. The likely reason can be attributed to the way and manner in which career opportunities are provided in the Nigerian public sector. Ojo, (2014) argued that in the Nigerian public sector, meritocracy in career advancement used to be sacrificed at the alter of tribalism, ethnicity, religious affinity and quota system.

Accordingly, based on the mediation results of career opportuinty as dicussed above, it can be concluded that career opportnity despite non signficant effect on the three hypothesized relationships, (specifically the relationship between communication and adaptive performance, career planning and task performance, and career planning and adaptive performance), is still an important mediator in the relationship between communication and task performance and similarly, communcation and contextual performance. More over, it also exerted a mediating effect on the relationship between career planning and contextual performance. Therefore, these significant relationships are consistent with AMO theory (Purcell, 2002) and organizational support theory (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). In addition, these results have concured previous findings (Reiche *et al.*, 2011; Wall *et al.*, 1999) were career opportunity exerted mediating influence.

In general, the results of all the three mediating variables (self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity) proved that public sector employees' ability (self efficacy), motivation (PSM) and opportunity (career opportunity) are important mechanism that unrevealed how and why the six HRM practices studied exerted positive and significant influence on employees' task, contextual and adaptive performance. This results are in line with some previous studies (Knies & Leisink, 2014; Liao, Toya, Lepak, & Hong, 2009; Tuuli & Rowlinson, 2009) were different operationalizations of AMO exerted mediation influence. In addition, it also provides empirical support on the assertion of Jiang *et al.* (2012) on the possibility of AMO to explain how and why HRM practices/policies influence employee performance.

5.5 Implications of the Study

The findings of this study have several important implications with regards to theory, practice as well as methodological perspectives. Therefore, each one of these three implications will be discuss separately.

5.5.1 Theoretical Implications

The first theoretical implication of the present study is that the study provided additional empirical support in the domain of organizational behavior, HRM practices and employee performance. Specifically, the study established the mediating effects of self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity which represent the three components of ability, motivation and opportunity (AMO) theory on the relationship between HRM practices and employee performance. Previous studies (Cho & Yoon, 2009; Gyensare & Asare, 2012; Jamil & Raja, 2011) were mainly focused on direct relationship between HRM practices and employee performance without explaining how (mechanism) the relationship came about. While, the few studies concerning the mediating effect of variables like commitment, job satisfaction and perceived organizational support are inconclusive (Alfes, Shantz, Truss, & Soane, 2013a). But, the current mediational study had theoretically provided a new additional knowledge regarding mediation by demonstrating that HRM practices have significant positive effects on employee task, contextual and adaptive performance through self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity.

More importantly, the findings of the current study have extended the understanding of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and ability, motivation, and opportunity (AMO) theory (Appealbuam *et al.,* 2000). Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) suggests that in social settings (i.e. organizations), for relationships to strive, the parties involved in the relationships needs to have the feeling of mutual benefits (or exchange) for each other. In which a good gesture from one party require a reciprocal from the receiving party. Using the SET as a theoretical basis, the study has empirically established that employees' perception of certain HRM practices create feelings of recognition and concern of the organization towards employees that subsequently oblige them to reciprocate by performing three forms of employee behaviors (i.e., task, contextual and adaptive performance). The study confirms that certain organizational HRM practices like job rotation; training & development; compensation; job autonomy; communication and career planning in organization make employees to feel they are recognized, valued and cared by the organization and therefore feel obliged to reciprocate with high task, contextual and adaptive performance in response to their perception regarding the practices.

Another important implication of the current study is that the findings extend the understanding of ability, motivation and opportunity (AMO) theory (Appealbum *et al*, 2000). The AMO theory suggested that performance at employee level is a function of employee ability, motivation and opportunity (Purcell 2003). Using AMO theory, the current study was able to established empirically that certain HRM practice like job rotation and training & development increases the employees' self efficacy (which here represented the ability component of AMO), which in turns allows employees the ability to perform both task, contextual and adaptive performance. Similarly, the findings established that compensation and job autonomy as HRM practices promotes PSM (which here represented the motivation component of AMO), which subsequently, influences the employees to perform both task contextual and adaptive performance. Also, the practice of open communication and effective career planning had been shown to influence career opportunity (which here represented the opportunity component of AMO), that subsequently led the employees to engaged in high task, contextual and adaptive performance. In general, the findings of current study had therefore validated the AMO theory by confirming that certain HRM practices do influenced employees ability, motivation and opportunity to engage in high task, contextual adaptive performance.

In relation to the above, the study also provides empirical evidence to Jiang *et al*, (2012) theoretical assertion that exploring the mediation of AMO will provide valuable contributions in understanding the mechanism (how) through which HRM practices operates to influence the performance of employees in organization. This study was able to provide empirical support through the application of self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity which grounded on AMO theory.

Additionally, in relation to SDT the present study indicated that perception of good HRM practices had a significant effect on self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity, and subsequently self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity had effect on employee task, contextual and adaptive performance. This implied that certain HRM practices have ability to satisfy employees' competence, relatedness and autonomy needs to become self determined which in turns result in more positive behaviors in form of task, adaptive and contextual performance.

Furthermore, the study provides empirical evidence with regard to the importance of distinguishing the three dimensions of employee performance. This indicated that task performance is different from contextual performance and adaptive performance. It also revealed that these three types of employee performance behavior (task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance) were not always influenced by the same HRM practices. As even the three (mediators) self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity affects these employee behaviors differently.

5.5.2 Implications for Management Practices

The present findings have provided several valuable implications for management practice. Specifically, the study will benefit managers in public and private organizations, practitioners as well as management/government officials of the local governments in Nigeria and beyond.

Firstly, the study empirically provides additional evidences on the significant relationship between HRM practices and employee performance, with mediation of self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity. In essence, the current results suggest that HRM practices are important catalyst that needs to be given more consideration in managing and promoting higher employee task, contextual and adaptive performance in organizations. Therefore, managers are encouraged to apply these practices in order to boost their employees' performance so as to attain the optimal level of performance.

Secondly, the present study has also revealed the importance of self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity as significant predictors of employee task, contextual and adaptive performance. Thus, the findings had provided yet another clue to the management of organizations which will be used in managing and enhancing employees' task, contextual and adaptive performance. Therefore, managers should appreciate the influence of self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity and, subsequently enhance their development among all employees in organization. In this regard, organizations can foster their employees self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity through the application of ability-enhancing (training and job rotation), motivation-enhancing (compensation and job autonomy) and opportunity-enhancing (communication and career planning) HRM practices as they are found to be very effective in predicting performance.

Thirdly, the study also provides an insight as to which HRM practice(s) should be considered and included by management in order to improve particular dimension of employee performance. For instance, the study established that some practices like training & development, job autonomy, job rotation and career planning are more useful in promoting task performance. While job autonomy and communication practices are shown to be more useful in influencing contextual performance. Similarly, career planning and job autonomy practices were strong predictors of adaptive performance. Therefore, managers can improved their employees' performance by adopting regular rotation of staff to different task positions and provides them with sufficient training & development opportunities. The rotation and training & development practices should not only focus on enhancing both task and non task related skill, knowledge and experience alone, but must also be based on organizational objective and individual needs. Providing employees with greater job autonomy and adequate compensation packages will also promote high performance. Relatedly, managers should encourage free flow of information (upward, downward and lateral), and develop good career planning strategies that will enable the employees to fulfilled their career aspirations and give their best to the organization.

5.5.3 Methodological Implications

On the methodological perspective, the present study contributes by providing a comprehensive method of measuring and assessing employee performance. Although some previous studies operationalized and measured employee performance as multi-dimensional construct, yet other group of studies measured employee performance as a uni-dimension (Akhter *et al.*, 2013; Shahzad *et al.*, 2008; Tessema & Soeters, 2006; Tiwari, 2011). As argued earlier, that measuring employee performance as a uni-dimensional construct had not comprehensively measured it (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Koopmans *et al.*, 2011), as each dimension had its own unique characteristics. For instance, Borman, Klimoski, and Ilgen (2003), provided that each of the three dimensions of employee performance exerts a unique contribution towards enhancing effectiveness in organization, as exhibiting task performance alone without contextual performance (like assisting other employees) will negatively affect organizational effectiveness. Similarly, high level of task behaviors without adaptive performance causes stagnation over a period of time that may result to inability to coup with changes, thus leading to deterioration of overall performance. Therefore, neglecting any dimension or merging their items in one construct is considered erroneous called bottom up approach (*see*, Hair *et al,* 2014). To address this methodological error, the present study measured employee performance as multi dimensional construct consisting three dimension of task, contextual and adaptive performance (Koopmans *et al.*, 2013; Koopmans *et al.*, 2011; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Motowildo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997).

Another methodological implication is concerned with measuring public service motivation (PSM) which is the second mediating variable in this study. Here also previous studies (Bellé, 2013; Mostafa, 2014; Wright *et al.*, 2012) measured PSM by summing up all the indicators of different dimensions to the main construct. Nevertheless, the major problem with this approach is that the items of different dimensions are merged together to the general construct thereby given an erroneous measure of the construct. As each dimension of PSM (i.e. compassion, self sacrifice, commitment to public interest and attraction to policy making) have separate items that measured different abstraction of PSM (the main construct). For example, compassion and self sacrifice are two distinct dimensions of PSM and their items are not interchangeable. Therefore, the four first order constructs that formed PSM (i.e. compassion, self sacrifice, commitment to public interest and attraction to policy making) are formative abstraction of PSM, which is the second order construct. Accordingly, merging their items to serve as reflective indicators of PSM is not appropriate method of measuring PSM construct. However, this approach (even though erroneous) has been employed in large number of studies. For instance, Hair *et al.* (2012) acknowledged that 55.26% formative models were mistakenly and wrongly been assessed by employing reflective criterion in previous studies.

Therefore, to avoid the aforementioned methodological mistake, the PSM in the present study was measured as a reflective- formative form of hierarchical component model [HCM] (Lohmöller, 2013). As previously discussed in section 4.9.5, the present study used repeated indicator approach by repeating all the items of the four first order constructs (compassion, self sacrifice, commitment to public interest and attraction to policy making) on the second order construct (PSM) in obtaining the variable scores of all the lower order components (*see*, Afthanorhan, 2014; Becker *et al.*, 2012). Consequently, as recommended by scholars (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014; Ringle, Sarstedt, & Straub, 2012a) the variable scores of all the four first order constructs (compassion, self sacrifice, commitment to public interest and attraction to policy making) served as a formative indicators of PSM (see, Figure 4.2 and 4.3). Based on this method, the four dimensions of APM, CPI, SS and CM were all found to be relatively and absolutely (in terms of both outer weights and outer loadings) contributing to the PSM (see, Table 4.11 in section 4.9.5). Thus, the present study methodologically contributed immensely by appropriately employing reflective-formative approach of HCM in measuring PSM which has been scarce in previous study of PLS SEM (Ringle *et al.*, 2012a).

Lastly, as recommended by scholars of PLS SEM (Hair *et al.*, 2011; Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014; Lowry & Gaskin, 2014) that when a formative constructs and a reflective constructs are both part of structural model, coupled with many constructs and indicators that formed complex model, then PLS SEM is the most appropriate. This study employed PLS SEM been considered to be the most appropriate method. The study considered the complex nature of the model were both formative and reflective construct are involved coupled with several indicators. Therefore, employing PLS SEM in the assessment of both measurement (outer) and structural (inner) models add to our understanding on the best way of employing PLS SEM as against CB-SEM in the analysis (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). This study will also serve as an example to researcher in understanding how to appropriately utilize the PLS SEM.

5.6 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Although this study contributed immensely to the theory, method as well as practical perspectives, yet like other empirical studies it has some limitations that need to be considered. Though the study limitations can also be considered as a ground for further research, still the findings of the study has to be interpreted with taken into cognizance the study's limitations.

Firstly, the study considered only six HRM practices (job rotation, training & development, compensation, job autonomy, communication and career planning) as the main predictors of employee performance. Though previous studies have shown that several factors including personal, job related and other organizational factors do predicts employee performance apart from HRM practices (which only represent one aspect within the organizational factors). This indicated that the present study is limited to only one segment of organizational factors. In view of this limitation, future study that will incorporate personal, job related and other organizational factors like leadership, organizational culture etc and extend this framework may increase the percentage of variance explained.

Secondly, cross sectional method of data collection was adopted in which all the data for the study was collected over a period of twelve weeks consecutively. Although cross sectional design was applied due to the specified expected time of completion of study (i.e. three years). Nevertheless, cross sectional design do not allow for causal inferences to be determine. Therefore, future study by applying longitudinal design will provide more insight regarding changes in the direction of causality.

Thirdly, employee performance was measured using self report assessments. Although self assessment or reporting is consistent with previous studies on employee performance (Alfes *et al.*, 2013b; Karatepe, Uludag, Menevis, Hadzimehmedagic, & Baddar, 2006; Vandenabeele, 2009) as it allows for employees' anonymity, still the application of self reporting is considered to be linked with the possibility of issues like common method variance (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003) as well as social desirability bias (Dodaj, 2012; Salgado, 2005). To minimized problems associated with common method biases in this research several techniques were employed (*see*, section 4.5). Nevertheless, future studies that will combine several ratings like supervisors ratings, peer/subordinate ratings may also reduce the possibilities of social desirability and CMV. Additionally, Even though researchers demonstrate that using subjective measures is valid and reliable, yet is considered susceptible to judgmental biases (*see,* Salgado, 2005), employing objective measures in measuring employee performance, HRM practices, PSM, self efficacy and career planning instead of perception may also reduce CMV.

Lastly, this study only focuses on sample drawn from the public sector organizations located in Nigerian north western region (specifically Jigawa state). Therefore, future studies in other settings especially in the private sector organizations will provide a good avenue for comparative analysis and possible generalization.

5.7 Conclusion

The primary objective of this study centered on examining the direct and mediating influence of self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity on the relationship between HRM practices (job rotation, training & development, compensation, job autonomy, communication and career planning) and employee task, contextual and adaptive performance in the Nigerian public sector organizations. The study contributes by extending the extant literature on the significant influence of HRM practices, self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity on employee task, contextual and adaptive performance. The study offered empirical evidences that supported the theoretical assumptions upon which the study was drawn. The study empirically substantiates 24 out of the 36 hypotheses tested, thereby providing answers to all the four main research questions in spite of identified limitations.

Although some studies had examined the influence of HRM practices on employee performance, the present study extended the extant literature by addressing the identified theoretical gaps through integration of self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity as mediating variables that explained the reasons (why and how) the HRM practices exert influence on employee task, contextual and adaptive performance. Specifically, the study offered empirical evidence in which the six HRM practices (job rotation, training & development, compensation, job autonomy, communication and career planning), self efficacy, PSM and career opportunity jointly explained 63 percent of variance in task performance, 63 percent of variance in contextual performance and also another 63 percent of variance in adaptive performance respectively. Additionally, this study provides additional methodological implication on how to measure complex model that comprises formative, reflective constructs, many items and hierarchical component model (HCM) through the application of PLS SEM path modeling.

Conclusively, the study disclosed that the influence of HRM practices on performance do not confined only to the organizational level of analysis and private sector organizations in Western and Asian countries alone, but is also empirically evident at the employee level of analysis and public sector organizations across different cultures including Nigeria which is Africa's most populous country.

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APPENDIX A

RESEARCH QUESTINNAIRE

A STUDY ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE

Dear Participant,

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research.

I would appreciate if you could answer the questions carefully as the information you provide will influence the accuracy and the success of this research. It will take no longer than 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. All answers will be treated with strict confidence and will be used for the purpose of the study only.

If you have any questions regarding this research, you may address them to me at the contact details below.

Thank you for your cooperation and the time taken in answering this questionnaire.

Yours sincerely,

ABUBAKAR TABIU
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Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business
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SECTION ONE

INSTRUCTION: *Please read each of the following items and indicate whether you agree or disagree with each of the given statement. Please indicate your choice by circling the number in the range given.*

HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I am satisfied that job rotation has led employees to advanced learning	1	2	3	4	5
2. Since coming to this organization, I have developed positive attitude towards learning	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am confident that job rotation has increased our efficiency in learning	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am fully aware that job rotations is a tool for career development	1	2	3	4	5
5. I have accumulated a lot of experience through job rotation	1	2	3	4	5
6. Job rotation has promoted communication between employees	1	2	3	4	5
7. I believe that job rotation has improved my job stability	1	2	3	4	5
8. I am confident that job rotation policy has achieved effective results in my organization	1	2	3	4	5
9. I am confident that job rotation has promoted health of employees in my organization	1	2	3	4	5
10. I am aware that job rotation has not achieved effective results in my organization	1	2	3	4	5
11. I am confident that job rotation does not create effective results	1	2	3	4	5
12. The contents and types of training programs offered in my organization are satisfactory	1	2	3	4	5
13. The amount and duration of training programmes offered in my organization are satisfactory	1	2	3	4	5
14. In my organization many non-technical programmes have already been systematize	1	2	3	4	5

15. Compared to other organizations, extensive training programmes are provided for employees in their jobs in my organization	1	2	3	4	5
16. In my organization, training programs are conducted by professionals and experienced managers or trainers	1	2	3	4	5
17. In my organization, many technical training programmes have already been systematized	1	2	3	4	5
18. In my compensation is decided on the basis of competence or ability of employee	1	2	3	4	5
19. My compensation is directly linked to my performance	1	2	3	4	5
20. My organization offers Attractive compensation system	1	2	3	4	5
21. My salary reflects the standard of living	1	2	3	4	5
22. Performance is an important factor in determining the incentives and compensation of employees	1	2	3	4	5
23. My salary comparable to the other public and private organizations	1	2	3	4	5
24. I am allowed to decide how to go about getting my job done (the methods to use)	1	2	3	4	5
25. I am able to choose the way to go about my job (the procedures to utilize)	1	2	3	4	5
26. I am free to choose the methods to use in carrying out my work	1	2	3	4	5
27. I have control over the scheduling of my work	1	2	3	4	5
28. I have some control over the sequencing of my work activities (when I do what)	1	2	3	4	5
29. My job is such that I can decide when to do particular work activities	1	2	3	4	5

30. My job allows me to modify the normal way we are evaluated so that I can emphasize some aspects of my job and play down others	1	2	3	4	5
31. I am able to modify what my job objectives are (what I am supposed to accomplish)	1	2	3	4	5
32. I have some control over what I am supposed to accomplish (my job objectives)	1	2	3	4	5
33. My organization provides sufficient amount of information to me	1	2	3	4	5
34. The information provided to me by my organization is very useful in discharging my duties	1	2	3	4	5
35. I understand the information communicated to me by my Head of Department	1	2	3	4	5
36. My Head of Department share and respond to information in a timely manner	1	2	3	4	5
37. My Head of Department actively listens to other viewpoints	1	2	3	4	5
38. My organization utilizes different communication channels	1	2	3	4	5
39. My organization prefers an internal employee when vacancy occurs	1	2	3	4	5
40. My organization plans for career and development for me as an employee	1	2	3	4	5
41. I am aware of my career path	1	2	3	4	5
42. I have clear career paths	1	2	3	4	5
43. My personal and organizational growth needs are matched	1	2	3	4	5
44. Promotion is done based on merit	1	2	3	4	5
45. My career aspirations are known by my immediate supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
46. I have more than one potential position for promotion	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION TWO

INSTRUCTION: *Please read each of the following items and indicate whether you agree or disagree with each of the given statement. Please indicate your choice by* ***circling*** *the* ***number*** *in the range given*

	CAREER OPPORTUNITY	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1.	There are career opportunities within my organization that are attractive to me	1	2	3	4	5
2.	There are job opportunities available within my organization that are of interest to me	1	2	3	4	5
3.	My organization offers many job opportunities that match my career goals	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION THREE

INSTRUCTION: *Please read each of the following items and indicate whether you agree or disagree with each of the given statement. Please indicate your choice by* ***circling*** *the* ***number*** *in the range given*

	EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	My quantity of work is higher than average	1	2	3	4	5
2.	My quality of work is much higher than average	1	2	3	4	5
3.	My efficiency is much higher than average	1	2	3	4	5
4.	My standard of work quality are higher than average standard for this job	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I strives for higher quality work than required	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I upholds highest professional standards	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I have good ability to perform core job task	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I have good judgment when performing core job task	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I perform my core job task accurately	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I have job knowledge with reference to core job task	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I am creative when performing core task	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I comply with instructions even when supervisors are not present.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I cooperate with others in the team.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I persist in over-coming obstacles to complete a task	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I display proper official appearance and bearing	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I volunteer for additional duty	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I follow proper procedures and avoid unauthorized shortcuts.	1	2	3	4	5

18. I look for a challenging assignment	1	2	3	4	5
19. I offer to help others accomplish their work	1	2	3	4	5
20. I pay close attention to important details	1	2	3	4	5
21. I defend the supervisor’s decisions	1	2	3	4	5
22. I render proper organizational courtesy	1	2	3	4	5
23. I support and encourage a coworker with a problem	1	2	3	4	5
24. I take the initiative to solve a work task	1	2	3	4	5
25. I exercise personal discipline and self-control	1	2	3	4	5
26. I tackle a difficult work assignment enthusiastically	1	2	3	4	5
27. I voluntarily do more than the job requires to help others or contribute to organization effectiveness	1	2	3	4	5
28. I worked at keeping my job knowledge up-to-date	1	2	3	4	5
29. I worked at keeping my job skills up-to-date	1	2	3	4	5
30. I have demonstrated flexibility	1	2	3	4	5
31. I was able to cope well with difficult situations and setbacks at work	1	2	3	4	5
32. I recovered fast, after difficult situations or setbacks at work	1	2	3	4	5
33. I came up with creative solutions to new problems	1	2	3	4	5
34. I was able to cope well with uncertain and unpredictable situations at work	1	2	3	4	5
35. I easily adjusted to changes in my work	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION FOUR

INSTRUCTION: *Please read each of the following items and indicate whether you agree or disagree with each of the given statement. Please indicate your choice by* ***circling*** *the* ***number*** *in the range given*

PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1. I am interested in making public programs that are beneficial for my country or the community I belong to	1	2	3	4	5
2. Sharing my views on public policies with others is attractive to me	1	2	3	4	5
3. Seeing people get benefits from the public program I have been deeply involved in brings me a great deal of satisfaction.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I consider public service my civic duty.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Meaningful public service is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I would prefer seeing public officials do what is best for the whole community even if it is against my interests.	1	2	3	4	5
7. It is difficult for me to contain my feelings when I see people in distress.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I am often reminded by daily events how dependent we are on one another	1	2	3	4	5
9. I feel sympathetic to the plight of the underprivileged	1	2	3	4	5
10. To me, patriotism includes seeing to the welfare of others	1	2	3	4	5
11. Serving other citizens would give me a good feeling even if no one paid me for it.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements.	1	2	3	4	5

13. I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society	1	2	3	4	5
14. I believe in putting duty before self.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION FOUR

INSTRUCTION: *Please read each of the following items and indicate whether you agree or disagree with each of the given statement. Please indicate your choice by* ***circling*** *the* ***number*** *in the range given*

SELF EFFICACY	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself	1	2	3	4	5
2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them	1	2	3	4	5
3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks	1	2	3	4	5
7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well	1	2	3	4	5

PERSONAL INFORMATION

This part contains few demographic information pertaining to yourself. ***Please tick (√)*** *in the box or write your response in the space provided.*

1. **My gender:**

☐ Male ☐ Female

2. **My marital status:**

☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced / Separated / Widowed

3. **My highest academic qualification:**

☐ Certificate ☐ Master
☐ Diploma/NCE ☐ PhD
☐ Degree/HND ☐ Others, please specify: ______________________

4. **Number of years with present organization:**

☐ Less than a year ☐ 1 – 3 years
☐ 4 – 7 years ☐ More than 7 years

5. **Present position:**

☐ GL 07-08 ☐ GL 09-10
☐ GL 12-13 ☐ GL 14-15

6. **My current local Government:**

Please specify:

------THANK YOU----

APPENDIX B:

Results of Missing Values Replacement

S/N	Result Variable	Number of Replaced Missing Values	Case Number of Non-Missing Values		N of Valid Cases	Creating Function
			First	Last		
1	TRN01_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(TRN01)
2	TRN02_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(TRN02)
3	TRN05_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(TRN05)
4	CMP04_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(CMP04)
5	CMP05_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(CMP05)
6	AUT02_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(AUT02)
7	AUT05_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(AUT05)
8	AUT09_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(AUT09)
9	COM03_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(COM03)
10	COM06_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(COM06)
11	CPL05_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(CPL05)
12	CPL08_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(CPL08)
13	TSK03_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(TSK03)
14	TSK07_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(TSK07)
15	TSK10_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(TSK10)
16	CTX01_1	2	1	265	265	SMEAN(CTX01)
17	CTX03_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(CTX03)
18	CTX07_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(CTX07)
19	CTX12_1	2	1	265	265	SMEAN(CTX12)
20	CTX15_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(CTX15)
21	PSM12_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(PSM12)
22	PSM13_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(PSM13)
23	PSM14_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(PSM14)
24	COM04_1	1	1	265	265	SMEAN(COM04)