

Human Resource Management in Unstable Societies: An African Perspective

Dr. Akim Ajieth Buny

College of Management Sciences, Dr. John Garang University, Bor, South Sudan.

E-mail: akim.bunny@gmail.com

Tel: +211913884000

Abstract

Despite increasing interest among academic scholars to understand the role of human resource management (HRM) in both developed and developing countries, there is a paucity of studies and critical analysis of a comparative analysis between the HRM in conflict setting and HRM in non-conflict setting. This paper provides a needed critical evaluation of the literature and research, and identifies an agenda for analytic investigation. HRM policies and practices in the conflict setting should be viewed differently to those of non-conflict setting, Western setting in particular. This has implications for policy regarding people management in both conflict and non-conflict environments. There are also potential issues of human resource differing qualities in the multi-ethnic social orders of sub-Saharan Africa, contending that ethnicity constitutes an essential measurement of diversity. The impact of ethnicity on work relations in authoritative life in this area is inspected and whether the talk of overseeing diversity could be connected to oversee such differences. The research contends that, if the ethnic differing qualities found in African-based organizations are very much dealt with, this could upgrade hierarchical amicability and adequacy. Further, if organizations operating in non-conflict environment, Sub-Saharan Africa in particular, intentionally grasp methodologies of “inclusion” instead of “exclusion” in dealing with their human asset and welcome the inherent employee ‘distinction’, it could enhance the picture and viability of organizations working there. In the meantime, there is a need to adjust such ways to deal with the social specificity of local connections.

Keywords: HRM in Conflict Setting, HRM in Non-Conflict Setting, Sub-Saharan Africa

Introduction

Employee recruitment, retention, motivation, and empowerment have likewise been real focus of the human resource programs research groups in Sub-Saharan Africa (Samuel & Chipunza 2009; Chiboiwa et al. 2010; Horwitz et al. 2010). Although national governments have set up diverse maintenance and recruitment methodologies, the viability of these systems is not regularly assessed. One group investigated this in Zambia. In spite of considering nineteen human resource methodologies currently being executed, the examination did not recognize a solid relationship between any of these and work satisfaction or probability of leaving their employment. Actually, the health specialists’ attributes and the conditions in which they get themselves might have more weight. The legislature of Zambia currently spent time refining their HR for employee retention techniques (Ranson 2007). Specialists likewise concentrated on Burkina Faso’s regionalized health work force enlistment arrangement and scrutinized the sustainability of the strategy given the absence of motivations. The analysts additionally investigated which motivating force packages would be best at holding competent workers in rural territories. Likewise, with the Zambia group, competent workers qualities and HRM practices were

recognized as having an impact on maintenance, although particular things incorporated into the motivation packages were favored (e.g. procurement of housing). The task-shifting and maintenance and enrollment research directed inside of the connection of the human resource program has revealed essential ranges of center for refining current flow HR for health procedures, and ways to deal with assess whether these are delivering the proposed results. They likewise raised essential issues to consider. Maintenance and enrollment systems might not have an impact in the event that they are outlined without considering the requirements or inclinations of health specialists. Similarly, task shifting is not as a matter of course an answer in itself. It should be supplemented by appropriate preparation, support, supervision, checking and assessment, and a reasonable comprehension of extent of practice. This shows a requirement for clear rules, regulation, and acknowledgment of the work of undertaking moved professional workers (Kruk 2010).

The overall objectives of this study are:

- To provide a comparative analysis of human resource management in unstable and stable societies.
- To provides a needed critical evaluation of the literature and research, and identifies an agenda for further analytic inquiry.

Method

This section provides a review of literature from a variety of sources including academic journals, books, conference papers, professional association journals, newsletters and newspapers and on-line articles. The methodology was designed to answer the research questions, offers explanations for the choice of paradigm, and to be flexible enough to respond to questions and issues raised during the review of literature. Document in the fields of human resource management, both in unstable and stable societies, were reviewed. Furthermore, relevant sources such as review of relevant literature and government reports, newspaper reports and departmental and organization reports were also utilized. An assessment, based on academic literature, is thereafter made on the apparent link between HRM policies and practices and employee retention in both stable and unstable contexts.

Literature Review

HRM in general perspective

In unstable societies, extreme interruption to HRM activities related to employee retention perpetually leaves people at high danger of staff turnover and in more noteworthy need of effective management practices than more steady resource nations. The professional workforce is regularly an immediate casualty of contention (Buwembo 2014). Powerful HRM procedures and arrangements are basic to tending to the systemic impacts of contention on the workforce, for example, flight of human capital, bungles in the middle of abilities and administration needs, breakdown of pre-administration preparing, and absence of HR information (Roome & Martineau 2014). As the global community looks towards accomplishing all inclusive retention scope, conflict settings are seen as especially troublesome connections in which to acknowledge better HRM frameworks results, for example, enhanced retention, value, social incorporation, and trust. In 2013, a record aggregate of 45 rough clashes happened globally (Tulloch et al. 2011). Conflict influenced organizations regularly endure extreme disturbances to sickness

control programs, interference of medications and therapeutic supplies, annihilation of infrastructure, displacement of people, and movement of workers (WHO 2005). However, after conflicts ends, populations remain lopsidedly at danger of irresistible ailments and in significantly more prominent need of satisfactory HRM than non-conflict settings. Further, in conflict societies, HRM pointers are essentially more terrible than in non-conflict societies.

About half of the world's extreme employee turnover happen in delicate states, yet just 2 out of 35 states considered delicate are on track to meet the skills retention focus as targeted by WHO. In the developing number of conflict-affected nations, where workers retention frameworks and professional aid workers are frequently casualties of contention, there is a dire need to see how HRM can add to retention frameworks reconstructing. In any case, the assignment of modifying retention frameworks with skilled and evenhandedly dispersed professional workers is frequently extended and full of complexities (Andriamanjato 2014). Conflict areas regularly move through three expansive and covering stages: crisis and stabilization, recovery and recuperation, and peace and improvement (Tulloch et al. 2011). However, reproduction is occasionally a straight process and around 40 percent of nations backslide into struggle. HR recruitment and retention strategies are exceptionally reliant on the capacity of governments to first re-set up security and compromise; revamp trust in state establishments; advance solidarity; and re-establish the tenet of law. Literature on recruitment and staff retention have concentrated predominantly on the challenges of recruiting prepared or qualified workers amid the early conflict period. To start with, it is regular for HRM activities to wind up focuses amid conflicts, bringing about assaults against professional workers and therefore flight of human capital (e.g. Rwanda, Mozambique, and Cambodia) (Lehmann et al. 2008). In a few cases, flight of skilled workers might proceed with post-conflict on political grounds (e.g. East Kosovo and Timor) (Tulloch et al. 2011). However, front line skilled workers quantities might likewise lessen, further hindering endeavors to resume humanitarian and development aid service delivery (Roome & Martineau 2014).

Second, the breakdown of HRM activities amid conflicts commonly creates mismatches in the middle of abilities and administration needs. Pavignani (2003) contended that HR recruitment and retention approaches develop amid struggle and contend specifically with the general HRM part to recruit prepared competent workforce. Warring groups might utilize forcibly recruited or politically subsidiary specialists to run their own particular organization. At the point when conflict closes, general society segment might absorb these qualified workers to meet quick administration needs. In any case, this is frequently finished with little respect for the suitability of specialists' aptitudes and the nature of preparing got amid conflicts (Buwembo 2014). Expatriates are regularly gotten by nonprofit organizations such as INGOs and MNCs. They help organizations to fill crevices in local development workforce. Although frequently more eager than local staff to work in these regions, common issues in expatriate employment incorporate high turnover; variable aptitudes and capabilities; hatred over control and compensation differentials; and inability to exchange abilities to national staff (Andriamanjato 2014).

Third, WHO attests that compelling initiative is basic to reconstructing workforce supplies in conflict and post-conflict setups. Great administration guarantees the dedication of real performing actors in achieving an agreement on human resource planning criteria and principles, compensation scales, and contracts. In any case, frail administration and political obstruction in recruitment of professional workers frameworks as often as possible undermines early staff retention endeavors. In Afghanistan, the Priority Reform and Restructuring (PRR) process setup in 2004 was proposed to encourage recruitment and retention of capable staff over the

administration utilizing overhauled sets of expectations and modified compensation scales. However, political impedance, for example, nepotism and support turned into an obstruction to achievement. Thus, when the war started in Rwanda, services were dispensed to political groups; however party individuals filled lower level positions with unfit and unpracticed staff. The circumstance enhanced barely when the Public Service Commission was built up in 2002 to upgrade objectivity and trustworthiness in selection, recruitment and retention of qualified workers (Collier 2004).

Last, the accessibility of HR information is imperative to staff retention and workforce arranging choices in the conflict period. Nevertheless, as conflict frequently brings about harm to services and wellbeing office base, such information are regularly inadequate. Luckily, because of Timor-Leste, manual health faculty records were safeguarded from the Department of Health as it was being smoldered (Tulloch et al. 2011). These were later exchanged to a modernized database to confirm capabilities for workforce arranging (Fujita 2011). Wellbeing dominant presences in Palestine executed a thorough automated faculty data framework with data on staff sorts, numbers, distribution, and capabilities, which supported staff retention and arranging processes (Okumu 2003; Padaki 2007). Notwithstanding, Smith and Kolehmainen (2016) contended that excitement for such frameworks must be coordinated with an unmistakable spotlight on the most proficient method to utilize and disperse this data to enhance recruitment, retention and workforce planning. Inadequately managed task related clashes can without much of a stretch get personal—producing hostility, enmity, and antagonism. These “passionate” conflicts meddle with work connections, make stress, polarize groups, and are a central point in absenteeism and deliberate turnover. Occasionally, they prompt grievances and lawful activities. At the point when conflicts are overseen usefully, then again, individuals are liable to feel that they are listened to and treated decently, which decreases personalization of contention, turnover, absenteeism, and formal protestations. Here once more, the money related investment funds from diminished turnover and non-attendance alone-also, the advantages of stable working connections, hierarchical steadfastness, and the held information of experienced employees—might legitimize the expense of a conflict setting HR retention strategies (Goma 2014).

HRM in Sub-Saharan Africa

The general literature on HRM in Sub-Saharan Africa is limited and where available, it is not updated and mainly concludes that HRM hardly exist (Mpabanga 2004; Horwitz et al. 2015). The major reasons include lack of colonialists’ readiness to prepare African managers to think strategically, a culture that does not promote the spirit of creativity, innovation and risk taking. This is coupled with a long history of dominance of bureaucratic public enterprises and strong political influence (Budhwar & Debrah 2004; Kamoche et al. 2012). However, today the focus is more on institutionalization of Western styles of management through sectoral reforms and the creating of an enabling environment for INGOs and multinational corporations, which are emerging with some kind of a mixed management culture (Itika 2011). More than half of the world’s conflicts have taken place and continue to take place in Sub-Saharan Africa. In 1990s, one out of every three countries on the African continent was involved in a conflict of some kind. Today, there are more refugees in Africa than anywhere in the world (Johnson 2000; Prah 2004). This lack of peace and stability and cultural differences have aggravated the problem of the staff turnover among expatriate managers (Tessema & Ng’oma 2009). The post-world war II political history of many African countries is marked by conflict and frequent military coups. This is particularly true of the newly independent nations. In Sub-Saharan Africa, forty-three countries

got their independence between 1956 and 1983, with South Sudan as the last one in 2011. However, most of them experienced political turmoil of some kind, during the same period. Instability is typical of authoritarian rule and many African countries lack democratic responsibility and pressure (Tessema & Ng'oma 2009). Sub-Saharan African countries in general are characterized by low predictability of events, volatile and unstable political environments and corrupt legal practices (Leonard & Grobler 2006). In the conflict and culturally different settings like Sub-Saharan Africa, organizations like INGOs may even find recruiting and retaining people challenging than in non-conflict and non-culturally different environments like the West.

The work environment in Sub-Saharan Africa is often challenging and in many cases poses a threat to personal safety (Ehrenreich & Elliott 2004; Analoui & Samour 2012). HRM in Sub-Saharan Africa may need to deal with the consequences of human and capital flight, death of professional workers, lack of senior management, poor productivity, inconsistent or poor availability of some categories of workers, for example, expatriates (Debebe 2007; Ehrenreich & Elliott 2004). In some African countries and regions, for example, Darfur, Mozambique and Congo, INGOs and MNCs workers themselves have become targets of war (Cliff & Noormahomed 2008; Kwaja 2010; Namakula & Witter 2014). In Sub-Saharan Africa, difficulties can emerge in recruitment and people's willingness to work in some locations or professions (Stilwell et al. 2003; Birt & Winternitz 2004; Dockel & Coetzee 2006). Donors and stakeholders also recognize this problem and find this can lower the standards of expatriates recruited, INGOs and MNCs under pressure to recruit personnel rapidly may make compromise and lower their selection criteria (Loquercio et al. 2006; Tulloch et al. 2011). All this has an impact on the situation of the skilled workers. Conflict and culturally different settings also create contraction of resources as they are redirected towards security and logistics concerns, while a dependence on external sources of funding increases (Ehrenreich & Elliott 2004).

Decision to continue to operate by INGOs and MNCs workers in Sub-Saharan Africa is usually contingent on effective HRM approaches being in place to ensure adequate levels of pay, work-life-balance, equipment and tools, and a good managerial structures, some or all of which are absent in conflict and culturally different settings (Macrae et al. 1996; Shuey et al. 2003). The conditions required to ensure an adequate level of skilled workers' recruitment and retention are often lacking in conflict and culturally different settings and staff turnover and poor performance may exist (Newbrander & Debevoise 2007; Devkota & Teijlingen 2010). An important reason for this is that HR systems are likely to have broken down and the basis on which these HRM work will be redundant. However, other traditional HRM practices such as job descriptions and traditional performance measures may become irrelevant in dangerous and culturally different contexts (Ferrinho & Dal 2003). Organizations operating in high-risk and culturally different settings may influence staff recruitment and retention by drafting new job descriptions to reflect immediate needs, ensuring health and safety and providing pre deployment training, but if these are not coordinated properly, staff recruitment and retention is difficult to be realized (Barnett & Weiss 2008; Chiboiwa et al. 2010).

Individual motivation is also an important component of effective HRM in nonprofit organizations, especially INGDOs operating in non-Western setting. However, conflict and culturally different settings like Africa are likely to undermine the professional conscience and 'intrinsic' influence to do their jobs well (Mathauer & Imhoff 2006). Poor motivation influences staff productivity and practices in all settings. In some settings, organizations influence staff recruitment and retention through performance-based pay initiatives, including in post-conflict

settings such as Rwanda, Eritrea, and Sierra Leone (Humayoun 2011; Logie & Ndagije 2008). Nonprofit organizations such as INGOs are however dependent on having appropriate and effective HRM in place to influence the decisions of skilled workers to remain. This was observed in East Timor where despite difficult circumstances, locals and expatriates were reportedly influenced not only by their religious ethos and beliefs to help those in need, but effective HRM approaches employed by their organizations to retain them in such a context (Martins et al. 2006). However, in conflict and culturally different settings, for example, Sub-Saharan Africa, recruiting and retaining professional staff remains a challenge.

In addition, in Sub-Saharan Africa, it is possible to identify several impacting factors, each posing significant constraints for INGOs and MNCs and their workers. The work environment in which INGOs and MNCs operate in Sub-Saharan Africa is context-sensitive. Several years of civil war and decades of political, social and economic instability contributed to high staff turnover for INGOs and MNCs workers. Indeed, one of the most discouraging results of the conflict and cultural differences can be found in the country's extreme poor living and working conditions, extreme insecurity exacerbated by the presence of armed oppositions groups, and not being familiar with the local culture and language. Cross-cultural issues are among the most central and most persistent factors that influence INGOs HRM approaches in Africa. Operating internationally, INGO usually face a lot of cross-cultural challenges such as understanding differences in communication patterns and styles, values, principles, and different paths of decision-making (Nyambegera et al. 2000). National culture and traditions may affect HRM in terms of transferring related national characteristics to the business life (Anakwe 2002). Behavioral types or attitudes of top managers and HR managers are under the influence of local culture therefore it has direct or indirect impacts on human resources and retention approaches (Jackson, T 2004). Socio-cultural factors also affect HRM approaches by changing ways of response of management for local sensitivities. Cultural values should be taken into consideration by organizations so that, not to confront public reaction for their actions (Nyambegera et al. 2002). Conflict and culturally different settings HRM may need to deal with the consequence of professional workers turnover, death of aid workers, and a lack of senior management, poor productivity, and poor availability of some categories of professional groups, for example, expatriates (Ehrenreich & Elliott 2004; Vasquez 2014). Organizations operating in Western countries are often dependent on having appropriate and effective HRM practices in place which are to influence the decisions of talented workers to remain (Paul 2004; Shaw et al. 2009), but often ineffective in conflict and culturally different settings like Sub-Saharan Africa.

Factors Affecting HRM in Unstable Societies

Financial Constraints

Numerous examiners have contended that given the nearly substantial work required of professional workers in developing countries (Stilwell et al. 2003; Tessema et al. 2009; Kiggundu 2016), it is hence not astonishing that the organizations are encountering serious retention and turnover issues. Numerous researchers have a tendency to concur that disappointment with pay is one of the main sources of staff turnover in nonprofit organizations in developing countries and that there is a solid relationship in the middle of turnover and pay (Tulloch et al. 2011). The period by which an employee contract is terminated determines the willingness of an employee to work for a nonprofit sector. Short-term contracts attracts high levels of staff turnover as compared to long employments contracts (Ranson 2007). Financially constrained organizations utilize moderately more workforce than physical capital in light of the

fact that educated representatives give more proficient financing than clueless capital suppliers (donors). It shows that compelled organizations cannot without much of a stretch pull in new workers to replace existing staff. Their more prominent representative maintenance adjusts proprietor specialist motivating forces and urges workers to make firm-particular ventures. Compelled firms, in any case, slowly experience the ill effects of their failure to replace low-quality specialists, such that their relative work efficiency diminishes after some time (Kevany 2012).

Cultural Factors

In spite of the fact that analysts have speculated that there exists a curvilinear relationship between occupation execution and voluntary turnover, their examination has been tried in the United States or culturally comparative Switzerland (Haar 2012; Collier 2004). Through an investigation of the job turnover relationship from a multinational administration situated association in 24 nations, it shows that the general relationship between job performance and turnover is comparative across nations yet the points of interest of that relationship change in different nations. Utilizing 4 social measurements in group cooperation, power separation, vulnerability shirking, and performance orientation - we find that cultural components change the general likelihood of voluntary turnover and impact the level of curvilinearity in the execution turnover relationship (Collier 2004). At the point when societies collide, it results in very aggressive staff involved ostracize administration and local workers. The troubles in culturally diverse interchanges has brought about strained performance. High expatriate turnover causes rising strain between expatriate and local staff making the association experience cultural myopia rising number of complains and low worker inspiration. The result is low staff turnover and animosity among workers in a non-profit organization. Therefore, any organization should work towards ensuring that the HR department challenges are addressed so that staff turnover can be maintained at satisfactory levels. Without the challenges, many HR sectors could keep staff all year round (Haar 2012).

To begin with, socio-cultural models attribute the inadequacy of HRM practices in Sub-Saharan Africa to the social convictions, qualities, attitudes, and practices that condition African managers and specialists to poor dispositions to work, low inspiration, and absence of activity, unnecessary religiosity, and low profitability (Buwembo 2014). Second, verifiable models contend that the acts of frontier undertakings were not arranged toward upgrading adequacy of HRM practices in Africa. The negative responses of employees to the burden of a European arrangement of work that denied them of their independence amid frontier times exacerbated these negative responses amid the post-colonial time (Haar 2012). In a few communities, cultures and gender roles might intensify misdistribution of skilled workers after conflict. In Africa, in spite of the presence of a formal organization framework for graduates of management training program, rejection of pre-allocated employments is regular – even among dedicated employees. Skilled and experienced women are frequently cautioned not to acknowledge pre-assigned out occupations in regions of unraveling unsteadiness since they are female and at danger of being killed (Holtom et al. 2008).

The impacts of pay on skilled workers and other human resources can be significant and distinctive institutional actors might induce unintended results in the work market. INGOs and support offices, for instance, can without much of a stretch draw in general health laborers utilizing lucrative work packages. Rivalry between organizations further bends pay differentials and quickens brain drain from people in general area. This causes huge movements in labor

market elements and diminishes the quantity of skilled workers accessible to modify routine general employee recruitment practices – which seemingly ought to be the fundamental objective of post-conflict reproduction. Numerous lowly paid professional workers not absorbed by INGOs and support organizations moonlight in private work on, educating or research to supplement their occupational earnings (Haar 2012). Levels of administration provided to the public employer perpetually endure as an aftereffect of low profitability and absenteeism. Weak administration and poor regulation in the early post-conflict period regularly makes space for nonprofit organizations to multiply, wildly now and again (e.g. Angola). In Mozambique, the Ministry of Health staff development plan had neglected to perceive that the pre-war predominance of the public segment would be tested by a developing business sector for private medical services (Pfeiffer 2003). In Somalia, the administration's failure to pay standard and focused compensations has constrained capacity building in public health offices and dangers risking projects to prepare and support health employees (Mwangi 2017).

Working and Living Conditions

Albrecht et al. (2009) conducted a study of working and living conditions under which special education (SPED) teachers of students with emotional and behavioral disorders (EBD) were working. The online survey asked respondents to specify whether they intended to leave or to stay in their teaching position within the next two years. They were then asked to identify those working conditions to which they attribute their reason for either leaving or staying. Responses were garnered from 651 international EBD teachers. For the 140 respondents who signified they were leaving, the working condition most cited were lack of support by superiors or the administration, followed by promotion and better job opportunity elsewhere; stress, burnout and dissatisfaction; further academic pursuit; and approaching retirement. On the other hand, for those 511 EBD teachers who were intent on remaining at least for the next two years and maybe beyond, the reason most cited for their desire to stay was the support system provided by the administrators, other teachers and parents. These were followed by job satisfaction, interest in students' welfare, convenience and familiarity with students and co-workers, and the desire for consistency through their teaching career. One question was asked concerning how the teachers felt about the EBD students hitting or otherwise hurting them physically. Remarkably, none of the EBD teachers felt that this significantly mattered in the possibility of their leaving the job.

Another study by Tariah et al. (2011), surveyed occupational therapists working in the field of OT in Jordan, with a requisite minimum of six months' experience. A total of 120 responses were gathered from the mail surveys that had been sent out across Jordan, in general and psychiatric hospitals, special education centers, health centers, schools and universities. The study concluded that based on their own assessment, the working conditions of most Jordanian registered occupational therapists in general do not find their working conditions satisfactory, and that they expressed the sentiment that they regretted having entered the OT profession. Most important to them was the inadequacy of the pay they were receiving, and the lack of job opportunities for people of their profession. There were also a number of workplace-related and academic-related issues, mainly the lack of adequate supplies and equipment in those institutions that were not really specialized in OT, and the lack of opportunities to train and expand their knowledge in the field.

What may be observed of the two studies described here is that so-called working conditions that influence the decision to leave or stay are varied, but the most apparent seems to be the presence or absence of institutional support. Among Jordanian OTs, this is manifested through the lack of

sufficient compensation. For both the teachers and the OTs, there was a lack of professional support in terms of better job opportunities. It is also remarkable that that which outsiders would consider unsatisfactory working conditions would not be so considered by workers in that job situation. For instance, outsiders would have felt that being hit or harmed by an EBD student would be a principal reason to leave, but this has not even occurred to the teachers who responded to the survey. Apparently, they consider it a necessary element of their profession, and therefore do not regard it as an adverse working condition. In addition to poor working and living conditions, other major potential influences are discussed below.

Technological Changes

Technological changes influence workplace strategies in unstable societies to a greater extent because of high degree of interaction between technology and management practices (Collins & Smith 2006). Technology changes the way people work, the roles people undertake and the interactions through which work gets done (Kane & Palmer 1995). Technological changes also impact on employees' intention to stay, although from the studies these appear to be more prevalent among organizations which are primarily involved in industries where technology plays a major or definitive role. These industries include IT companies, banks and institutions with a robust information technology department, pharmaceutical companies, medical devices manufacturers and dealers, and other similar organizations (Fidalgo & Gouveia 2012). Technology influences both the number of employees needed as well as the skills they require. This has the effect of reducing the number of jobs for "touch labor" and increasing the number of jobs for "knowledge workers" (Takamine & Coleman 2012). Ghazali et al. (2013) proposed that organizations must take a leadership role in helping managers cope with technological change, identifying the skills needed of employees, training new employees, and retraining current employees in emerging countries. Technology has also changed management policies and practices by altering the methods of collecting employment information, speeding data-processing efforts, and improving the process of internal and external communication (Kane & Palmer 1995).

The regulatory system begins with social and political problems that prompt lawmakers to pass laws. These laws then empower agencies to ensure compliance. These agencies make certain that management has initiated actions that bring their practices under compliance with the law. In those cases where compliance is not met, courts oversee the process of settling disputes between the parties involved. While changes are taking place in many areas that affect organizational practices and policies (Collins & Smith 2006), those related to demographics include the rising number of minorities and immigrants, the aging workforce and decreasing number of 16 to 24-year-olds, the influx of women in the workforce, and the education and skills gap (Van Dyk & Coetzee 2012). To improve quality and increase productivity, many organizations have begun to rethink their approaches to human resource management (Collins & Smith 2006). These efforts include an emphasis on teamwork, job design, empowerment and participative management, and the building of a supportive organizational culture (Dyk & Coetzee 2012). All of these efforts reflect the increasing responsiveness of organizations, as employers, to the changes that affect the management of their workforces.

It is to a degree surprising that most studies concerning technology and employee retention do not deal with the effect of the organization's technological methods, equipment or processes to the increase or decrease of employee turnover, but rather most studies comment on the effect of the level of employee turnover to the technological status of the organization. Dyk and Coetzee

(2012) was one among numerous studies that raised the concern of most technological and scientific organizations that retention of skilled staff should be made top priority because of skills shortages in their particular expertise. That particular study dealt in particular with the medical and information technology services, two dissimilar industries but nevertheless involved in highly technical content. The factors that kept the interest of technical and medical personnel were not so much on the type or level of technical methods and processes, but rather the level of their organizational commitment which in turn is largely influenced by the opportunities for career mobility (Chew et al. 2006). Takamine and Coleman (2012) also devoted attention to the retention of Asian-Pacific Americans serving in the technology sector. More than the level or nature of technological processes and methods, the concern of this study, as with others, is the condition and quality of the intellectual capital, its accumulation or deterioration in the corporation depending upon whether the skilled personnel stay or leave. As with Van and Coetzee (2012) which articulated the same finding in the affirmative tone, the Takamine and Coleman study found the same in the negative, that is, most of the top employees who choose to leave their organizations do so because of lack of growth opportunities; inadequate pay and benefits only place second. The top employees are considered to be the most knowledgeable about organization processes and are thus the intellectual capital of the organization. The exodus of the most knowledgeable employees in the organization for lack of career opportunities is comparable to a depletion of the organization's knowledge capital, which if allowed to continue will erode the organization's competitive advantage (Takamine & Coleman 2012).

Foremost among the developments in technology that have implications upon the workings of INGOs are the advances in information and communication, and in transportation. Despite many parallels with the garment or footwear industries, the Information and Communications Technology (ICT) production industry has not yet been accorded the same level of public concern (Ferus-Comelo 2008). The large workforces in developing countries that are employed in the ICT industry, in semiconductor manufacturing, and in communications-based industries such as call centers have grown at a phenomenal rate that the organization of labor for workers' concerns has not kept up the pace. In high technology-driven industries whether in manufacturing or services, particularly where the employer is a foreign-based multinational corporation and where organized labor is absent, the NGO gains greater importance in increasing corporate social responsibility and addressing the needs of labor and local stakeholders (Ferus-Comelo 2008). The United Nations Commission on Science and Technology for Development report (UNCSTD 1997) concluded that for developing countries to successfully integrate ICT systems and sustainable development in order to participate in the knowledge economy they need to intervene collectively and strategically. Such collective intervention suggested would be in the development of effective national ICT policies that support the new regulatory framework, promote the selected knowledge production, and use of ICT systems and harness their organizational changes to be in line with the Millennium development Goals. The report further suggests that developing countries to develop the required ICT strategies and policies for institutions and regulations taking into account the need to be responsive to the issues of convergence. The presence and availability of ICT systems even in depressed areas enhances program effectiveness through increasing information interchange among NGO beneficiaries. This is a particular advantage for women, since they are often deprived of a meaningful education while growing up, thereby limiting their prospects for earning a livelihood. Access to information empowers those who previously were denied it, such as women, out of school youth, racial or ethnic minorities, and the poor. The work of the organizations is facilitated and made

more effective by a better informed community because they gain better access to more promising economic opportunities (Oyelude & Bamigbola 2013).

From an operational perspective, INGOs stand to establish more efficient administrative systems with better transportation and communication channels, particularly with their partners and donors. The INGO does not operate in a vacuum. It must have the means to communicate and transact electronically in order to more efficiently source their funding, acquire vital information for their operations, maintain contact between home and host organizations, and collaborate with both intergovernmental and private sector organizations (Loeber & Griessler 2011). An informed organization tends to make better decisions, and subsequently becomes a more successful proponent of development and change (Takamine & Coleman 2012). On the other hand, an organization with inadequate or delayed information will suffer in its decision-making and shall not be as effective as it could have been with the updated technology (Collins & Smith 2006; Dockel et al. 2012). Finally, with respect to propaganda purposes, advances in information and communication technology have enabled organizations in unstable societies to focus public attention on the 'social and environmental externalities of business activity' (Ferus-Comelo 2008). Multinationals' activities are rife with incidences of abuses in the areas of labor, environment and human rights, even for those multinationals that do not specialize in highly visible brands. Such occurrences often go unnoticed as the people affected are usually not organized or do not have sufficient resources or clout to effectively bring the issue to the forefront of public attention. INGOs, conversely, have been considerably effective in pressuring multinationals, particularly those with high profile brands who are acutely susceptible to such campaign techniques that target downstream customers and shareholders (Ferus-Comelo 2008).

Discussions and Conclusion

This study conducted a prepositional study based on a scan of the current pool of literature that analyze the impact of retention plan on employee performance that had favorable repercussions on organizational performance. While employee psychological perception was identified as moderating factor, the findings indicated that a single retention plan cannot effectively attract and retain the different groups of employees within an organization or an MNC. The psychic and attitudinal dispositions of the individual employees are considerations that significantly determine which retention plans will actually be effective or not (Chawla & Ratna 2012). From the literature review conducted, the study proposed a four-factor retention plan (incorporating performance appraisals, employee participation, training and development, remuneration), designed in accordance with the target organizations' or employees' psychological perception, which could effectively influence employee performance (Zareen et al. 2013).

The study by Chawla and Ratna (2012) conducted a cursory survey among a random sampling of 107 executive level MNC employees in Kenya and India, and arrived at a list of key HRM approaches that positively influenced employee retention. These include: (1) training; (2) consultation with employees to set targets for performance; (3) satisfaction with the level of compensation received; (4) rewards and recognition which are given for meritorious performance; (5) presence of conditions in the work environment that are conducive for work (e.g., friendly and motivating); (6) good match between demands of the job and the employee's job capability (i.e., knowledge and qualification). The findings of the study are suggestive at best, due to lack of any inferential statistics to provide conclusive justification for them. However, they are useful as an enumeration of likely factors other studies may choose to explore

with the use of more stringent methodologies. Aside from the search for factors that influence employee retention, academic studies have also sought models by which the link between HRM approaches and employee retention may be conceptualized. The study by Asiedu-Appiah et al. (2013) proposed the adoption of a motivational model for employee retention within the context of HRM in the Ghanaian Mining Sector. The model is founded on the principle that workers will be motivated to function at a higher level of performance provided they are given the opportunity to engage in work they consider to be challenging and enjoyable, engaging them to meaningfully employ and expand their skills and abilities, and wherein they perceive intrinsic benefits (Appelbaum 2000). The model proposed by the Matzin et al. (2012) study identifies a number of factors it classifies into hygiene (extrinsic) and motivator (intrinsic) factors, and segregates these list into organizational strategic factors (i.e. achievement, recognition, and advancement, which are all motivators), organizational culture factors (i.e., the work itself and responsibility from motivators, and staffing, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, and job security from hygiene factors), and finally benefit factors (salary, compensation and benefits, which are hygiene factors). These distinctions create taxonomy of drivers in the motivational model applied to employee retention (Matzin et al. 2012).

According to Maslow's needs hierarchy human beings have five major categories of needs: Firstly, the physiological needs, e.g. oxygen, food and drinking water. The second thing is the need for safety. Third are the social needs for love and acceptance as belonging to a group. The fourth category has to do with esteem in the sense of having respect from others and of oneself, i.e. self-esteem. Finally, there is self-fulfilment which is the need to develop and apply one's potential and skills (Collins & Clark 2003). These five needs are organized in a pyramid to reflect that there is a hierarchy among the needs: Once a lower need has been satisfied, the individual can start focusing on a higher need. Notably, the needs for self-fulfilment and esteem are rarely dominant of the individual are pre-occupied striving to fulfil the basic physiological, safety, and social needs (Maslow 1998). The study conducted by Matzin et al. (2012) shows the motivational model for employee retention. The model is partially based on the Herzberg's two-factor model, which identified the motivating factors and the hygiene factors. It will be recalled that hygiene factors affect dissatisfaction, such that the absence of hygiene factors causes dissatisfaction, and their presence eliminates dissatisfaction but does not necessarily motivate employee performance. On the other hand, the absence of motivator factors does not cause dissatisfaction, but their presence causes satisfaction, motivation and intention to stay (Hodgetts & Hegar 2007).

This study found that, unlike many other theories of management, several studies in Sub-Saharan Africa have been conducted using models developed from Herzberg's two-factor theory to understand factors contributing to staff turnover and staff retention across the African continent. Ng'ethe et al. (2012) used Herzberg theory to study HRM activities to achieve staff retention among institutions, particularly public universities that are operating in a highly competitive environment in Kenya. Ssesanga et al. (2005) used a model developed from Herzberg theory to establish HRM factors influencing decisions to remain of academics in Uganda. Michael (2008) and Samuel et al. (2009) used the Herzberg theory to examine HRM strategies influencing staff retention in private and public organizations in South Africa. Radiveov (2005) also used Herzberg's two-factor theory to study HRM practices contributing to effective recruitment and retention of Sales Consultant in South Africa's corporate sector. This theory therefore can guide a researcher in exploring HRM approaches for attracting and retaining competent workers in a non-profit setting in unstable societies. Herzberg argued that employees are influenced to stay by

HRM practices rather than values that are external to the work (Rizwan et al. 2014). In other words, decision to remain is internally generated and is propelled by variables that are intrinsic to the work, which Herzberg called “motivators”. These intrinsic variables include achievement, recognition, better rewards and benefits, responsibility, advancement, and career growth. On the other hand, certain factors cause dissatisfying experiences to employees; these factors largely results from non-job related variables (extrinsic). These variables were referred to by Herzberg (1970) as “hygiene” factors which, although does not influence employees to stay; nevertheless, they must be present in the workplace to make employees happy. The dissatisfiers are organization policies, operating environment conditions, salary, co-workers relationships, and management and leadership styles (Rizwan et al. 2014).

Herzberg (1959) argued further that, eliminating the causes of dissatisfaction (through hygiene factors) would not result in a state of satisfaction; instead, it would result in a neutral state. Motivation; thus intention to stay, would only occur as a result of the use of intrinsic factors (Matzin et al. 2012). Empirical studies (Brown & Yoshioka 2003; Rainall 2004) have, however, revealed that extrinsic factors such as competitive salaries and benefits, training and development, satisfactory working environment, and job security were cited by employees as key factors that influenced their retention in the organizations. Considering the work situation of INGOs and MNCs workers in conflict settings in light of Herzberg’s assertions, it would appear that at each need, it could be characterized as creating either intention to stay or intention to leave, since both are complementary and distinct components. What this means is that it is not enough to recognize that INGOs and MNCs workers in unstable environments, Sub-Saharan Africa in particular, have unmet or met needs. Identifying which influence intention to stay and which needs create intention to leave is equally as important. Motivators deal with aspects of work itself (Kachalla 2014). Hygiene facts reflect the “context in which the work itself is performed (House & Wigdor 1967). The work of multination organizations, INGOs and MNCs in particular, as discussed earlier, involves working in areas with tough working conditions and extreme insecurity.

References

- Andriamanjato HH, M. W. K. K. C. P. L. S., 2014. Task shifting in primary eye care: how sensitive and specific are common signs and symptoms to predict conditions requiring referral to specialist eye personnel?. *Human Resources for Health*, 12(S3), pp. 12-18.
- Asiedu-Appiah, F., Dufie-Marfo, I., & Frempong, E. (2013). Effect of HRM practices on employee retention: perspectives from the mining industry in Ghana', *International Research Journal of Arts and Social Sciences*, 18(22): 30-48.
- Barnett, M., & Weiss, T. G. (2008). *Humanitarianism in question: Politics, Power, Ethics*. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press.
- Bunt, A., 2010. Towards More Informed Responses to Gender Violence and HIV/AIDS in Post-Conflict West African Settings. *The Nordic Africa Institute*, 3 (Sweden), pp. 12 19.
- Buwembo W, M. I. G. M. K. O. L. A., 2014. A qualitative analysis of health professionals’ job descriptions for surgical service delivery in Uganda.. *Human Resources for Health* , 12(S5), pp. 5-10.
- Chawla, S., & Ratna, R. (2012). Impact of Work Culture on Performance Management System and Employee Retention. *Asian Case Research Journal*, 14(1): 95-115.

- Chiboiwa, M. W., Chipunza, C., & Samuel, M. O. (2011). Evaluation of job satisfaction and intention to remain longer behavior: case study of selected organizations in Zimbabwe. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(7): 2910-2918.
- Chiboiwa, M. W., Samuel, M. O., & Chipunza, C. (2010). An examination of employee retention strategy in Western-based organizations in Zimbabwe. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(10): 2103-2109.
- Collier P, H. A., 2004. Greed and grievance in civil war.. Oxford Econ Pap., Issue doi: 10.1093/oep/gpf064., p. 563–595.
- Fujita N, Z. A. N. M. A. H., 2011. A comprehensive framework for human resources. Health system development in fragile and post-conflict states., 4(1037), pp. 8-10.
- Goma FM, T. M. G. M. A. L. M. N. S. M.-M. C. R. J. G. A., 2014. Evaluation of recruitment and retention strategies for health workers in rural Zambia. *Human Resources for Health*, 12(S1), pp. 3-7.
- Haar RJ, R. L., 1012. Health in Postconflict and Fragile States. United States Institute of Peace, 2(washington DC), pp. 2-5.
- Holtom, B. C., Mitchell, T. R., Lee, T. W., & Eberly, M. B. (2008). 5 Turnover and Retention Research: A Glance at the Past, a Closer Review of the Present, and a Venture into the Future. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 2(1): 231-274.
- Horwitz, F. M., Storey, J., Wright, P., & Ulrich, D. (2010). Managing human resources in Africa: emergent recruitment and retention challenges. *The Routledge Companion to Strategic Human Resource Management*, 462-475.
- Humayoun, A. (2011). Impact of organizational commitment on job satisfaction and employee retention in pharmaceutical industry. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(17): 7316-7324.
- Itika, J. (2011). *Fundamentals of Human Resource Management: Emerging experiences from Sub-Saharan Africa*. African Studies Centre, Mzumbe University.
- Kalua K, G. M. B. E. E. L. S. C. P., 2014. Skills of general health workers in primary eye care in Kenya, Malawi, and Tanzania. *Human Resources for Health*, 12(S2), pp. 10-25.
- Kevany S, H. A. W. N. D. B. B. Y. K. U. W. K. M. R., 2012. Diplomatic and operational adaptations to global health programmes in post-conflict settings. contributions of monitoring and evaluation systems to health sector development and 'nation building' in South Sudan, 10.1080/13623699.2012.714654.(1), p. 247–262.
- Kiggundu, M. N. (2016). The challenges of management development in sub-Saharan Africa. *Journal of Management Development*, 10(6): 32-47.
- Kruk ME, F. L. A. G. W. R., 2010. Rebuilding health systems to improve health and promote statebuilding in post-conflict countries. A Theoreticalfframework and Research Agenda, 2009.09.042.(70), p. 89–97.
- Loquercio, D., Hammersley, M., & Emmens, B. (2006), 'Turnover and Retention', *Literature Review for People in Aid*, HPG Network Paper No. 55. London: Overseas Development Institute.
- Macrae, J., Bradbury, M., Jaspars, S., Johnson, D., & Duffield, M. (1997). Conflict, the continuum and chronic emergencies: a critical analysis of the scope for linking relief, rehabilitation and development planning in Sudan. *Disasters*, 21(3): 223-243.
- Mathauer, I., & Imhoff, I. (2006). Professional workers retention in Sub-Saharan Africa: the role of non-financial incentives and human resource management tools. *Human Resources for Health*, 4(1): 24.

- Matzin, S., Ahmad, N., Binti Ngah, N. E., Binti Ismail, R., Binti Ibrahim, N., & Tan Bin Abdullah, I. H. (2012). Motivation Model for Employee Retention: Applicability to HRM Practices in Malaysian SME Sector, *Canadian Social Science*, 8(5): 8-12.
- Moncarz, E., Zhao, J., & Kay, C. (2009). An exploratory study of US lodging properties' organizational practices on employee turnover and retention. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 21(4): 437-458.
- Mpabanga, D. (2004). Human Resource Management in Botswana. *Managing Human Resources in Africa*, 19 (3): 19-120.
- Mwangi, S. (2017). *The Influence of Training and Development on Employee Performance: A Case of Somalia Non-Governmental Organization Consortium in Nairobi*. United States International University-Africa.
- Newbrander W, W. R. S.-B. M., 2011. Rebuilding and strengthening health systems and providing basic health services in fragile states. *Disasters*, 35(doi: 10.1111/j.1467-7717.2011.01235.x.), p. 639–660..
- Padaki, V. (2007). The human organisation: challenges in NGOs and development programmes', *Development in Practice*, 17(1): 65-77.
- Pfeiffer, J. A. (2003). International NGOs and the management of aid workers in Mozambique: the need for a new model of management. *Social Science & Management*, 56(4): 725-738.
- Ranson K, P. T. B. O. S. E., 2007. Promoting Health Equity in Conflict-Affected Fragile States. *London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine*, 23(PubMed), pp. 10-23.
- Rizwan, M., Tariq, M., Hassan, R., & Sultan, A. (2014). A Comparative Analysis of the Factors Effecting the Employee Motivation and Employee Performance in Pakistan. *International Journal of Human Resource Studies*, 4(3): 35-49.
- Shuey, D. A., Qosaj, F. A., Schouten, E. J., & Zwi, A. B. (2003). Planning for Humanitarian and Development sector reform in post-conflict situations: Kosovo 1999–2000. *Health Policy*, 63(3): 299-310.
- Stilwell, B., Diallo, K., Zurn, P., Dal Poz, M. R., Adams, O., & Buchan, J. (2003). Developing evidence-based ethical policies on the migration of professional workers: conceptual and practical challenges. *Human Resources for Health*, 1(1): 8.
- Tessema, M., & Ng'oma, A. M. (2009). Challenges of recruiting and retaining professional workers, the case of Eritrean public sector. *International Public Management Review*, 10(2): 44-65.
- Tulloch, O., Raven, J., & Martineau, T. (2011). Human Resources for Health in post-conflict settings. *ReBuild consortium at: <http://www.rebuildconsortium.com/resources/research-reports/human-resources-for-health-postconflict-lit-review>*.
- WHO, 2005. *Guide to Health Workforce Development in Post-Conflict Environments*. Geneva, 2(3), pp. 11-13.