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**ACTUAL VOLUNTARY TURNOVER:  
A STUDY OF JOB EMBEDDEDNESS, PAY  
SATISFACTION, AND PERCEIVED ALTERNATIVE  
JOB OPPORTUNITIES**



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**Thesis Submitted to  
Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business,  
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## ABSTRACT

Past literature supports negative links between job embeddedness, pay satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover (AVT), several meta-analytical studies have reported weaker links between these constructs. As a result, calls for further research has been suggested, particularly on the interactive process through which both job embeddedness and pay satisfaction are likely to influence AVT. The purpose of this study was also to explore the likely interactive effect of perceived alternative job opportunities on job embeddedness, pay satisfaction, and AVT. A mixed-method approach was used. Data were obtained from a survey sample of 216 and nine interviewed former faculty members of public universities in Nigeria. Using partial least square structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM), the quantitative results indicated that both organizational embeddedness and pay satisfaction were significantly and negatively related to AVT. On the contrary, community embeddedness demonstrated no significant effect on AVT. The results further showed that perceived alternative job opportunities moderated the relationship between organizational embeddedness and AVT, as well as between pay satisfaction and AVT. But, no significant interaction effect was found between perceived alternative job opportunities and community embeddedness. In addition to the survey, semi-structured interviews were conducted. The results of the interviews showed that the dysfunctional nature of the university's work environment and longer commute time were important contributors to their reason for leaving. The qualitative result also revealed that the disparity in pay between public and private universities played a critical role in the participants' decisions to actually leave. Additionally, unsolicited job offer was also identified as another reason that influenced their turnover decisions. Overall, the qualitative results complemented the survey findings in that they were able to further clarify and elaborate the latter. Implications of the results for future research and practice, as well as the limitations of the study are highlighted.

**Keywords:** actual voluntary turnover, job embeddedness, pay satisfaction, perceived alternative job opportunities, mixed-method, Nigeria

## ABSTRAK

Kesusasteraan masa lalu menyokong hubungan negatif antara sematan pekerjaan, kepuasan bayaran, dan lantik henti sebenar secara sukarela (AVT), beberapa kajian meta analisis telah melaporkan pautan lemah antara konstruk-konstruk ini. Akibatnya, terdapat panggilan mengenai kajian yang lebih lanjut bagi meneliti hubungan ini terutamanya yang melibatkan proses interaktif antara kedua-dua sematan kerja dan kepuasan bayaran yang mungkin mempengaruhi AVT. Tujuan kajian ini juga adalah untuk meneroka kesan interaktif kemungkinan peluang pekerjaan alternatif ditanggap terhadap sematan pekerjaan, kepuasan bayaran, dan AVT. Pendekatan kaedah bercampur telah digunakan. Data dikutip daripada tinjauan terhadap 216 orang bekas ahli fakulti dan sembilan fakulti yang telah ditemuramah di universiti awam di Nigeria. Dengan menggunakan *partial least square structural equation modelling* (PLS-SEM), keputusan kuantitatif menunjukkan bahawa kedua-dua sematan organisasi dan kepuasan bayaran berkait dengan AVT secara signifikan dan negatif. Sebaliknya, sematan masyarakat tidak menunjukkan kesan ketara terhadap AVT. Keputusan seterusnya menunjukkan bahawa peluang pekerjaan alternatif ditanggap menyederhana hubungan antara sematan organisasi dan AVT, serta antara kepuasan gaji dan AVT. Tetapi, tiada kesan interaksi yang signifikan antara peluang pekerjaan alternatif ditanggap dan sematan masyarakat. Di samping tinjauan soal selidik, temu bual separa berstruktur telah dijalankan. Hasil temu bual menunjukkan bahawa persekitaran kerja universiti yang lemah dan masa berulang-alik yang panjang merupakan penyumbang penting ahli fakulti akademik meninggalkan pekerjaan mereka. Dapatan kualitatif juga menunjukkan bahawa perbezaan jurang gaji antara universiti awam dan swasta memainkan peranan penting bagi peserta membuat keputusan meninggalkan pekerjaan lama mereka. Selain itu, tawaran pekerjaan yang tidak diminta juga telah dikenal pasti sebagai satu lagi penyebab yang mempengaruhi keputusan mereka untuk berhenti. Secara keseluruhan, dapatan kualitatif melengkapi hasil tinjauan kerana dapatan temu bual dapat menerangkan dan menghuraikan keputusan kuantitatif. Implikasi penyelidikan terhadap kajian akan datang dan amalan serta batasan kajian ini turut diketengahkan.

**Kata kunci:** lantik henti sebenar secara sukarela, sematan pekerjaan, kepuasan bayaran, peluang pekerjaan alternatif ditanggap, kaedah bercampur, Nigeria

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

|        |   |
|--------|---|
| ASUU   | Academic Staff Union of Universities        |
| AVE    | Average Variance Extracted                  |
| AVT    | Actual Voluntary Turnover                   |
| CAQDAS | Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis |
| CMV    | Common Method Variance                      |
| EM     | Expectation Maximization                    |
| EOI    | Employment Opportunity Index                |
| HEI    | Higher Education Institution                |
| JET    | Job Embeddedness Theory                     |
| MI     | Multiple Imputations                        |
| MVA    | Missing Value Analysis                      |
| NUC    | National Universities Commission            |
| PAJO   | Perceived Alternative Job Opportunities     |
| PSQ    | Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire              |
| SET    | Social Exchange Theory                      |
| SIT    | Social Interdependence Theory               |
| SPSS   | Statistical Package for the Social Sciences |
| VIF    | Variance Inflation Factor                   |



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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 Background of Study**

In the recent past, actual voluntary turnover (AVT) has become a subject of importance among practitioners and researchers of organizational behavior (Allen, Bryan, & Vardaman, 2010; Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2013; Segrest, Andrews, & Hurley-Hanson, 2015). As a self-initiated behavior (Morrell, Loan-Clarke, & Wilkinson, 2001), actual voluntary turnover occurs when employees actually disengage or leave the organization on their own accord (Böckermann, Ilmakunnas, Jokisaari, & Vuori, 2013; Davidson & Wang, 2011). In this instance, the actual permanent voluntary disengagement may have been influenced by another job which offers more in terms of meeting employee expectation, changes in personal circumstances, or a change in career direction (Donnelly & Quirin, 2006). Put differently, actual voluntary turnover refers to an employee exercising his or her free choice to voluntarily leave a current employment in favor of opportunities identified with another (Beecroft, Dorey, & Wenten, 2008).

As a costly and pervasive phenomenon, actual voluntary turnover has continued to draw the attention of practitioners and researchers (Clausen, Hogh, Carneiro, & Borg, 2013; Huffman, Casper, & Payne, 2014; Hom, Mitchell, Lee, & Griffeth, 2012; Law, 2010; Maertz & Boyar, 2012; Maynard & Parfyonova, 2013; Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). Existing literature has shown that AVT not only results in

the loss of valuable and talented staff (Trevor, Gerhart, & Boudreau, 1997), but it also creates low morale of the remaining workers (Agrusa & Lema, 2007; Byrd, Cochran, Silverman, Blount, 2000). Additionally, the departure of key employees translates into requiring more resources to recruit and replace those who have left (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000; Abdullah, Khalid, Shuib, Nor, Muhammad, & Jauhar, 2007; Juhdi, Pa'wan, & Hansaram, 2013).

Globally, regardless of the severe negative consequences, employers are constantly grappling with the challenge of high turnover. For instance, the latest statistical report of the Bureau of Labour Statistics in the USA indicated that about 25million workers annually engage in actual voluntary turnover (Hathaway, 2013). Similarly, Von Hagel and Miller (2011) pointed out that for every IT employee who leaves an employment, an estimated amount of between USD200000 and USD250000 is spent on recruitment and replacement of exited employees. More so, Kay, Alarie, and Adjei (2013) showed that the cost of losing an employee from an organization is particularly severe, especially if a component of his or her expertise and experience are strongly firm-specific; the departure of such an employee could disrupt the effectiveness of an organization as the departing member takes assets, such as expertise and experience with him or her upon the departure, which are often difficult to replace or rebuild (Kacmar, Andrews, Van Rooy, Steilberg, & Cerrone, 2006). Similar to developed nations, AVT is also a major concern for employers in the developing countries like Nigeria.



The importance of higher education the world over and university in particular cannot in any way be ignored (Idogho, 2011). In recent times, the issue of actual voluntary turnover in Nigeria's higher educational sector, especially university system, has become a topic of discourse widely captured in the Nigerian media (Fatunde, 2013; Ojo, 2012) as universities have a tedious responsibility for preparing future leaders. If the higher education, as Adeogun, Subair, and Osifila (2009) observed, remains a sine qua non for economic and social transformation, then its provision, updating, financing, and administration should ideally be assented greater significance. Correspondingly, a sound higher education to nurture quality individuals for societal consumption is imperative (Idogho, 2011).

The history of higher education, especially public universities in Nigeria, started with the Elliot Commission, which saw the establishment of University College Ibadan in 1948. But, the shortage of a high level manpower coupled with the need for the country to take the challenge of nation building after the country's independence (Fadipe, 2000) made the Nigerian government in April 1959 set up the Ashby commission of inquiry to advise the higher education on the needs of the country for its first twenty years (Ajayi & Haastrup, 2011). The recommendations of the Commission resulted in the establishment of three universities, namely, University of Ife, presently addressed as Obafemi Awolowo University, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, and University of Lagos, as additions to the two universities established before independence.

Universities in Nigeria are classified according to their years of establishment as first, second, third or fourth generation institutions. The first generation consists of public universities established in the period between 1948 and 1962. This period saw the emergence of six universities, which came to be known to as the first generation universities. In the period between 1975 and 1980, seven more universities were established, which came to be known as the second generation universities. The third generation universities are public universities established in the period between 1980 and 1990. This period was characterized by three major activities: (a), the establishment of more public universities, (b) public-owned specialized universities emerged, and (c) state-owned universities were established. The period from 1991 to date saw the emergence of what came to be known as the fourth generation universities. This period is mostly characterized by the establishment of more state-owned universities, inability of the public universities to deliver quality education to millions of Nigerians (Ajadi, 2010; Akpotu & Akpochafo, 2009; Obasi, 2006), and the establishment of the first set of private universities in 1999. Since then, there has been a tremendous increase in the growth of private universities (Ajadi, 2010; National Universities Commission, 2014).

Contemporarily, education is widely established to serve as the leading instrument for the promotion of economic growth and development (Bloom, Canning, & Chan, 2006; Tilak, 2003). In Nigeria, the role of university education becomes impossible to ignore as viewed against the background that the Nigerian nation once served as a hub of university education across the West-African sub-

region (Mbachu & Hamilton-Ekeke, 2013). In the beginning, Nigerian public universities laid justifiable claim to the phenomenal influence on the socio-political and economic development of the country. These public universities in Nigeria compared very favorably with the best universities across the world (Abdulkarim, 2010; Ajayi & Haastrup, 2011). However, without well-qualified and committed faculty members, no higher educational institution can guarantee the quality and sustainability of the system. Again, universities cannot develop the whole individual alone without a committed and efficient teaching staff whose roles are far-reaching. Indeed, their quality, number and effectiveness are central to the functioning of any university (Pienaar & Bester, 2008). Organizations understand well that the ability to prevent the exit of high performing employees serves as the edge for sustained competitive advantage, as well as an assurance that universities accomplish their missions and visions and attain the status of centers of excellence (Theron, Barkhuizen, & Du Plessis, 2014). However, this kind of scenario in Nigeria has been hindered by the inefficiency and ineffectiveness of the very public universities responsible for providing them, likely due to the increasing rate of AVT (Gbenu, Kolawole, & Lawal, 2014).

Despite all the alluring issues of relevance regarding education as earlier highlighted, the Nigerian higher education sector has generally been plagued with myriads of problems. One of them is related to the inability of public universities in Nigeria in retaining key and talented faculty members (Ekundayo & Ajayi, 2009). Several explanations have been advanced to elucidate the reasons for the employee

turnover. In a recent survey, Satope, Akintunde, and Olopade (2014) suggested low motivation, poor conditions of service, brain drain syndrome, uncondusive teaching and learning work environment, poor and erratic funding, inconsistent human resource management practices, and heavy workloads. It is widely acknowledged that employees who are motivated in their jobs are likely to perform their duties well and produce results of higher quality (Akpotu & Akpochofo 2009). But Satope et al. (2014) argued that low motivation may cause teaching staff to be less motivated to do their best in the classroom and demonstrate a greater likelihood to quit.

Similarly, the internal brain drain syndrome from the Nigerian public universities to other sectors has continued unabated till date, likely to deprive the country of quality faculty members required for the training of the needed high-level manpower. Additionally, excessive workload seems to have a demoralizing effect on the remaining staff (Sulaiman & Akinsanya, 2011). As they struggle to cope with a large and unmanageable number of students and courses to teach, the efficiency, quality of teaching, supervision, and by extension, the quality of the students might be affected (Jibril & Obaje, 2008). In fact, employers in have begun to question the quality of graduates from such universities (Chiemekwe, Longe, Longe, & Shaib, 2009), resulting in problems of graduate employability. While strong human resource management (HRM) practices are expected to generate an enabling environment within which the workforce could be utilized effectively (Kabene, Orchard, Howard, Soriano, & Leduc, 2006), reported cases of inconsistent HRM practices in Nigerian public universities suggest that it might be difficult to prevent

faculty members from leaving voluntarily. Other complaints include shortage of facilities and equipment, nepotism, favoritism, and ethnic chauvinism, which are likely to contribute to employees quitting their job (Ben-Barka, 2007; Pillay, 2007).

It has been acknowledged that the rising trend in actual permanent departure (i.e. AVT) is the most crucial challenge faced by public universities in Nigeria (Abdulraheem & Adebola, 2014; Abiodun-Oyebanji, 2012). The rate of AVT public universities increased from 30.3% in 2007 to 35.31% in 2013 in public universities but decreased from 14.90% in 2007 to 5% in 2013 in private universities in Nigeria (NUC, 2014). The high AVT rate faced by the Nigerian public universities is likely to be attributed to low incentives, declining attachment of faculty members to their universities, increasing workload, and the rapid increase in the number of private universities (Akindele, 2013). In order to address this crucial issue, education policy reforms aimed at improving the teaching profession have been instituted. However, the effectiveness of these the reforms depends on several factors, such as the availability of faculty members to provide the crucial role needed in the furtherance of universities' reform strategies (Abiodun-Oyebanji, 2012), and the state of the work environment at the university. In sum, having a sufficient number of faculties is crucial to enable public universities to accomplish their vision of becoming centers of excellence. However, it is quite surprising that only little has been done to identify the underlying causes of the high incidences of actual voluntary turnover among Nigerian faculty members (Okoro et al., 2014).

## **1.2 Statement of Research Problem**

The literature indicates a lack of studies on actual voluntary turnover (Cohen, Blake, & Goodman, 2015; Joseph, Ng, Koh, & Ang, 2007; Moore 2000), defined as employees' actual departure from the organization on their own accord (Davidson & Wang, 2011; Hardigan & Carvajal, 2007; Rondeau & Wagar, 2006). Instead, turnover studies have traditionally investigated intention (Allen et al., 2010; Campion, 1991; Cho & Lewis 2012; Dollar & Broach 2006; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Hancock et al., 2013; Kirshenbaum & Weisberg 1990; Maertz & Boyar, 2012), defined as an individual's stated probability that he or she will change his or her job within a certain time period (Schyns, Torka, & Gössling, 2007). Such studies suggest that "the best single predictor of an individual's behavior will be a measure of his turnover intention as proxy to perform that behavior" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 369). However, researchers have found that using intention as a proxy for AVT is questionable as it appears to be a less reliable predictor than it was initially assumed in most employee turnover literature (Jung, 2010). So, in order to fill this important gap, the present study sought to contribute to the extant literature by measuring AVT as the dependent variable rather than turnover intention using the data of former faculty members in Nigerian public universities for analysis.

A number of factors have been suggested as predictors of AVT such as organizational commitment (Bluedorn, 1982; Payne & Huffman, 2005; Panaccio, Vandenberghe, & Ayed, 2014), job satisfaction (Griffith et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995), promotional opportunities (Böckerman et al., 2013; De Lange, De

Witte, & Notelaers, 2008; Luzius & Ard, 2006), supervisory styles (Lu, & Lee, 2008; Gonzalez, Faller, Ortega, & Tropman, 2009; Mankin 2009), leadership styles (Griffith, 2004; Ballinger, Lehman, & Schoorman, 2010), and personality characteristics among others (Barrick & Mount, 1996; Zimmerman, 2008).

However, the effect of pay satisfaction on AVT has received far less attention (Steinmetz, de Vries, & Tijdens, 2014; Vandenberghe & Tremblay, 2015) even if any, past studies were limited to exploring the effects of the specific components of pay satisfaction, such as wage growth (Anthony, 2010; Trevor, Gerhart, & Boudreau, 1997), pay raise (Tekleab, Takeuchi, & Taylor, 2005; Williams, McDaniels & Ford, 2007), pay level (Schreurs, Guenter, Schumacher, Van Emmerik, & Notelaers, 2013; Cropsey, Masho, Shiang, Sikka, Kornstein & Hampton, 2008), and current base pay among others (Heneman & Judge, 2000; Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002) on intent to leave (e.g., Chiboiwa, Samuel, & Chipunza, 2010; Maynard, Joseph, & Maynard, 2006; Tekleab et al., 2005; Wald, 2005). Considering that the level of pay satisfaction could play an important role in shaping the way individuals behave at the workplace (Carragher, 2011; Kirkland, 2009; Scarpello & Carragher, 2008; Williams, Brower, Ford, Williams, & Carragher, 2008), it is unfortunate that it has been neglected in AVT studies. More importantly, considering only specific components of pay satisfaction the better understanding of the effect of pay satisfaction on AVT may not be meaningful. It is speculated that AVT could be shaped by employees' level of satisfaction with their pay. Hence, this study filled the gap by examining the holistic effect of pay satisfaction on AVT

In the wider management literature, recent turnover studies have emphasized the need to shift from investigating affective reactions in the workplace to exploring individual's evaluations of their work environment and/or non-work environment in shaping his/her behaviors (Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014). In response to that, this study proposed that examining the ways people become less embedded in their job will help us understand AVT better. Hence, this study considered two dimensions of job embeddedness, namely, organizational and community embeddedness as antecedents of actual voluntary turnover. Job embeddedness has been defined as the combined forces that influence individuals from leaving the organizations where he/she works and/or the community where he/she dwells (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001; Yao, Lee, Mitchell, Burton, & Sablinski, 2004).

A review of the relevant literature shows that past studies have paid less attention to the influence of job embeddedness on AVT. Even if any, past research tended to investigate the effect of job embeddedness among specific professional groups, such as those in finance, (Allen, 2006; Felps, Mitchell, Hekman, Lee, Holtom, & Harman, 2009; Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004), correctional officers (Bergiel, Nguyen, Clenney, & Stephen, 2009), healthcare workers (Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield, 2007; Holtom & O'Neill, 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001), and hotel employees (Karatepe, 2013). Thus, it appears that there is a paucity of research investigating the impact of job embeddedness in other work settings (Mensele & Coetzee, 2014), such as higher education sector. In Nigeria, the only exception was a study by Karatepe (2013), who examined the



mediating role of job embeddedness among hotel employees. Such neglect has been unfortunate to some extent because the Nigerian higher educational sector is moving toward internationalization (Adeoye, Anyikwa, & Avant, 2012), which requires that faculty members are embedded in their job. Hence, a study that will capture the effect of job embeddedness on AVT among faculty member is necessary for the attainment of organizational goals (Yang, Qinghai, & Ling, 2011). More so, there is a lack of research that measured job embeddedness as a second-order formative construct (Becker, Klein, & Wetzels, 2012).

In addition to pay satisfaction and job embeddedness, turnover studies have long recognized the significant impact exhibited by perceived alternative job opportunities (PAJO) in shaping an individual's decision to quit or not to quit (Gerhart, 1990; March & Simon, 1958; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979; Steel & Griffeth, 1998). Therefore, it is suggested that PAJO should be incorporated in turnover models (Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985). While past studies have corroborated the influence of PAJO, there is still considerable disagreement about the exact mechanism of how PAJO influences AVT (Dinger, Thatcher, Stepina, & Craig, 2012; Josephson, Lindberg, Voss, Alfredsson, & Vingård, 2008; Morse, Weinhardt, Griffeth, & Oliveira, 2014). In this study, it was speculated that PAJO moderates the links between job embeddedness, pay satisfaction, and AVT in the following ways. Firstly, this study drew on Thibaut and Kelley's (1959) social interdependence theory, which advances the argument that PAJO might have an interactive influence on behavior. That is, individuals who perceive several

alternative job opportunities should demonstrate a higher likelihood of leaving than those who perceive a few opportunities, such that the connection between job embeddedness and AVT and as well as between pay satisfaction and AVT would be weaker when alternative jobs are available and plentiful than when alternative jobs are scarce.

Secondly, a survey by the Nigerian National Universities Commission on staff retention covering a five year period between 2009 and 2014 showed that, of the 6.13% of the academic staff who left the Nigerian public universities, 4.12% left to work in the private universities (NUC, 2014). This is suggestive that an upsurge of private universities is likely to offer alternative job opportunities as the number of private universities exceeds the number of public universities in Nigeria. In fact, more private universities are awaiting final approval to commence their academic programs. Here, it is speculated that the situation is likely to create more choices for faculty turnover to occur (Olusegun, 2012).

To enable a better understanding of AVT in a wider context, Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, and Eberly (2008) suggested for a more global focus. Many studies had been done in the developed countries (Cohen, 1999; Law, 2010; Maertz, Stevens, & Campion, 2003) with less attention to the least developed nations. As Nigeria is considered one of the least developed countries (World Fact Book, 2014), past findings may not necessarily be generalizable to the Nigerian context which is lacking in many ways, particularly in its infrastructure. Hence, further exploration is required to provide insight into the turnover phenomenon in Nigeria.

### **1.3 Research Questions**

Below are the research questions derived from the discussion highlighted above on the need to explore actual voluntary turnover among faculty members who were formally in the employment of Nigerian public universities and currently working in private universities. Based on the gaps highlighted, this study sought to achieve the following research questions:

1. Is there a relationship between organizational embeddedness and actual voluntary turnover?
2. Is there a relationship between community embeddedness and actual voluntary turnover?
3. Is there a relationship between pay satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover?
4. Do perceived alternative job opportunities moderate the relationship between organizational embeddedness and actual voluntary turnover?
5. Do perceived alternative job opportunities moderate the relationship between community embeddedness and actual voluntary turnover?
6. Do perceived alternative job opportunities moderate the relationship between pay satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover?

#### **1.4 Research Objectives**

The key objective of this research study was to explore the relationship between job embeddedness, pay satisfaction, perceived alternative job opportunities, and actual voluntary turnover. Below are the specific objectives this study wished to meet.

1. To examine the influence of organizational embeddedness on actual voluntary turnover.
2. To investigate the influence of community embeddedness on actual voluntary turnover.
3. To describe the influence of pay satisfaction on actual voluntary turnover
4. To determine the moderating influence of perceived alternative job opportunities on the relationship between organizational embeddedness and actual voluntary turnover.
5. To look into the moderating influence of perceived alternative job opportunities on the relationship between community embeddedness and actual voluntary turnover.
6. To identify the moderating influence of perceived alternative job opportunities on the relationship between pay satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover.

#### **1.5 Scope of Study**

This study focused on actual voluntary and not involuntary turnover as different forms of turnover may be caused by different sets of factors. Actual turnover is considered voluntary when an employee freely chooses to leave the organization on

his or her own accord (Griffeth & Hom, 2001). The study was limited to faculty members who left the employment of Nigerian public universities and joined private universities located in the southern part of the country within the last 36 months or less, and switched to employers who are not located in same area/state as their former universities and communities.

The choice of the southern geo-political zone of Nigeria is premised on the following reasons. First, according to Webometrics University Ranking (2014), most of the universities in this zone are ranked amongst the best. Second, these universities attract the highest number of candidates seeking admission into private universities (Akpotu & Akpochofo, 2009). Third, the public universities within this zone recorded higher turnover rates since 2007 to date (NUC, 2013). Fourth, the league of the top ten private universities with the highest number of faculty members in Nigeria are all located in this geo-political zone. The next question is why academic staff. This is because they are the most important human resource in any academic work setting. In fact, the failures or successes of academic processes lie with them (Abiodun-Oyebanji, 2012; Nwadiani & Akpotu, 2002; Olorunsola & Arogundade, 2012).

The data collection procedure involved the administration of 354 questionnaires to former faculty members currently in the employment of private universities in Nigeria. The data collection exercise lasted over four months from 8<sup>th</sup> December 2014 to 11th April 2015. Since this study was to investigate the relationship between job embeddedness, pay satisfaction, perceived alternative job

opportunities, and actual voluntary turnover among former faculty members of Nigerian public universities, individuals were the unit of analysis in this study.

### **1.6 Significance of Study**

It is hoped that this research could offer significant practical and theoretical contributions to the existing body of knowledge in the employee turnover domain. From the theoretical viewpoint, a reasonable number of studies have been conducted to investigate employee turnover (Cohen, 1999; Hom et al., 2012; Law, 2010; Morrell & Arnold, 2007). However, most of them tended to focus on turnover intention (e.g., Allen et al., 2010; Campion, 1991; Cho & Lewis 2012; Griffeth et al., 2000; Hancock et al., 2013; Kirshenbaum & Weisberg 1990; Maertz & Boyar, 2012). This implies that AVT has received less attention. Therefore, this study contributes to the turnover literature by investigating AVT as the dependent variable.

Although prior studies (Griffeth et al., 2000; Josephson et al., 2008) explored the relationships between PAJO and AVT, very limited research investigated the role of PAJO as a moderating variable. The result from this study could extend the existing body of knowledge in the domain of AVT by the combination of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), job embeddedness theory (Mitchell et al., 2001), and social interdependence theory (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959).

Past studies concentrated on various professions, such as lawyers, auditors, professionals in finance, correctional officers, healthcare workers and hotel employees (e.g., Allen, 2006; Bergiel et al., 2009; Cohen, 1999; Crossley et al., 2007;

Felps et al., 2009; Holtom & O'Neill., 2004; Karatepe, 2013; Law, 2010; Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). Hence, the focus on the Nigerian faculty members will likely reduce the sectoral research imbalance in relation to the studies on the AVT predictors, especially as the higher education sector is important in any economy.

As highlighted earlier on, the majority of the literature on AVT was conducted in developing countries, such as Asia, Europe, and the USA. The African continent and other less developed continents have been given less attention as far as the research focus is concerned. It is hoped that this study will uncover unique factors influencing the behavior of Nigerian faculty members thereby elevating the profile of African-based studies in the turnover domain.

Practically, the results from this study would be useful to practitioners, policy makers, and school management, particularly, in the public sector, in understanding the forces, such as job embeddedness and pay satisfaction, in influencing AVT of faculty members. This study will offer a framework that guides the management of Nigerian public universities on how to tailor their retention and compensation strategies to minimize AVT. Consequently, information on exited employees could result in the prevention of further departure.

### **1.7 Definitions of Key Terms**

Stated below are the definitions of the keys terms used in the current research.

### **1.7.1 Actual voluntary turnover**

Actual voluntary turnover is defined as the permanent voluntary cessation of employment (Mobley, 1982).

### **1.7.2 Job embeddedness**

Job embeddedness is described as the collection of forces that influence employee from quitting (Mitchell et al., 2001).

- *Organizational embeddedness* -- Defined as the totality of forces (fit and sacrifices) that prevents people from leaving their current organizations (Ng & Feldman, 2007).
- *Community embeddedness* -- Described as the totality of forces (fit and sacrifices) that restrains people from leaving their current communities (Ng & Feldman, 2007).

### **1.7.3 Pay satisfaction**

Pay satisfaction is defined as the amount of negative or positive perceptions that people have toward their pay (Miceli & Lane, 1991) that include pay level, pay raise, pay benefits, and pay administration or structure (Heneman & Schwab, 1985).



#### **1.7.4 Perceived alternative employment opportunity**

Perceived alternative employment opportunity is defined as one's belief that he/she can find a better alternative job in another organization (Thatcher, Stepina, & Boyle, 2002).

### **1.8 Organization of Study**

The study is organized into six chapters. Chapter one introduces the background of the study, statement of the problem, research questions and objectives, the scope of the study, and the significance of the study. Chapter two provides a detailed review of the existing literature on the four major constructs of the study: job embeddedness, pay satisfaction, perceived alternative job opportunities, and actual voluntary turnover. Relevant studies were reviewed toward the development of a model that describes the relationships. Chapter three discusses the development of the research hypotheses and the research model. Chapter four presents an in-depth discussion of the methodology, which includes a mixed-method approach, data collection procedures, sampling technique, and data analysis techniques. Chapter five presents a descriptive analysis of participants, empirical and interview results. Finally, chapter six provides a summary of findings, discussion on the contributions of the study, limitations of the study, recommendations for future studies, and a conclusion.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **1.2 Introduction**

The preceding chapter has dealt with the rationale for undertaking the present study. This chapter presents a review of the relevant literature. Also included in this chapter is the explanation on actual voluntary turnover. The relationship between intention and actual voluntary turnover is also discussed, followed by a detailed discussion on the construct relationships as contained in the proposed research model. Then, the chapter concludes with a brief summary.

#### **2.2 Actual Voluntary Turnover**

Actual voluntary turnover has become a pervasive and costly phenomenon, and it continues to be an important critical management topic of concern for practitioners, scholars, as well as firms, regardless of the nature of the job or the industry the firms belong to (Lee & Mitchell, 1994), causing decreasing morale (Jesus & de Pablos, 2003; Szamosi, 2006; Wallace & Gaylor, 2012), and additional costs of replacement involving recruitment, selection, orientation, induction, and training (Allen et al., 2010; Campion, 1991; Maertz & Boyar, 2012; Trevor et al., 1997; Wright & Bonnett, 2007).

The departure of a functioning employee reflects a loss of a valuable human resource, and the vacancies created can lead to the additional workload for the remaining workers (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000) and reduction in the organizational productivity level (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Zimmerman, 2008). It has been estimated that IT-based companies in the United States of America spend an average amount of between USD200,000 and USD250,000 to replace one exiting worker, representing a daily loss of USD7,000 in revenue (Von Hagel & Miller, 2011). Due to the incurred expenses and negative consequences linked to turnover, correlates and antecedents of actual voluntary turnover have been and continue to be of high interest to scholars.

The negative consequences linked to this phenomenon necessitate that greater attention should be given to the predictors that can assist in preventing a voluntary permanent outflow of employees. The need for a road map to effectively ameliorate actual voluntary turnover has greatly attracted the interest and attention of a quite a number of stakeholders within (Ton & Huckman, 2008; Yin-Fah, Foon, Chee-Leong, & Osman, 2010) and outside organizations to empirically research this domain (Holtom et al., 2008; Pizam & Thornburg, 2000), particularly when high performing and/or hard to replace employees actually leave the organization on their own accord (Allen et al., 2010; Campion, 1991; Mobley, 1982).

It has been more than 57 years since March and Simon (1958) presented their seminal work on turnover. Their work has spawned many research efforts. From the late 1950s to date, well over 1,500 studies on turnover have been documented

(Holtom et al., 2008; Hom et al., 2012). Empirical studies from various disciplines have been done to understand the phenomenon better. However, there are many reasons why people leave their organizations (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). The literature indicates a sizable number of antecedents. Regardless of profession, many reasons for employee turnover on their own discretion have been suggested (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000; Cho & Lewis, 2012; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Cohen et al., 2015; Hom et al., 2012; Johnsrud & Heck, 1994; Steers & Mowday, 1981; Zimmerman, 2008). This suggests that the relationship between the antecedents and actual voluntary turnover vary across different employee populations (Hom et al., 2012; Mobley et al., 1979), a clear indication that studies on actual voluntary turnover can best be explained as developmental. Subsequently, several scholars across disciplines and professions have steadily built, refined, applied, tested, and measured complex theories of how and why actual voluntary turnover takes places (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Cohen et al., 2015; Griffith et al., 2000; Heavey, Holwerda, & Hausknecht, 2013; Hom et al., 2012; Hom, & Griffeth, 2013).

Different predictors of actual voluntary turnover have been reported in different studies. The predictors have also been classified into different categories (Maertz & Campion, 2004). For example, Lee and Mitchell (1994) categorized the actual voluntary turnover predictors into “push” or “pull” factors. Push factors refer to the internally inclined factors, such as organizational commitment and job dissatisfaction that influence employees to leave the organization. Pull factors, on the other hand, refer to the externally triggered factors that influence employees by

pulling them into another organization, such as job offers (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Steers & Mowday, 1981). Other scholars categorized the predictors of turnover into three groups, namely personal factors, organizational factors, and labor market conditions (Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Mobley, 1982). Price (2001) classified turnover predictors into the personal and environmental category. Other scholars used different approaches/perspectives to categorize the predictors. Schwab (1991), for instance, categorized turnover predictors into two perspectives: psychological predictors (i.e., internal), such as work-related attitudes, psychological, or dispositional characteristics, and environmental predictors (i.e., external), such as job search.

Even though there have been several attempts to create a universally acceptable model to categories turnover predictors to explain the process through which individuals voluntarily leave an organization easily (Hulin et al., 1985; Lee & Mitchell, 1994; March & Simon, 1958; Mitchell et al., 2001; Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1978; Mobley et al., 1979; Price, 1977; Steers & Mowday, 1981), to date, there is still no universal theoretical model that is able to explain a turnover scenario (Morrell et al., 2001). This may be due to a lack of integration in the turnover studies (Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980; Steel & Lounsbury, 2009), which are high in volume and diverse in content. As people more often than not have different reasons for leaving voluntarily, devising a model to encompass all different predictors would likely to be both impractical and cumbersome (Besich, 2005). The following section

reviewed the various predictors associated with actual voluntary turnover that has been investigated by researchers.

### **2.3 Actual Voluntary Turnover Predictors**

Some of the predictors that have been examined in relation to actual voluntary turnover include job attitudes. Organizational commitment and job satisfaction have long been recognized as important antecedents of actual voluntary turnover in many empirical studies and theoretical models (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; March & Simon, 1958; Mobley 1977; Mobley et al., 1979; Steers & Mowday, 1981). Job satisfaction refers to how an employee feels about the different aspects of his/her job (Spector, 1997). Price and Mueller (1986) analyzed the antecedents of turnover and identified the construct of job satisfaction as the most important factor. Similarly, the outcome of a meta-analysis by Hom and Griffeth (1995) also found that job satisfaction is significantly and negatively linked to actual voluntary turnover with the overall job satisfaction explaining more variance than the sub-facets of job satisfaction itself, such as satisfaction with the work itself, satisfaction with the supervision, satisfaction with co-workers if tested individually. Later, Griffith et al. (2000) reaffirmed the influence of job satisfaction on actual voluntary turnover process in their widely acknowledged meta-analysis.

Organizational commitment is another important job attitude found to have a significant effect on actual voluntary turnover (Bluedorn, 1982; Payne & Huffman, 2005; Panaccio et al., 2014). Griffith et al. (2000) identified lack of commitment as

an important antecedent of actual voluntary turnover. Prior studies support the notion that attitudes related to organizational commitment are strongly related to actual voluntary turnover. More so, organizational commitment was found to be strongly and negatively related to actual voluntary turnover (Payne & Huffman, 2005; Simons & Roberson 2003). Panaccio et al. (2014) and Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky (2002) concluded that organization commitment is one of the significant factors that influences actual voluntary turnover. Griffeth et al. (2000), who identified job satisfaction as a plausible predictor of actual voluntary turnover, also demonstrated that organizational commitment was an important antecedent of turnover. Kaur and Mahajan (2014) support this finding too. They observed that organizational commitment had a negative effect on actual voluntary turnover, such that a committed employee was less likely to leave an organization when compared to individuals who were uncommitted. Sharma and Azmi (2014) conducted a two-phase study among B-school teachers in India to examine the relationship between pay, supervision, work-schedule, organizational commitment, and actual voluntary turnover. The structural equation modeling technique applying LISREL showed that organizational commitment had a negative association with actual voluntary turnover of the teachers as hypothesized.

Other predictors that have been well researched in relation to actual voluntary turnover include promotional opportunities (Böckerman et al., 2013; De Lange et al., 2008; Luzius & Ard, 2006; Lyness & Judiesch, 2001), workload and schedules (Hayes, O'Brien-Pallas, Duffield, Shamian, Buchan, & Hughes, 2006; Lyons, La

Valle, & Grimwood, 1995), role conflict (Law, 2010), institutional factors (Becher, 1989; Cohoon, Schwalb, & Chen, 2003; Nelson, 1997; Volkwein, Malik, & Napierski-Prancl, 1998; Zhou & Volkwein, 2004), organizational identification (Mael & Ashforth, 1995), personality characteristics (Barrick & Mount, 1996; Zimmerman, 2008), supervisory styles (Lu & Lee, 2008; Gonzalez et al., 2009; Mankin, 2009), job autonomy (Ahuja, Chudoba, Kacmar, McKnight, & George, 2007; Liu et al., 2011; Reineholm, Gustavsson, Liljegren, & Ekberg, 2012; Wall & Clegg, 1981). In particular, promotional opportunity as a predictor has been well researched in relation to actual voluntary turnover. For example, Luzius and Ard (2006) found that dissatisfaction with the work environment and the absence of promotional opportunities were cited the key reasons for former academic librarians to quit their job. On same note, Böckerman et al. (2013) examined the influence of adverse working conditions (e.g., physically and mentally heavy work harms, uncertainty, and hazards), work organization (e.g., promotion opportunities, discrimination and supervisor support) and available job alternatives factors (e.g., wage level and mental health) among 2,978 Finnish employees. Specifically, their research data set contained the records of employees' actual job switches obtained from a longitudinal register data. They demonstrated that poor promotional opportunities, mental health symptoms, poor working conditions, and discrimination were positively associated with the unwillingness to stay in a job.

Hayes et al. (2006) conducted a comprehensive review of the related literature on nursing turnover and discovered that the nursing professionals cited



management failure to communicate clearly, offer opportunities for growth and promotion, offer praise and recognition, and manage schedules and workloads led to their actual departure. In a related survey, Zuger (2004) found that heavy workloads caused doctors to leave the profession, and between 30% and 40% indicated that they would not choose the profession again or encourage others to do so.

Law (2010) investigated the relationship between social comparisons with peers, age, stress, gender discrimination, physical appearance, role conflict, and actual voluntary turnover. The investigation was carried out on 247 female auditors who were formerly working in different public accounting outfits across Hong Kong. He observed that role conflict had the highest explanatory power among the predictor variables. Social comparison with age, stress and peers were also found to be influential predictors of actual voluntary turnover decisions. These findings evidently support social comparison theory, which posits that people are driven to assess their opinions and abilities via social comparison with others. A specifically interesting result is that neither gender discrimination nor physical appearance is an influential predictor, thus, contradicting the results of studies done in Japan and the United States of America (Anderson, Johnson, & Reckers, 1994; Komori, 2008).

Previous studies revealed that institutional factors, such as academic discipline, institutional size, mission, complexity, prestige, type, and wealth played a significant role in predicting actual voluntary turnover among faculty. For example, Zhou and Volkwein (2004) and Volkwein et al. (1998) found that institutional size, mission, complexity, prestige, and type exerted influence on faculty turnover.

Empirical studies on the impact of organizational identification on actual voluntary turnover have been carried out. Mael and Ashforth (1995) conducted a study among new army recruits in the USA using their biodata to explore the effect of identification and found that both the biodata determinants and identification had a negative association with actual voluntary turnover.

According to the literature, agreeableness and conscientiousness are among the personality characteristics that have attracted much research attention and have been found to be significantly related to actual voluntary turnover. For example, Zimmerman (2008) conducted a meta-analysis to investigate the influence of the big five factor of personality, job satisfaction, job complexity, and performance on actual voluntary turnover. He discovered that the different dimensions of personality played a major role in predicting actual voluntary turnover. Particularly, agreeableness and conscientiousness best predicted actual voluntary turnover, but emotional stability correlated less with actual voluntary turnover. Barrick and Mount (1996) conducted a different study to evaluate the degree to which personality is useful in determining turnover. The investigation used the five-factor model of personality (FFM) commonly referred to as the Big Five. The five-factor model offers a well-accepted taxonomy that increases our understanding of the association between personality characteristics and some important organizational outcomes. The representative characteristics of the FFM are agreeableness (courteous, trusting, cooperative, and empathic); extraversion (sociable, talkative, active, and ambitious), conscientiousness (dependable, organized, persistent, and achievement-oriented),

openness to experience (imaginative, cultured, broad- minded, and flexible), and emotional stability (calm, unemotional, secure, and not angry). Barrick and Mount found that only conscientiousness and emotional stability predicted actual turnover in two different samples of truck driver applicants.

Supervisory style is another predictor found to have a significant influence on actual voluntary turnover. Supervisory style is defined as a form of the relation existing between a supervisor and his or her subordinates in an organization (Lu & Lee, 2008). It is also viewed as the preferred way of dealing with individuals collectively or individually involving the attitudes and values of the supervisor (Lewis, Thornhill, & Saunders, 2003). Gonzalez et al. (2009) conducted a study among a sample of 69 employees formerly in the employment of public child welfare outfit in the United States of America. They wanted to know why they left their jobs and positions. Responses were generated through a telephone interview. They reported that 29% of the participants cited issues with supervision as the key reason for why they left; 65% cited poor style of supervision and 35% poor relationship with their supervisors. Meanwhile, 25% cited that changes in supervisory style would have made them remain with the organization. In a related survey, Dickenson and Perry (2002) found that those who stayed and those who left perceived the quality of supervisory style differently in a research study among 235 employees of a public organization, in the USA. They revealed that leavers rated supervisory style at a significantly lower level in terms of willingness to listen to job-related issues and the degree to which supervisors can be relied upon when issues get

tough at work and assist employees to get their tasks accomplished. Also, significant differences were noted in terms of stayers and leavers' views on the style and attributes of their supervisors. Leavers rated their supervisors as less concerned with staff welfare, less competent, gave less approval of a job well done, less assisting in accomplishing difficult tasks, and less friendly and warm when employees encountered problems. However, those that stayed cited the reverse responses.

Literature indicates that job autonomy is among one of the predictors of AVT that has attracted much research attention and has been found to have a significant effect on actual voluntary turnover. Liu et al. (2011), for instance, investigated the influence of autonomy and empowerment on employee turnover. The data were gathered from a manufacturing firm dealing in auto spare parts. The investigation involved three stages that spanned over a time period of eight months. In stage 1, the data were gathered through the on-line administration of questionnaires among a sample of 1215 participants. Stage 2 involved a total of 817 respondents, who were recruited four months after Stage 1. And finally, Stage 3 was done four months after the second stage. The study found that job autonomy significantly reduced employee turnover. Likewise, Reineholm et al. (2012) conducted a two-year follow-up investigation on the relationship between work conditions and actual voluntary turnover. The investigation was among 792 two civil servants. Using logistic regressions to analyze the data collected, they showed that job autonomy was positively associated with actual voluntary turnover. They explained that employees with high job autonomy had stronger career advancement prospects.

Meanwhile, Chen, Chu, Wang, and Lin (2008) conducted a longitudinal study to determine if factors of workload, supervisory support, distributive justice, kinship support, inadequate resource, and job satisfaction can influence actual voluntary turnover. The study was conducted in two waves. In the first wave, the investigation was conducted among 412 registered nurses employed by a general hospital in Taiwan, who were given mail questionnaires. The second wave was done three years later, where data on actual turnover were collected among 308 participants, comprising 132 leavers and 176 stayers in which stayers were coded 0 and leavers 1. With the exception of workload, the remaining indicators poorly predicted actual voluntary turnover.

Josephson et al. (2008) conducted a study to find out whether individual antecedents, health problems and working conditions lead to higher turnover and prolonged sick absenteeism among a cohort of 2,293 Swedish nurses spanning over a period of three years. During the three-year follow-up, participants were compared on two outcomes, actual voluntary turnover and having at least one sick absence. The results revealed that 18% of the participants left their employment, and 16% were absent due to sick leave. Both groups cited that low self-rated general health, being socially excluded by superiors and/or co-workers, and negative impacts of organizational changes as factors that increased the rates of actual departure and long-term sick leave. Brewer et al. (2012) undertook a longitudinal study to determine whether personal characteristics, job attributes, opportunity, job attitudes, and shock influence actual voluntary turnover from 1,653 registered nurses. The

study mailed two surveys distributed one year apart. The result indicated that when intent to stay was omitted from the probit model, organizational commitment and job satisfaction were found to be negatively linked to actual voluntary turnover, confirming their significance to turnover studies. Estryn-Behar et al. (2010) also conducted a longitudinal research that empirically tested the relationship between work-related factors, personal factors, job search, and actual voluntary turnover. The study among the nurses specifically investigated the determinants that differentiate leavers and stayers within the nursing profession and more importantly identified factors of premature turnover. First, a cross-national exploratory European survey was used involving 34,587 nurses employed in 623 different hospitals, comprising two measurements with a one-year time interval. Secondly, based on the follow-up measurement, a total of 866 leavers and 14,016 stayers formed the final samples for the study. More specifically, leavers were asked to state to what extent work-related, and personal factors had contributed to their leaving the healthcare institution. Interestingly, the results indicated that about 86.8% of the nurses voluntarily left. They cited family reasons such as caring for relatives, working conditions (e.g., time pressure and quality of care, emotional difficulties, job schedule difficulties, lack of autonomy, dissatisfaction with salaries, and lack of satisfaction with the use of one's competence) and the need for continuing education and health for quitting.

Morazes, Benton, Clark, and Jacquet (2010) conducted explored the differences and similarities between leavers and stayers among a sample of Title IV-E MSW graduates. Interview transcripts were thematically coded to compare and

contrast the perceptions, motivations, and experiences of 82 leavers and 304 stayers and over a 10-year period data collection period. Overall, the results indicated that stayers demonstrated experiences that lessen the impact of job pressures. Specifically, they reported that they received a lot of support from their supervisors high. Leavers tended not to have experienced these buffers. In other words, those who left perceived that the support they received from the supervisors was low and expressed more difficulty in balancing their professional and personal lives.

Other studies have been carried out on either turnover reasons or the comparative measurement of actual voluntary turnover (e.g., Campion, 1991; Clausen, Tufte, & Borg, 2012). Campion (1991) undertook a study to determine the meaning and appropriateness of alternative ways of measuring actual voluntary turnover besides using the organization's archival records. The study was conducted among 325 former university lecturers, 568 supervisory officers, and 568 replacement workers. He indicated that avoidability and voluntariness significantly related to turnover reasons, while functionality was not significantly found to be related to turnover reasons. Clausen et al. (2012) carried out a two-fold prospective cohort study to ascertain the reason for actual voluntary turnover. The study was carried out among 7,025 workers employed by an eldercare agency in Denmark, who voluntarily left, retired, worked in eldercare at follow-up, and those who left their jobs during follow-up. Individuals who left their jobs were specifically asked why they left. The study revealed that 461 former employees primarily cited that psychosocially motivated work conditions caused them to leave.

Although a reasonable number of studies have been conducted to investigate various factors that influence employee turnover, empirical studies on actual voluntary turnover, especially in the Nigerian context, are limited. Thus, there is a need to explore workplace further actual voluntary turnover so that the results from past research can be generalized to the Nigerian context. For example, Nwadiani and Akpotu (2002) conducted a study to investigate actual turnover rates in eight Nigerian public universities for the period of 1990-1997 among 442 academic staff and 44 former academic staff. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, which showed that the average turnover rate for the period was 16.18%, and a total of 1,476 academics voluntarily left the universities. The result also found that professors had the highest average rate of turnover (20.88%), the social sciences teaching staff had the highest average rate of turnover of 20.58%, and the female academics had a higher average turnover rate of 18.99% than to their male counterparts. In a more recent work, Gbenu et al. (2014) conducted a comparative study on the retention policies and actual turnover among 474 academic staff in 284 state and 190 federal higher institutions in the Lagos State, Nigeria between 2001 and 2010. They revealed a significant difference in the retention policies between the state and federal higher institutions. They also showed a significant difference in academic staff turnover among the academic staff of these institutions.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, the above two are among the very few studies in Nigeria. Even they two noted above did not consider the determinants



of actual voluntary turnover. Instead, they focused on turnover rates, which did not address actual voluntary turnover in Nigerian.

Despite the above mentioned empirical studies and theoretical arguments on the role of various predictors in explaining turnover intention, a review of the literature reveals the following flaws. Firstly, past models of turnover have traditionally and consistently considered job satisfaction and organizational commitment as measures of actual voluntary turnover (e.g., Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Payne & Huffman, 2005; Panaccio et al. 2014), implying that less attention has been paid to the effects of other factors, especially pay satisfaction. Further, the results of prior studies indicated that the link between organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and actual voluntary turnover ranges from being weak (Griffeth, et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Lee et al., 2004 Mitchell et al., 2001; Van Breukelen, Van der Vlist, & Steensma, 2004) to even not significant (Cohen, 2000; Taylor, Audia & Gupta, 1996). Secondly, the above-mentioned studies were mainly conducted in the western world and Asia with less attention given to the African continent, particularly, Nigeria. Thirdly, in terms of job-related factors, less attention has been paid to job embeddedness.

In sum, despite the presence of empirical evidence on the role of actual voluntary turnover predictors, the literature reveals that limited research works have been done empirically to examine the influence of pay satisfaction, job embeddedness, and perceived alternative job opportunities on actual voluntary

turnover. Even if any, the findings are inconsistent, necessitating more studies to be carried out.

#### **2.4. The Relationship between Actual Voluntary Turnover and Turnover Intention**

Exploration and analysis of turnover intentions have been a mainstay of the general turnover research since its advent (Cho & Lewis, 2012; Dalton, Johnson, & Daily, 1999; Kirschenbaum & Weisberg, 1990). Turnover studies have traditionally investigated turnover intention rather than actual voluntary turnover. The majority of them rely on measuring employees' future intention to leave, and such studies suggest that turnover intention serves equally well as both a predictor of and proxy of employees' actual voluntary turnover (Dollar & Broach, 2006). Extant turnover literature is replete with examples of actual voluntary turnover that is inferred based on analyses of employees' turnover intentions and its correlates. Such studies are premised on the assumption that intention is the best predictor of actual turnover (Bertelli, 2007; Dalton et al., 1999; Lee & Whitford, 2008; Steel & Ovalle, 1984).

The rationale for the use of turnover intention as a proxy of AVT stems from the attitude theory that generally supports the assumption that intention is the best predictor of actual behavior (Kraut, 1975; Mobley et al., 1978; Price & Mueller, 1981). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) contend that "the best single predictor of an individual's behavior will be a measure of his intention to perform that behavior" (p. 369). In line with this argument, intention is expected to be the strongest proxy of

actual voluntary turnover (Currivan, 1999; Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom et al., 1984; Lee & Whitford, 2008; Mobley, 1977; Vandenberg & Nelson, 1999). Mobley et al. (1979) concluded that the strongest predictor of actual voluntary turnover should be the intention to leave. Other researchers that support the use of intention as a proxy argued that it is advantageous to do so because the two constructs are related (Minor, Dawson-Edwards, Wells, Griffith, & Angel, 2009), and that turnover intention is superior to other affective antecedents in the prediction of actual voluntary turnover (Steel & Ovalle, 1984).

However, some researchers argued that using intention as a proxy of actual voluntary turnover is questionable because it appears to be a less reliable predictor than it was initially assumed in most employee turnover literature (Jung, 2010). Lending support to this line of argument, Tett and Meyer (1993, p. 280) asserted that “results of studies using intent to leave as the sole withdrawal criterion ... may not generalize well to situations involving actual voluntary turnover.” More importantly, Cohen et al. (2015) found intention a poor proxy, and argued that using it as such could potentially yield unreliable results. In addition, Cohen and colleagues offered strong evidence that turnover intention and actual turnover were indeed two distinct and contrarily explained constructs, explained by two separate sets of antecedents. Therefore, using intention as proxy is of little practical usefulness to explain actual voluntary turnover. Other researchers also demonstrated conflicting findings with regard to the usefulness of turnover intentions as a reliable proxy of AVT (Cho & Lewis, 2012; Jung, 2010; Kirschenbaum & Weisberg, 1990). While some scholars

have found a weak relationship between intention and AVT (Lee & Mowday, 1987, others reported an insignificant relationship (Kirschenbaum & Weisberg, 1990; Jung, 2010).

Most importantly, the rejection of using intention as proxy is mainly due to the following methodological justifications (Joseph et al., 2007). Using turnover intention as a proxy of AVT is likely to produce inflated relationships with other variables due to percept-percept bias (Hom et al., 2012). Percept-percept bias is the selective process by which one perceives what he/she wants in information while ignoring opposing viewpoints. In other words, it is a broad selective term to identify the behavior an individual displays to tend to "see things" based on his/her particular frame of reference (Crampton, & Wagner, 1994). Additionally, it has also been established that using intention as a proxy could introduce random and non-random measurement error into analysis. Measurement error occurs when the constructs of interest within sample are measured incorrectly. As a result, the conclusion is likely to hold not true for the larger population, and in fact it may not even hold for the study sample (Bert, 2010). A random measurement error represents the disparity between measured and actual values of a construct, where the values of the measured construct are likely to be more than actual values in one measurement, whereas in the next measurement, the measured value may be lower than the actual values because they are caused by fluctuations in measurement (Waltz, Strickland, & Lenz, 2010). This kind of error in a dependent construct could result in larger standard errors for a model's coefficients. On the other hand, in non-random measurement

error, the disparity in measurement values from the computed average is mainly in the same direction. This kind of error occurs because something else is being measured and as such an error in a dependent construct could bias coefficient estimates. Undoubtedly, either type of measurement error can lead to invalid conclusions regarding the relationships between the constructs (Wooldridge, 2002). This imperfect mapping of turnover intention into actual voluntary turnover as a proxy is a cause for researchers to be wary in quantitative analyses. This is because the imperfect relationship could raise the issues of measurement reliability and validity. For example, one might say he/she intends to quit his or her job because he/she recently happened to have a bad encounter with their immediate boss, not due to some true underlying intention to quit (Joseph et al., 2007). This action may distort the true picture of what constitutes actual voluntary turnover.

Vandenberg and Nelson (1999) argued that it should not be assumed that once an individual starts to express high tendencies of intention to quit that an actual voluntary turnover will take place. This is because the mere expression of an intention is not sufficient to predict actual voluntary turnover. For instance, there are instances where employees who express intention to quit an organization might not actually end up doing so. There are also instances in which one which indicates a plan to remain might engage in the actual act of leaving on what amounts to a whim (Kirschenbaum & Weisberg, 1990; Oluwafemi, 2010). Empirical results also showed that intention to leave hardly explains actual voluntary turnover variance beyond 10 to 15 percent (Allen, Weeks, & Moffitt, 2005; Griffeth et al., 2000).

Jo (2008) also contended that using turnover intention limits our understanding of the actual voluntary turnover process. In agreement with this, Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2007) also noted that not all the people who expressed their intent to quit switched jobs, an indication that an expressed intention does not necessarily translate into actual voluntary turnover behavior. This might be due to external antecedents that are difficult to be measured and controlled, such as pregnancy, childbearing, family status, family income, or alternative job opportunities. Dollar and Broach (2006) conducted a study which compared the relationship between intentions and actual turnover to estimate future turnover. The comparative investigation was conducted among employees working in the administrative arm of the Federal Aviation Centre in the United States of America. The data used to measure the quit variable were obtained from the database of a periodic study of the employees. The Centre periodically conducts such studies usually every two or three years. In these surveys, employees are usually asked about their attitudes, perceptions as well as other issues as they relate to the organization. In their study, periodic data for three years were used. The 1997 data involved a total sample of 25,004 participants. In the year 2000, 24,489 were sampled and in 2003, 22,720 participated. Actual turnover was measured for the periods between 1998 and 2004. The rate of actual turnover was calculated using ratio in terms of the number that left to the total number of individuals recruited for each year. Z-test of proportion was used to compare the proportion of workers that expressed their intention to quit to the proportion that actually left. The result found that intention to

quit significantly overestimated actual voluntary turnover caused by measurement error.

In a related cross-sectional and longitudinal study to examine the predictive power of intention on actual separation among 251 employees in Israel, Kirschenbaum and Weisberg (1990) found a significant association between age, levels of wage, tenure, and actual voluntary turnover. However, the perception of colleagues and work repetitiveness variables do not predict actual voluntary turnover. These findings affirmed the distinctiveness of intentional and actual turnover as different variables that were only superficially related and were affected by different sets of antecedents, with intention being a weak predictor of actual voluntary turnover. In another study among 352 former nurses tracked down 14 months after they left the various hospitals under the National Health program in the UK, Morrell et al. (2008) found that the time interval between the first thoughts of leaving and the decision to quit was significant. However, the time interval between the decision to quit and actual voluntary departure was not significant. Similarly, in a study among federal government workers in the USA, Jung (2010) found an insignificant correlation between intent rates and actual organizational turnover rates.

Perhaps, more importantly, Tett and Meyer (1993) argued that the use of turnover intention as a proxy of actual voluntary turnover should be questioned because turnover intention measures accounted for only 7% of the variance in actual voluntary turnover in their meta-analytic research. They, therefore, cautioned that research works that use turnover intention as the sole predictor of actual voluntary

turnover may not have much validity. As a result of the ongoing controversy regarding the use of intention as a proxy, Dalton et al. (1999) proposed some guidelines suggesting that proxy variables are used only under the conditions that the actual voluntary turnover construct is unavailable. The behavior of interest could not be included in the study design without using the proxy, and the literature suggests that the proxy-actual turnover correlation is at least 0.50. But due to a lack of agreement, the guidelines were rejected, suggesting it is highly preferable to treat both as separate measures whenever possible (Morell et al., 2007).

Based on the foregoing discussion, most studies have considered turnover intention as a proxy, but still, there are unanswered questions about the degree to which turnover intention accurately predicts actual voluntary turnover (Hom et al., 2012; Kirschenbaum & Weisberg, 1990). This study argues that turnover intention and actual voluntary turnover may not be as closely related as some theories have assumed. Methodologically speaking, actual voluntary turnover is an objectively measurable phenomenon while turnover intention is subjectively and indirectly assessed. Indeed, turnover intention may vary as a result of praise for a job well done, dispute with a supervisor, or rumors about the future changes such as merging or downsizing (Kirschenbaum & Weisberg, 1990). Additionally, changing circumstances often prevent an individual from putting his/her sincerest intention into action. Most fundamentally, Cohen et al. (2015) offered strong evidence that turnover intention and actual turnover were indeed two distinct and contrarily explained constructs, explained by two separate sets of antecedents. Hence, they



concluded that turnover intention had little usefulness as a proxy of actual voluntary turnover.

Due to the limitations of turnover intention, the present study sought to contribute to the growing body of actual turnover literature among public employees as past studies on the public sector studies tended to consider turnover intention as the dependent variable (Jung, 2010). This lack of research is a matter of theoretical and practical concern; hence, this study explored actual voluntary turnover of former faculty members in public universities in Nigeria.

## **2.5. Pay Satisfaction**

Rynes, Gerhart, and Parks (2005) recognized pay satisfaction as a functionally strategic human resource management construct, defined from various perspectives. Pay satisfaction can be defined from at least three different perspectives, including the traditional perspective, employee perspective, and organizational perspective. From an employees' perspective, pay is perceived as compensations that are necessarily required by employees to meet their basic needs of life and improve their standards of living. From the traditional perspective, pay satisfaction is often seen as an organizational process that deals with the compensation of its workers who contribute and/or perform a particular job task. From an organizational perspective, it is often seen as an administration and design of the different categories of pay systems such as financial and non-financial rewards offered to the workers who perform a service or a job task (McShane & Von Glinow, 2008). Most organizations

design a pay plan to reward their workers based on the job performed. This perspective emphasizes that a pay system plan should be based on employees' length of service, tenure, or seniority (Heneman & LeBlanc, 2003). While the first two perspectives of pay satisfaction are equally important, this study adopted the organizational perspective for the reasons below.

Employers provide different forms of compensation to workers in exchange for their contribution to the goals and objectives of their organizations. Of the various types of compensation availed by the organizations, pay is a critically significant variable (Bartol & Locke, 2000; Heneman & Judge 2000; Graham & Welbourne, 1999; Milkovich & Newman, 2004). Conventionally, a pay system involves all types of rewards, such as salary, benefits, pay raises and the process by which the reward system is administered (Heneman & Schwab, 1985; Judge, 1993). It is also conceptualized as the sum of monetary reimbursement an individual receives, and the degree to which a specific compensation is perceived to be fair (Bartol & Locke, 2000). It is also perceived as an important variable that encompasses salaries and wages, reward, and remuneration system (Ismail, Mohamed, Hamid, Sulaiman, Girardi, & Abdullah, 2011) offered by the organizations as a reciprocal return for an employee's contribution (Milkovitch & Newman 2004; Heneman & Judge 2000; Gardner, Dyne, & Pierce, 2004). It is equally recognized as an avenue for retention (Lum et al., 1998) and as a means of preventing the best-performing employees from leaving the organization (Gardner et al., 2004; Trevor et al. 1997).

Past studies indicate pay as an important attribute of satisfaction. Locke et al. (1980) argued that “No other incentive or motivational technique comes even close to money with respect to its instrumental value” (p. 379). Thus, employees perceive and regard pay as attractive and fair if it aligns proportionately to their expectations and competence. Moreover, the motivational level of an individual is dependent upon the possibility of getting sufficient pay (Gardner et al., 2004). It is significantly paramount for the employing organizations to adequately and commensurably reward members for the contributions rendered (Abdullah, Bilau, Enegbuma, Ajagbe, Ali & Bustani, 2012; Howard, 1999; Thwala, Ajagbe, Enegbuma, Bilau, & Long, 2012).

A comprehensive review of related literature indicates that pay satisfaction is a multidimensional construct even though a universal agreement is lacking as to whether there is one (Orpen & Bonnici, 1987), three (Carragher, 1991; Scarpello, Huber & Vandenberg, 1988), four (Heneman, Greenberg, & Strasser, 1988; Heneman & Schwab, 1985; Scarpello et al., 1988; Sturman, & Carragher, 2007; Williams et al., 2008), or five (García, Posthuma, Mumford, & Quiñones, 2009; Mulvey, Miceli & Near, 1992) dimensions of the construct. Orpen and Bonnici (1987) conducted a study to test the multidimensional nature of pay satisfaction involving a sample of 101 academic staff members, randomly selected from five universities in Australia. Their results indicated that there may be a single dimension underlying satisfaction with various components of pay, not the four components or dimensions as posited by Heneman and Schwab (1979). In another study conducted

among 146 MBA students enrolled in a South-Eastern University in the USA, Carraher (1991) concluded that pay satisfaction comprises three components identified as pay level, pay benefit, and pay structure. Sturman and Carraher (2007) conducted a study to find out the dimensionality of pay satisfaction of 402 teachers employed in five districts in South-West, USA and 435 financial services employees. Their findings supported the four-dimensional structure of Heneman and Schwab (1985), which involves pay level, pay raises, pay benefits, and pay structure. Finally, García et al. (2009) conducted a study to explore the dimensionality of pay satisfaction among 236 blue-collar Mexican maquiladora workers. The result of their confirmatory factor analysis showed a five-factor solution of pay level, raises, benefits, structure/administration, and bonuses.

The present study adopted the Heneman and Schwab's (1985) multidimensional pay satisfaction construct, what came to be known as Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ) four-factor structure for several reasons. First, prior studies have demonstrated the multidimensional nature of pay satisfaction as a four-factor solution (i.e., pay level, pay benefits, pay raise and pay structure/administration) (Carraher & Buckley 1996; Currall, Towler, Judge, & Kohn, 2005; Deconinck, Stilwell, & Brock, 1996; Heneman et al., 1988; Heneman & Schwab 1985; Judge 1993; Judge & Welbourne 1994; Shaw, Duffy, Jenkins, & Gupta, 1999) as the most frequently cited measure of pay satisfaction. Pay level is defined as an employee's current direct reward such as salary or wage. Pay raises refer to the employee's change in pay level. Benefits refer to the indirect pay offered

to an employee in the form of insurance etc. while pay structure concerns the procedures by which the pay system is administered (Heneman & Schwab, 1985; Milkovich & Newman, 2008). Secondly, even though there is no universal agreement concerning the exact number of dimensions to define the overall pay satisfaction construct (Lam 1998; Mulvey et al. 1992), most studies have shown that the four-factor solution is adequate enough as it taps the contribution of each dimension to the overall pay satisfaction construct (Currall et al., 2005). Thirdly, it is broader and much suitable within the Nigerian context.

Empirical support for the link between pay satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover is limited. Some studies focused on a single component of pay satisfaction as the predictor of actual voluntary turnover. For example, Lum et al. (1998) observed that several pay satisfaction-turnover research works had adopted one-dimensional construct to determine pay satisfaction (Keaveny & Inderrieden, 2000; Lawler, 1971), or focused on only one facet of pay satisfaction to measure the pay level of employees (Williams, McDaniel, & Nguyen, 2006).

Secondly, the majority of the few studies on the association between pay satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover have produced conflicting results. Some studies reported pay satisfaction as the primary reason for leaving whilst others revealed other reasons (e.g., Ambrose, Huston, & Norman, 2005; Amey, 1995; Mallam 1994; Cropsey et al., 2008; Xu, 2008b). For example, Amey (1995) found that 49% of male academic staff and 27% of female academic staff cited pay as the primary reason for leaving the university. Similarly, Mallam (1994) found a

significant relationship between pay satisfaction and turnover in a sample of 208 academic staff on full-time employment of some selected tertiary institutions in Nigeria. Cropsey et al. (2008) investigated the reasons for faculty turnover among 160 former faculty members of a university medical school in Virginia, USA. The exited employees were asked to complete a survey providing reasons why they left. The results of the study found a significant relationship between pay satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover among all categories of academic staff. But, in a different study, Ehrenberg, Kasper, and Rees (1991) found pay to be relevant only to the junior faculty members while Weiler (1985) found pay to be more significant among professors. In a narrative and meta-analytic review, Borman and Dowling (2008) found pay satisfaction construct exerted the strongest effect on faculty members only much later in their careers.

In a related study, Stanz and Greyling (2010) investigated the influence of organizational and personal predictors on actual voluntary turnover among 262 nurses in Gauteng Province, South Africa. Discontentment with pay satisfaction was found to be the major factor that made some of the professional nurses to quit the job. Similarly, Motowidlo (1983) found a significant association between pay expectation and pay on actual voluntary turnover among 89 sales employees of manufacturing outfits that deal in industrial products and equipment located in the USA. Meanwhile, Peterson and Luthans (2006) conducted a quasi-experimental research among 58 randomly selected employees across 20 fast food units in Midwest, USA and found both monetary and non-monetary incentives significantly

related to actual voluntary turnover. In another study among 824 former employees of the clothing industry in the UK, Taplin, Winterton, and Winterton (2003) found that the presence of a relatively low level of pay rates in comparison to other manufacturing firms. Other studies also found that pay satisfaction was significantly related to actual voluntary turnover (Hall, Pearson, & Carroll, 1992; Ingersoll, 2001; Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Kirby, David, Grissmer, & Hudson, 1991; Murnane & Olsen, 1990; Murnane, Singer, & Willett, 1989; Podgursky, Monroe & Watson, 2004).

Despite the huge amount of literature indicating a significant relationship between pay satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover, other scholars, such as Xu (2008b), argued that pay variable may not be the sole determinant when employees choose to leave a given organization; rather, there is a bit more to it such as work satisfaction and quality of life. In their study of 123 academic staff, Ambrose et al. (2005) reported that pay only served as an additional reason for their actual voluntary departure behind a more pressing issue. In tandem with Ambrose et al.'s (2005) study, Burke (1987) revealed that quality of life issues outweighed pay in preventing members of the academia from leaving.

Other studies similarly reported other factors as more significant than pay satisfaction in the prediction of actual voluntary turnover. Lippard, Peevely, and Green (2000), for instance, reported dissatisfaction with the work environment and not salary as the most influencing determinant that made participants leave. In a related study, Rosser (2004) found a substantial number of faculty members

indicating pay in itself was not the most significant part of the job that offered satisfaction. Rather, they regarded it as just one of those factors responsible for why faculty members left their institutions. Salamin and Hom (2005) further concurred that bonus added to the regular pay had more effect on reducing turnover than the regular pay increase. In a related study using self-reported data from Staffing and Schools Survey from 1988-1994 and a 1991-1992 Teacher Follow-up survey, Ingersoll (2001) found that the effect of pay satisfaction on advanced faculty members was small; instead faculty members left their institutions due to poor working conditions that included poor student discipline policies, limited authority to make decisions, and inadequate administrative support rather than due to pay package.

Netswera, Rankhumise, and Mavundla (2005) found that pay satisfaction was not significantly related to actual voluntary turnover. Tang, Kim, and Tang (2000) undertook a study to determine the influence of employee's attitudes toward money on actual voluntary turnover among 155 mental health professionals in the southeastern part of the USA. Data were gathered over two periods. Time 1 lasted 18 months, and Time 2 was done after the expiration of Time 1. The study found contrasting results. The first outcome revealed a higher actual voluntary turnover rate among individuals who valued money regardless of whether the job was intrinsically satisfying or not. The second outcome found lower turnover among individuals who did not value money as an intrinsic motivator. In a related study, Khatri, Fern, and Budhwar (2001) also found an insignificant association between pay satisfaction and



actual voluntary turnover within the Asian context. The same result was reported by Glandon and Glandon (2011).

Additionally, Boe, Bobbitt, Cook, Whitener, and Weber (1997) found a positive and significant relationship between pay satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover. Meanwhile, Brewer (1996) found evidence that supported the existence of a positive relationship between pay satisfaction and turnover among 5,500 female teachers drawn from 708 districts in New York, USA. Similarly, Hanushek, Kain, and Rivkin (2004) found that a turnover rate was more strongly linked to student characteristics than to pay differentials among teachers in Texas, USA. Other studies offered divergent viewpoints. Griffeth et al.'s (2000) meta-analysis found a modest relationship between pay satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover.

In sum, even though the relationship between pay satisfaction and turnover has led to the generation of a huge wealth of studies and interest over the years, overall only a handful of literature has empirically tested the effects of pay satisfaction on actual voluntary turnover and reports of such studies appear mixed as highlighted above. Several reasons may account for the mixed results. First, the construct of pay satisfaction was measured differently across these studies. Second, these studies paid less attention to the effects of how the relationship between pay satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover may be strengthened through a moderator. The next section discusses a review of the literature on job embeddedness.

## **2.6 Job Embeddedness**

Mitchell et al. (2001) were the first to introduce the concept of job embeddedness (JE). It is a relatively new multi-dimensional perspective in turnover literature, defined as “the combined forces that keep a person from leaving his or her job” (Yao et al., 2004, p. 159). These forces are present on-the-job, as well as off-the-job, and are often likened to strands in a “net” or “web” in which people can become “stuck” (Mitchell et al., 2001). This assertion implies that an individual is enmeshed in or locked into the social web of his/her surroundings, which include the organizations where he/she works as well as the community where he/she dwells (Gusfield, 1975; Mitchell et al., 2001).

Theoretical and empirical studies have suggested that job embeddedness is a multidimensional construct comprising two different dimensions: organizational embeddedness and community embeddedness (Mitchell et al., 2001; Yao et al., 2004). Each dimension comprises three causal components namely fit, links and sacrifices (Felps et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2000). Organizational embeddedness relates to how much the employees are enmeshed in the job and organization. On the other hand, community embeddedness refers to how enmeshed the employees are in their community outside of work (Crossley et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2004; Ng & Feldman, 2007). Meanwhile, each of these causal factors is considered both on-the-job and off-the-job. The first of these causal forces is links, which is “the extents to which people have links to other people or activities” (p. 1104). The second, fit, is “the extent to which their jobs and communities are similar

to or fit with the other aspects of their life spaces” (p. 1104). The third force is sacrifice, which is “the ease with which links can be broken – what they would give up if they left, especially if they had to move physically to other cities or homes” (p. 1104). The combination of the two dimensions and three causal factors results into organizational embeddedness comprising fit to the organization, sacrifice to the organization, and links to the organization. Community embeddedness consists of fit to community, sacrifice to the community, and links to the community.

Fit to organization describes employees’ perceived comfort or compatibility with an organization (Mitchell et al., 2001). Accordingly, the greater the perceived compatibility between individuals’ abilities, skills and knowledge and those needed by their job, the more they perceive organizational fit. Also recognized in organizational fit is an extent of perceived congruence between their goals and values and those of the organization. The more the congruence, the greater they perceive fit with the organization. But, an employee who has a low degree of fit will be less attached to that organization, making it easier to sever ties with the organization. On the other hand, fit to the community is defined as the perceived fit individuals have with the immediate community they reside in. This includes a perception of fit between individuals and their community’s culture, how well they enjoy the climate within the immediate community, and the available recreational amenities that the community’s geographical location is able to provide (Mitchell et al., 2001).

Sacrifice to the organization is described as the perceived psychological benefits or cost of material that may be forfeited by quitting a job (Mitchell et al., 2001). A person who leaves an organization may have to give up position in a job hierarchy, presence on work teams and committees, cherished work relationships and benefits that are provided to the person's organization. Accordingly, workers who consider leaving but are ready to sacrifice valued social relationships and job-related perks would be more likely to terminate their employment voluntarily. Conversely, sacrifice to the community is considered as the perceived sacrifice individuals must make in order to give up their communities. If employees were to leave their immediate communities to accept job offers in a different geographical location, they might need to sell their houses, give up their pleasant communities, lose valued social relationships, or give up a convenient daily work commute. If individuals value the aspects of the community they reside in, they will be more reluctant to give up their jobs. This assertion implies that community sacrifice plays a major role in employees' decision to stay or to quit the job.

Links to the organization are theorized as informal or formal relationships between an individual and organization or other individuals that are developed as a result of working for an organization (Mitchell et al., 2001). These links can include social connections, such as supervisors, co-workers and the number of work committees or team of which one is a part. Accordingly, the lesser links individuals have to their organizations, the more likely they are willing to sever ties with the organization. In contrast, links to the community are the social ties individuals have

with those who live in their communities. For instance, people may have a group of friends they get together with on a weekly basis, or may have many family members in their homes. The line of assertion claims that the lesser links people have in their immediate communities, the easier it will be to give up those links and leave the immediate community and vice versa.

Based on the aforementioned, these aspects of individuals' fit, sacrifice and links form a contextual net or web that triggers employees to become embedded in their jobs, organization, and/or community. The components of links, fit, and sacrifice promote an overarching collection of retaining forces that exert influences on employees' decision not to quit their jobs. A few studies have explored the relationships between job embeddedness and actual voluntary turnover (Crossley et al., 2007; Dawley & Andrews, 2012; Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006; Holtom & O'Neill, 2004; Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, & Mitchell, 2012; Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010; Tanova & Holtom, 2008; Young, Stone, Aliaga, & Shuck, 2013). But, Mitchell et al. (2001) were the first to initiate the theoretical concept of embeddedness. In their original proposition of the JE construct, the researchers assessed the construct among samples of hospital personnel and grocery store employees. The hospital sample included 208 workers while the grocery store sample involved 177 randomly selected workers from eight different stores. Both samples responded to a self-administered questionnaire containing 42 items on personal characteristics, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job search behavior, voluntary turnover, and job embeddedness. Their

study produced the following results. First, the findings showed a negative relationship between embeddedness in the organization and turnover intentions. In addition, a negative relationship between job embeddedness and actual voluntary turnover emerged from the findings. Second, the results found that job embeddedness predicted actual voluntary turnover over and beyond that of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job search for both samples. This outcome suggested that the more embedded the individuals were, the less likely the employees would leave their organization. Even though Mitchell et al. (2001) used overall job embeddedness to establish its influence on behavior at the workplace, their study undoubtedly represents a significant contribution to the turnover literature by demonstrating the ability of job embeddedness in advancing the prediction of actual voluntary turnover above and beyond the traditional and generic variables (e.g., organizational commitment, job satisfaction). However, the study, like other job embeddedness-actual turnover studies, is not without some limitations. A major weakness of their study is that it used overall job embeddedness, without measuring two main dimensions, namely, organizational and community embeddedness as separate and distinct constructs (Kraimer, Shaffer, Harrison, & Ren, 2012; Lee et al., 2004). So, their results may be limited to explaining the relationship between job embeddedness and actual voluntary turnover.

Subsequent to Mitchell et al.'s (2001) and other studies that used overall job embeddedness (e.g., Holtom & O'Neill 2004), research studies started measuring job embeddedness construct into two main dimensions, namely organizational and

community embeddedness (Kraimer et al., 2012). Against this background, Lee et al. (2004) were among the first to empirically differentiate and test these two dimensions of job embeddedness as separate entities. Their research theorized and tested the moderation effects of both dimensions of job embeddedness on the influences of absenteeism, job performance, and OCB on actual voluntary turnover. The investigation among the sample of 636 workers of a large international financial institution found that both dimensions individually heightened the negative influences of OCB on actual voluntary turnover. Similarly, Jiang et al. (2012) performed a meta-analysis using 65 independent samples. Their results indicated that community and organizational embeddedness, affective commitment, job satisfaction, and job alternatives all uniquely contributed to the prediction of actual turnover. Hence, the findings clearly demonstrated that all of these constructs, including both community and organizational embeddedness, provide a meaningful role in understanding actual voluntary turnover.

Ramesh and Gelfand (2010) proposed that collectivistic and individualistic cultures would impact job embeddedness of individuals. For instance, in collectivistic cultures, individuals are likely to emphasize the need to fulfill their obligations and duty. In contrast, individuals in individualistic cultures are likely to stress on developing one's personal potential. As such, Ramesh and Gelfand (2010) set out to examine job embeddedness to two different cultures. India is known for its collectivism, whereas the USA is considered an individualistic country. The investigation was undertaken among 797 employees of call centers, of which 474

employees were located in India and 323 in the United States to find out whether the predictive validity of job embeddedness would generalize from a collectivist to an individualistic culture, namely, from India to the United States of America, and to determine whether the sub-components of organizational and community embeddedness may be differentially predictive across the two cultures. The outcomes revealed the predictive validity of job embeddedness in both the US and Indian contexts. Specifically, one of the findings showed that the predictive capability of job embeddedness in explaining actual voluntary turnover variance was higher in India. More so, they discovered that the links component of organizational embeddedness was a better predictor in India than in the USA. Meanwhile, the fit component of community embeddedness was a better predictor in the USA than in India.

Another job embeddedness dimensions-actual turnover study was conducted by Tanova and Holtom (2008) on the role of job embeddedness on actual turnover using survey data from the European community Household Panel across four European countries, namely, Italy, Denmark, Spain, and, Finland. The results indicated that both dimensions of job embeddedness significantly predicted actual voluntary turnover across the whole sample. But, in Italy and Denmark, it was only organizational embeddedness that predicted turnover, whereas in Spain and in Finland, both community and organizational embeddedness predicted actual voluntary turnover. Evidently, Tanova and Holtom's (2008), and Ramesh and



Gelfand's (2010) studies have increased our understanding of the predictive ability of job embeddedness on turnover across cultures and countries.

Holtom and Inderrieden (2006) made an attempt to integrate the concept of shocks to predict turnover based on job embeddedness. The investigation was conducted among a sample of 1,898 GMAT test takers. The findings revealed that job embeddedness predicted incremental variance in turnover over and above job satisfaction and gender. Further, data on shocks was obtained at the same time as the turnover data. Of 819 leavers, 475 cited shock-induced exit. Meanwhile, 344 leavers did not experience any shocks. Interestingly, the shock-induced leavers significantly demonstrated a greater level of job embeddedness than non-shock induced leavers. Though the data on shocks were retrospectively collected, it appeared that job embeddedness buffers the impact of shocks on actual voluntary turnover.

Recently, Dawley and Andrews (2012) undertook a quantitative research among two separate samples. The first sample comprised 1,189 white-collar government workers in the USA. The second sample included 346 full-time hospital nurses at a hospital in the USA. They demonstrated that both dimensions of embeddedness related negatively to actual voluntary turnover. However, organizational embeddedness was found to explain turnover variance more than community embeddedness. In a related study among government employees, Young et al. (2013) explored the effects of job embeddedness on the retention of 631 extension agents across two states. They indicated that the effect of job embeddedness differed significantly between the two groups. Holmes, Baghurst, and

Chapman (2013) undertook a phenomenological study to find out the extent to which human resources practitioners choose to stay or leave the organization by investigating their perceived lived experiences. A semi-structured face-face/telephonic interview was conducted among 18 human resource practitioners who worked for a government outfit. The study offered qualitative evidence of the predictive capabilities of job embeddedness construct on actual voluntary turnover.

Conclusively, while the aforementioned empirical studies found that job embeddedness influenced behavioral outcomes (Kiazad, Holtom, Hom, & Newman, 2015; Lee et al., 2004; Ng & Feldman, 2007; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010), Mitchell et al.'s (2001) original presentation assumed that individuals embedded in their jobs and organizations also were embedded in their communities. Nevertheless, Lee et al.'s (2004) study was the first to distinguish between the dimensions of job embeddedness as distinctively different. Ng and Feldman (2007) also reasoned that job holders could be embedded in one but not necessarily the other. For instance, an employee may fit job demands, has multiple ties to co-workers in the work environments, and sacrifice a corner office if he/she leaves a job. Yet, this employee may lack fit with corporate values, has few links with the employees outside the work environment, and has few organizational perks (e.g., pension) that he/she loses on leaving. In short, he/she could be embedded in a particular job but not the organization or community (Ng & Feldman, 2007). In light of these arguments, the present study measured the dimensions of job embeddedness as an individual construct that may differentially influence the behavior at the workplace, based on

the suggestion of Lee et al. (2004) and Ng and Feldman (2007). Additionally, most of the studies failed to test job embeddedness as a second-order formative construct due its multidimensionality (Podsakoff, Shen, & Podsakoff, 2006). Hence, in order to understand actual voluntary turnover better, the present study assessed the influence of job embeddedness as a second-order construct comprising fit and sacrifice as first-order reflective constructs with organizational and community embeddedness as second-order formative constructs on actual voluntary turnover.

## **2.7 Moderator**

Extensive reviews of prior studies indicate that the index measuring perceived alternative job opportunities (PAJO) comprises at least five components (e.g.; Griffeth et al., 2005; Jackofsky, 1984; Steel & Griffeth, 1989). Unfortunately, however, several turnover scholars chose certain facets of PAJO and measured them with a single-item scale (Griffeth et al., 2005; Steel & Griffeth, 1989). For instance, measures such as “employment opportunity” (Price & Mueller, 1981), “ease of movement”, (Jackofsky & Peters, 1983), or “availability of alternatives” (Mobley et al., 1978) have been used. All these measures do not capture the full dimensionality of PAJO and only account for a small portion of actual voluntary turnover variability (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom et al., 1992). Additionally, Steel and Griffeth (1989) also opined that PAJO is often operationalised by a single-item scale, which could be the reason for its weak predictive validity. To overcome this, Griffeth et al. (2005) developed an Employment Opportunity Index (EOI) as a measure of that aspect of

the turnover process that involves employees' consideration of perceived ability to maintain employment by leaving and joining a different employer. Principally, the EOI is a measurement scale meant to capture alternative job perceptions.

Griffeth et al. (2005) vehemently argued that PAJO cannot be captured as a one-dimensional construct. They later developed the Employment Opportunity Index (EOI) to capture the richness of PAJO originally conceived by March and Simon (1958). Notably, items that comprise the EOI scales are shown to be predictive of actual turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). The index consists of five dimensions of PAJO, namely, ease of movement, desirability of movement, mobility, crystallization of job alternatives, and networking. Three of the dimensions appear quite distinctive, and their similarity needs to be highlighted. These are ease of movement, desirability of movement, and mobility.

Ease of movement dimension (Jackofsky & Peters, 1983; Michaels & Spector, 1982) explains the general accessibility of alternative job opportunities (Steel, Lounsbury, & Horst, 1981). It identifies the ease with which the individual feels they may find alternate job option, based on the awareness of the availabilities and number of jobs. Ease of movement is directly linked to marketable skills and competencies of the individual that cause them to be attractive to other employers. For instance, in the original conceptualization of ease of movement, it was explained that females, older employees, and lower social status employees faced greater difficulty in finding alternative job options (March & Simon, 1958). While ease of movement pertains to the quantity of jobs available, the desirability of movement

dimension refers to the quality of those alternative jobs (Billings & Wemmerus, 1983; Peters, Jackofsky, & Salter, 1981). It is possible to create a number of alternative job options without having any real improvement in the job situation. March and Simon (1958) identified that the length of service, skill level, and specialization in decreasing the value of extra-organizational alternative jobs perceived. As individuals progress in their chosen careers, the number of employers with ability or desire to offer an improved job situation could become fewer.

The key component of the desirability of movement dimension is the expectation that a job switch would help acquire a better job (Griffeth et al., 2005). It may be relatively easy to find a suitable alternative job, but the suitability of the offer is influenced by the degree to which the individual is uprooted emotionally, physically, or financially. The psychosocial portions of switching jobs are addressed in this mobility dimension. This involves influence upon the family, benefits obtained through tenure, and psychological effect of the new job (Steel & Griffeth, 1989). Lack of mobility can render PAJO unsuitable where reluctance to uproot children, or dual careers cause the individual to be substantially attached to a location or employer (Griffeth et al., 2005).

Crystallization of job alternatives dimension (Griffeth & Hom, 1988) is employed to identify the individual's perceived concreteness of alternative job opportunities. In other words, definite employment offers seem more useful than just a general impression that there are jobs available (Steel & Griffeth, 1989). Thus, crystallized job alternatives would serve more of an inducement to quit the job

actually than a vague impression that there are alternative employment options to which the individual could go.

The final dimension is networking. Steel and Griffeth (1989) described it as having access to job availability information and envisaged it as sources of information via advertising outlets, and personal networks of co-workers, family, and friends. Information is a vital in the search for alternative employment opportunities, and it can equally be posited that higher quality of information is of greater advantage to this process (Griffeth et al., 2005). The measure of networking includes the importance of helpful contacts in each of its items.

The multi-dimensional approach is useful for the complex evaluation of PAJO. Notably, unidimensional measures have a history of being poor predictors (Griffeth, et al., 2000). A multi-faceted construct recognizes individual differences that are expressed in ways that one-dimensional measures may not differentiate (Griffeth et al., 2005). An example is to compare the conceptual difference between “How easy it was to have found an acceptable alternative employment?” (Michaels & Spector, 1982) and “If you left your previous job, how difficult was it to find another job that was just as good?” Interestingly, the EOI dimensions as developed by Griffeth et al. (2005) reveal more detail in perceptions of alternative jobs opportunities than earlier conceived. Any of the five dimensions could be rated highly by an individual, along with weak ratings on other dimensions generating significant nuanced differences. For instance, family obligations may cause an employee’s low mobility, though ease of movement may be high due to several

alternative employments available. In addition, ease of movement and mobility are not associated with the question of whether or not the jobs are any better than the present job (desirability of movement). These dimensions considered collectively and individually present a much richer measure of a PAJO. The EOI is the first measure to assemble these many dimensions of perceived alternative job opportunities together (Griffeth et al., 2005). By capturing a higher percentage of variance in the withdrawal process, it is possible that the index contributes both predictive and explanatory power to the process of actual voluntary turnover.

Furthermore, in spite of the pioneering efforts of March and Simon (1958) which explained PAJO as an important predictor of actual voluntary turnover, researchers did not start to pay much attention to the underlying psychological processes surrounding the association between alternative jobs and actual voluntary turnover not until after Mobley's (1977) presentation of the intermediate turnover model. Lee et al. (2008) noticed that even though these earlier studies included PAJO into their studies (Griffeth et al., 2005), not much attention was focused on PAJO as an important determinant. Earlier findings showed that of a total of 67 empirical studies, only 11 reported alternative jobs having a direct and strong association with actual turnover (Hulin et al., 1985; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Lee & Mowday 1987; Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Griffeth et al., 2000).

Even though extant literature has acknowledged that the availability of alternative jobs increases actual voluntary turnover, there is a paucity of studies examining the effect of PAJO on AVT (March & Simon, 1958; Mobley, 1982; Price

& Mueller, 1981). Nonetheless, a few exceptions include a study by Josephson et al. (2008) to find out whether working conditions and individual antecedents predict turnover spanning over a three-year period among 2,293 registered nurses in Sweden. They demonstrated that when opportunities for alternative jobs were plentiful, the rate of actual voluntary turnover increased. Both Weiler (1985) and Matier (1990) found a positive relationship between the perceived attractiveness of an external employment and faculty actual turnover. Similarly, in a meta-analytic study, Joseph et al. (2007) also found a positive association between the variables.

Contrary results were also reported. Michael and Spector (1982) found an insignificant association between perceived alternative job opportunity and actual voluntary turnover among workers of a health outfit in the USA. In another separate study among 606 employees with the diverse occupational background, Kammeyer-Mueller, Wanberg, Glomb, and Ahlburg (2005) found a weak association between PAJO and actual voluntary turnover. Other studies found a modest association (e.g. Griffeth et al., 2000). The overall outcomes revealed that when opportunities for the alternative job are plentiful, employees are more likely to leave than it is when opportunities are scarce (Josephson et al., 2008).

Since empirical evidence is scarce, our understanding of the role of job embeddedness and pay satisfaction variables in influencing actual voluntary turnover is limited. However, the few studies that assessed the influence of the variables on actual voluntary turnover reported inconsistent results, suggesting that some other



mechanisms may be at play in the turnover link. Such inconsistent results could be further understood with the inclusion of a moderating variable.

Baron and Kenny (1986) suggested that moderating variables are often incorporated when the association between the independent and dependent construct is inconsistent or weak. Put it differently, a moderating variable is usually incorporated to strengthen the association between the predictor and criterion variable. Understanding the moderating role of PAJO on job embeddedness, pay satisfaction, and actual voluntary turnover is, therefore, important. In the present study, perceived alternative job opportunities were incorporated as a moderating variable because of its purported potentialities to improve our understanding of the inconclusive findings and also to explore the form or/and magnitude of the association between job embeddedness, pay satisfaction, and actual voluntary turnover. Nonetheless, prior studies have explored the moderating role of perceived alternative job opportunities on different relationships, for instance, between organizational commitment and employee voluntary turnover (Addae, Parboteeah, & Velinor, 2008), job satisfaction and employee turnover (Hwang & Kuo, 2006), job search objectives, hierarchical level and career satisfaction, leverage-seeking objectives and compensation (Boswell, Boudreau, & Dunford, 2004) ,and job reactions and job acceptance (Liden & Parsons, 1986). These studies serve as part of the basis for formulating the proposed theoretical framework. For example, Addae et al. (2008) conducted a research study to determine whether perceived employment opportunities moderate the link between the three facets of organizational

commitment and voluntary turnover. The investigation was conducted among 226 employees drawn from seven public owned ministries located in St Lucia, USA. The result revealed that perceived alternative job opportunities moderated the association between continuance commitment and employee turnover. In another research, Hwang and Kuo (2006) examined the direct and moderating effects of perceived alternative job opportunity on the association between job satisfaction and voluntary turnover. The study was conducted among 259 public employees in Taiwan. As hypothesized, they revealed that perceived job opportunities moderated the linkage between job satisfaction and turnover among employees. Similarly, Liden and Parsons (1986) observed that perceived alternative employment moderated the linkage between job reactions and job acceptance of 422 job applicants in the USA. Boswell et al. (2004) also investigated the moderating effects of perceived alternative job opportunity and the relevance of rewards on the relationships between job search objectives, leverage-seeking objectives and compensation, hierarchical level, and career satisfaction. The study was conducted in two separate surveys. The participants for the Study 1 were 1,601 managers drawn from Ray and Berndtson's database in the USA. The follow-up survey was done among 587 participants. They revealed that perceived job employment opportunity moderated the association between leverage-seeking search objectives and career satisfaction. However, the link between both hierarchical level and compensation was not moderated by perceived alternative job opportunity.

## **2.8 Underpinning Theory**

Theories have been used widely to explain socially important behaviors and attitudes (Fielding, Terry, Masser, & Hogg, 2008). In this study, job embeddedness theory (JET), social exchange theory (SET), and social interdependence theory (SIT) were used as to underpin the research framework.

### **2.8.1. Social Exchange Theory**

Social Exchange Theory (SET) (Blau, 1964) is one of the most influential conceptual philosophies for explaining work-related attitudes and behaviors (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960; Homans, 1958; Thibault & Kelley, 1959). Its origin and development can be traced back to at least in the 1920s (Malinowski, 1922; Mauss, 1925), bridging such disciplines as sociology (Blau, 1964), social psychology (Gouldner, 1960; Homans, 1958; Thibault & Kelley, 1959), and anthropology (Firth, 1967; Sahlins, 1972). The theory argues that social exchange involves series of interdependent interactions that can generate duties and responsibilities (Emerson, 1976) and the ability to produce high-quality relationship (Blau, 1964). A high-quality relationship directed at employees can create a sense of obligation (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Settoon et al., 1996). These obligations can in turn trigger individuals to reciprocate in positive and beneficial ways on behalf of the organization and to remain within the relationship. The perceived quality of the exchange relationship is presumed to come from a norm of reciprocity that suggests

that benefits received should be reciprocated in kind (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Gouldner, 1960).

Social exchange theory offers a theoretical argument for the relationship between pay satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover. The theory suggests that a high-quality exchange relationship initiated by the employer and directed towards employees should theoretically be able to shape employees' behavior in the workplace through a system that is satisfying (Blau, 1964; Settoon et al., 1996). In other words, SET suggests that actual voluntary turnover can be reduced by establishing an employer-employee relationship that is favorable and of high quality (Tekleab et al., 2005).

Regarding the link between pay satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover, pay satisfaction literature shows that there is a general agreement among scholars that high-quality exchange relationships play a vital role in increasing employee level of pay satisfaction (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) while reducing actual voluntary turnover (Panaccio et al., 2014). In other words, it is argued here that pay satisfaction produces a sense of obligation among the employees that their employer acknowledges and values their contributions and efforts. As a result, these employees, in turn, reciprocate in the form of positive behavior and attitude. Accordingly, the more an employee's levels of satisfaction with his/her pay, the less likely his/her involvement in actual voluntary turnover and vice versa.

In addition, empirical research using the theory has strongly supported the social exchange-based perspective, and the theory has been used to a broad range of

phenomena. As such, social exchange theory's explanatory value has been felt in various areas such as actual voluntary turnover (Tekleab et al., 2005), board independence (Westphal & Zajac, 1997), pay satisfaction (Bhave et al., 2012) and networks (Brass, Galaskiewicz, Greve, & Tsai, 2004) among others. For example, using the social exchange theory, Gardner et al. (2004) conducted a study to understand better how and why pay satisfaction level influences the behavior of employees in the workplace, among workers of a construction company in the midwestern part of the USA. They revealed that employees who received more inducements in the form of pay that the organization provided felt highly valued that their efforts had been acknowledged and reciprocated in a positive way, which can be translated into lesser involvement in actual voluntary moves.

Cropsey et al. (2008) studied former faculty members and discovered that pay satisfaction was a significant determinant of actual voluntary turnover in Virginia USA. Likewise, Panaccio et al. (2014) in a recent study utilized a social exchange framework to analyze actual voluntary turnover among HRM professionals, focusing on the influence of pay satisfaction, continuance, and affective commitment, as well as negative affectivity. They found support for the importance of pay system for the exchange relationship, with pay satisfaction being negatively associated with actual voluntary turnover.

### **2.8.2. Job Embeddedness Theory**

Job embeddedness theory (JET) (Mitchell et al., 2001) posits that individuals can become enmeshed or embedded in their jobs, organizations, or communities through a number of forces. The combination of these forces (i.e., fit, sacrifice) offers examples of how behavior in the workplace or community arises. The theory also suggests that these forces are present in the organizations (i.e., on-the-job) as well as in the communities (i.e., off-the-job), which are often likened to threads in a “net” or “web” in which one can become “stuck” or embedded (Mitchell et al., 2001).

Accordingly, this theory holds that a good employee–employer fit takes place when an individual's personal career goals and values “fit” with the larger organizational norms and with the demands of his or her immediate job (e.g., job knowledge, abilities, and skills). Additionally, fit also entails one having to consider how well he or she fits with components of the immediate community, such as a safe environment, good weather conditions, religious affiliations, or leisure facilities (Mitchell et al., 2001). More so, the theory equally describes sacrifice as the perceived cost of social, psychological or material benefits that one would lose at any given time if he or she chooses to leave the employing organization and/or community (Sekiguchi et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2012), such as losing contact with friends, perks or personally relevant projects. Taken together, the theory suggests that a good employee-employer fit and social, psychological or material benefits that one would forfeit should theoretically be able to restrain employees from voluntarily leaving the organization and/or community (Mitchell et al., 2001).

Although a relative new theory, prior studies have confirmed the sound predictive ability of job embeddedness theory across a variety of occupations including professionals in finance (Allen, 2006; Felps et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2004), state correctional employees (Bergiel et al., 2009) healthcare workers (Crossley et al., 2007; Holtom & O'Neill, 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001) as well as across constructs such as socialisation tactics (Allen & Shanock, 2013), individualistic and collectivistic cultures (Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010), performance (Karatepe, 2013), actual voluntary turnover among others (Mitchell et al., 2001; Holtom et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2004; Sekiguchi et al., 2008). Specifically, in relation to actual voluntary turnover, Jiang et al. (2012) performed a meta-analysis involving 65 independent samples. They found that both organizational and community embeddedness held meaningful roles in understanding actual voluntary turnover, suggesting that job embeddedness was a predictably valid variable. Mitchell et al. (2001) found that all sub-dimensions of community embeddedness were negatively related to actual voluntary turnover in a sample of hospital employees. Lee et al., (2004) also reported that employees that were less embedded in their community demonstrated higher actual voluntary moves. Likewise, in a related study, using information from the European Community Household survey, Tanova and Holtom (2008) confirmed the hypothesis that when individuals are less embedded in their various organizations, they are more likely to involve in actual voluntary turnover. Given the relative support for the theory across various endeavors, it was predicted that this

theory would offer support for the job embeddedness dimensions–actual voluntary turnover link.

### **2.8.3. Social Interdependence Theory**

Social interdependence theory (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959) postulates that interdependence in a relationship is characterized by two structural components: satisfaction in light of the comparison level, and dependence in light of the comparison level for alternatives. Satisfaction levels refer to employees' evaluation of outcomes in a relationship in order to obtain satisfaction or dissatisfaction in light of their comparison level, which is described as "the standard against which employees evaluate how satisfactory the relationship is or the attractiveness of the relationship" (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959, p. 21). If the outcomes derived from the relationship compare favorably to the comparison level, the employees are more likely to be satisfied; if the outcomes are below the comparison level, they are likely to experience dissatisfaction.

Dependence in light of the comparison level for alternatives serves as "the standard the employees use in deciding whether to remain in an employment or leave" (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959, p.21). In other words, these represent what the employee uses in deciding to stay in or leave the relationship in terms of what he/she is likely to get elsewhere in another relationship. The height of the comparison level for an alternative will primarily be contingent upon the availability of the best of the employees' available alternatives, that is reward and costs positions perceived to



exist as the most satisfactory of the other available alternative. Employees' comparison levels below the level of outcomes experienced in the current organization suggest that employees are satisfied with their pay and are more embedded in their organization and community. On the other hand, when the comparison level is higher than outcomes experienced in the current organization, the employees become dissatisfied with their pay and less embedded in their organization and community, and this should shape the way they behave in the current organization.

There are ample empirical results supporting the central role of social interdependence theory as an underlying principle for understanding job-related interactions, such as in integrative negotiations (Johnson & Johnson, 2003b), conflict (Deutsch, 1973; Tjosvold, 1991), distributive justice (Deutsch, 1985), power (Coleman & Tjosvold, 2000; Johnson & Johnson, 2008), and social identity among others (Tyler & Blader, 2000). In turnover studies, Ehrenberg and Smith (1982) proposed that an external job market with plentiful jobs options is more likely to raise the comparison level for alternative jobs and job change. A labor market that offers scarce and perhaps poor job alternatives is more likely to reduce the comparison level for alternative jobs and actual voluntary moves (Michaels & Spector, 1982; Steers & Mowday, 1981).

In explaining the moderating role of PAJO on the relationship between job embeddedness, pay satisfaction, and AVT based on the principle underlying social interdependence, this study proposed that the degree to which job embeddedness and

pay satisfaction are able to influence individuals to demonstrate actual voluntary turnover behaviors are contingent upon the availability of PAJO. The fewer the number of alternative job opportunities in the external market, the less likelihood of individuals' involvement in actual voluntary turnover. Since social interdependence theory cuts across different work settings, this theory would offer empirical support for the moderating effect of PAJO on the links between job embeddedness, pay satisfaction, and actual voluntary turnover.

## **2.9 Summary**

The above review of the relevant literature shows that AVT is fundamental to organizational life and survival. To date, a sizable number of AVT predictors have been identified in the literature. Despite these studies, very few have explored the effects of both job embeddedness and pay satisfaction on AVT, which reported mixed findings. The literature thus far suggests for more comprehensive and data collection approaches and analyses. As a result, the present study advocated evaluating the phenomenon under study by incorporating PAJO as a moderator on the relationship between job embeddedness, pay satisfaction, and AVT. By doing so, the present study hopes to understand and explain the predicting forces of AVT among former academics in the Nigerian public universities better by including three main theories that could explain the relationships.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH FRAMEWORK DEVELOPMENT**

#### **1.3 Introduction**

The preceding chapter reviewed the relevant studies on actual voluntary turnover, job embeddedness, pay satisfaction, perceived alternative job opportunities, and the underpinning theories. This chapter begins by proposing a research framework, followed by the development of the research hypotheses. The chapter ends with a summary.

#### **1.1 Research Framework**

From the review of the relevant literature and theoretical gaps noted in the previous chapter, the present study hypothesized that job embeddedness and pay satisfaction influence actual voluntary turnover with the moderating role of perceived alternative job opportunities. The framework illustrating the various relationships between the variables is schematically shown in Figure 3.1. In this study, actual voluntary turnover was the criterion variable. The predictor variables were pay satisfaction and the two dimensions of job embeddedness, namely, organizational embeddedness and community embeddedness. Additionally, this study proposed perceived alternative job opportunities as a plausible moderator on the association between job embeddedness dimensions, pay satisfaction, and actual voluntary turnover.

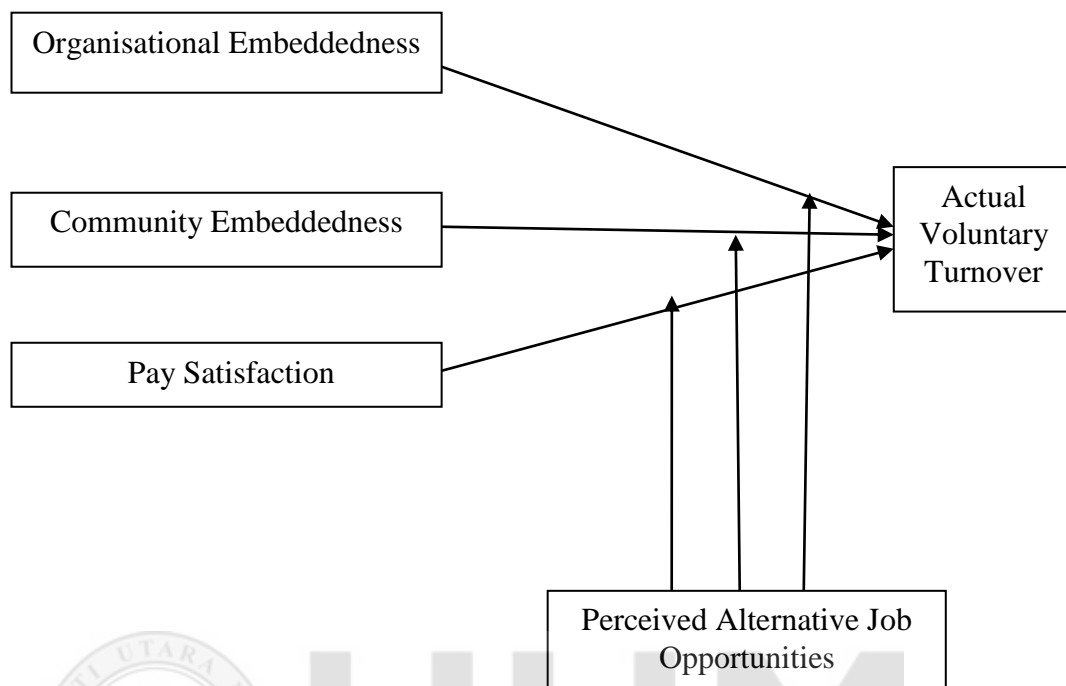


Figure 3.1  
*Theoretical framework*

### 3.3 Hypotheses Development

This section concerns the development of the hypotheses, developed from the existing literature. Six hypotheses were formulated for testing and validation.

#### 3.3.1 Relationship between Job embeddedness and Actual voluntary turnover

Job embeddedness has been examined across diverse samples (e.g., Allen, 2006; Crossley et al., 2007; Cunningham et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). In some studies, community embeddedness was found to predict turnover better than organizational embeddedness (e.g., Lee et al., 2004) while, in others, organizational embeddedness predicted better (e.g., Allen, 2006). Community

embeddedness dimension focuses on the aspects of the community that embed the employee to his/her community (e.g., quality of available leisure activities, family-oriented environment), whereas organizational embeddedness emphasizes the aspects of the organizational environment that embed the individual to his/her job and organization. Examples include pension, promotional opportunities, pension scheme, perks among others (Lee et al., 2004).

Job embeddedness theory (Mitchell et al., 2001) posits that both organizational and community embeddedness would shape the behaviour of employees both at work and in the surrounding community. In tandem with these theories, previous studies showed that organizational embeddedness was negatively associated with actual voluntary turnover. For example, Smith, Holtom, and Mitchell (2011) found that organizational embeddedness was related to actual voluntary turnover among air force personnel in the USA. A similar finding was reported by Allen (2006). Tanova and Holtom (2008) also investigated the effect of job embeddedness on voluntary turnover across four European Countries (Spain, Finland, Denmark, and Italy). They revealed that only organizational embeddedness predicted actual voluntary turnover among Danish and Italian samples. Also in a recent meta-analytic research based on 65 independent samples, Jiang et al. (2012) found a negative relationship between organizational embeddedness and actual voluntary turnover. Using a cross-sectional sample of employees drawn from a financial center in the USA, Lee et al. (2004) confirmed the negative relationship between community embeddedness and AVT. Similarly, Mitchell et al. (2001)

sought to understand better the influences of job embeddedness dimensions on AVT. With a sample of grocery store and hospital employees, they also found that community embeddedness negatively related to AVT among hospital workers.

Both research and theory clearly indicated that job embeddedness dimensions are negatively related to AVT even when other turnover determinants were incorporated (Mitchell et al., 2001). Theoretically, the relationship between job embeddedness dimensions and AVT is in line with job embeddedness theory, which suggests that the more an individual embeds into a web of different types of forces connecting the individual to a job, an organization and/or a community, the higher the likelihood that such forces will serve to restrain the individual from leaving the organization and/or the community (Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001) voluntarily. Based on the aforementioned theoretical and empirical contributions, we thus hypothesized that:

**H1:** Organizational embeddedness would be negatively related to actual voluntary turnover

**H2:** Community embeddedness would be negatively related to actual voluntary turnover

### **3.3.2 Relationship between Pay Satisfaction and Actual Voluntary Turnover**

Previous research has shown that pay satisfaction can be important construct that may assist organizations in retaining talented employees (Heneman & Judge, 2000;

Milkovich & Newman, 2004). Pay satisfaction is defined as the overall negative or positive affect or feelings that an employee has towards his/her pay (Miceli & Lane, 1991). Similarly, it is considered as a strategy that would shape employee behavior at work (Salleh & Memon, 2015). Extant literature has empirically supported a negative link between pay satisfaction and AVT (Griffeth et al., 2000; Stanz & Greyling, 2010; Tekleab et al., 2005). These findings are consistent with the works of Amey (1995) and Cropsey et al. (2008) who confirmed the importance of pay in AVT among faculty members. Of recent, a study conducted by Panaccio et al. (2014) found that pay satisfaction had a negative association with AVT among a sample of HRM professionals in the eastern part of Canada. As people maximize self-interest through higher pay, those who perceive that their pay is highly satisfactory demonstrate a lesser likelihood to leave the organizations (Shaw et al., 1998).

In order to have an in-depth understanding of the relationship between pay satisfaction and AVT, this study draws from social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). The theory suggests that employer-initiated actions directed at employees would contribute to the creation of a high-quality relationship, which produces a sense of obligations for employees to reciprocate in a positive way. Accordingly, the more an employee is satisfied with his/her pay, the less likely he/she will voluntarily quit and vice versa. The hypothesized relationship between pay satisfaction and AVT was thus as stated below:

**H3:** Pay satisfaction would be negatively related to actual voluntary turnover.

### **3.3.3. Moderating Role of Perceived Alternative Job Opportunities on the Relationship between Job Embeddedness and Actual Voluntary Turnover**

This study hypothesized that the negative relationship between the job embeddedness dimensions and AVT is contingent upon the perception of alternative job opportunities. Even though there is a substantial body of studies that examined the effect of perceived alternative job opportunities on AVT, the variable had been tested with a different set of constructs in the models, which, although similar, are different from the one focused upon in the present study (Griffeth et al., 2000; Josephson et al., 2008; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2005; Weiler, 1985). The studies found that the influence of PAJO on AVT was tied to the state of the economy. That is if employees were less embedded in their organization and/or the community, and alternative jobs were plentiful, then AVT was likely to be high (Gerhart, 1990). But, when alternative jobs were scarce, actual voluntary turnover was likely to be small (Joseph et al., 2007; Josephson et al., 2008)

A critical scrutiny of prior studies suggests that social interdependence theory (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959) offers a useful explanation for the moderated influence of PAJO on the relationship between the job embeddedness dimensions and AVT. The theory postulates that an external job market with plentiful job alternatives, many of which offer better or more outcomes than the current position will raise the comparison level for alternatives and job change higher (Hulin et al., 1985) than when the external job market offers a few alternative jobs (Gerhart, 1990; Griffeth et al., 2005). Following this theory, we argue that when alternative jobs are plentiful,



employees are more likely to leave voluntarily. Conversely, if job alternatives are scarce, individuals are more likely to be less likely to leave. The reasoning here is that PAJO may be the construct that is likely to influence the direction or the strength of the link between job embeddedness and AVT. Thus, the moderator effect of PAJO implies that the strength of relationship between job embeddedness and AVT should be weaker for individuals when alternative jobs are available and plentiful than it is when job alternatives are scarce (Allen, 2006; Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001) and vice-versa. Based on the preceding arguments, the following hypotheses are presented:

- H4:** Perceived alternative job opportunities moderate the relationship between organizational embeddedness and actual voluntary turnover.
- H5:** Perceived alternative job opportunities moderate the relationship between community embeddedness and actual voluntary turnover.

#### **3.3.4 Moderating Role of Perceived Alternative Job Opportunities on the Relationship between Pay satisfaction and Actual Voluntary Turnover**

The inherent effects of pay satisfaction on AVT are likely to vary according to the availability of job alternatives. This section focuses on the role PAJO in moderating the pay satisfaction and AVT link.

Turnover theories have long established the significant influence demonstrated by employee's perception of alternative job opportunities (March &

Simon, 1958). According to Mobley et al. (1979), PAJO plays a major role in shaping behaviors that could result in AVT. Existing literature corroborates this notion, explaining that individuals become more apt to leave an organization when alternative job opportunities become available and plentiful (Dinger et al., 2012; Thatcher et al., 2002).

More importantly, studies have empirically argued in favor of PAJO's purported role in moderating several different relationships (Addae et al., 2008; Boswell et al., 2004; Hwang & Kuo, 2006; Liden & Parsons, 1986). Addae et al. (2008) found that PAJO moderated the association between continuance commitment and employee turnover. In another study, Hwang and Kuo (2006) discovered that PAJO moderated the linkage between job satisfaction and voluntary turnover. Similarly, Liden and Parsons (1986) found a moderated relationship between job reactions, job acceptance, and perceived alternative job opportunities. In a recent study by Mushtaq, Amjad, Bilal, and Saeed (2014) showed that the relationship between organizational justice and job satisfaction was moderated by PAJO. The study was carried out among 220 bank employees of 28 different conventional and Islamic banks in Islamabad, Pakistan.

This study drew from Thibaut and Kelley's (1959) social interdependence theory to support the argument that PAJO moderate the relationship between pay satisfaction and AVT. The underlying principle of the social interdependence theory is that an external job market with plentiful alternative jobs is more likely to raise the comparison level for alternatives above the level of outcomes experienced in the

current organization and actual voluntary moves. Theoretically speaking, PAJO may moderate the relationship between pay satisfactions on AVT for several reasons. First, the empirical evidence showed that whether or not individuals are able to leave their job depends on whether alternative jobs are available before they made the decision actually to quit their job (Josephson et al., 2008). Secondly, it has been observed that not all employees who are dissatisfied with their pay quit their jobs (Stanz & Greyling, 2010; Taplin, Winterton, & Winterton, 2003). This scenario suggests that some other mechanisms are at play in the link between pay satisfaction and AVT. Hence, this present study proposed that PAJO may potentially contribute to the better understanding of the relationship. Hence, it was formulated that:

**H6:** Perceived alternative job opportunities moderate the relationship between pay satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover.

### **3.4 Summary**

This chapter discussed the development of the research hypotheses and presented the research model to be examined. Next, a discussion of the research methodology is offered.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the research methodology used in the study. This chapter begins by presenting the research paradigm, research design, and measurement of the variables. This is followed by the discussion of the target population, sample size, sampling technique, data collection procedure, and techniques of data analysis. As the study involved mixed methodologies, the discussion of which will be done accordingly. The last part summarizes the chapter.

#### **4.2. Research Paradigm**

All studies are based on some underlying philosophical assumptions about which method is appropriate for the development of knowledge in a given research. Even though the basic assumptions underlying the paradigm remain substantially hidden in research (Slife & Williams, 1995), a research paradigm guides the practice of research and needs to be identified. In order to perform and assess any study, it is, therefore, essential to know what these assumptions are (McKerchar, 2010). A research paradigm, also known as research philosophy, is defined as “a way of thinking about and conducting research. It is not strictly a methodology but more of a philosophy that guides how the research is to be conducted” (Gliner & Morgan, 2000, p.17). Paradigm as a word was first presented by Kuhn (1970) as the accepted

pattern or model. It is also viewed as the shared values and beliefs of scholars (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Scholars who believe in a shared paradigm would apply the same standards and rules in conducting their studies. Generally speaking, there are two key opposing paradigms, namely, interpretivism and positivism (Brand, 2009; Bryman & Bell, 2011; McKerchar, 2010). In respect of the classification, this philosophical belief often leads individual researchers to embrace a quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods approach for their study (Creswell, 2009).

The concept of a positivist paradigm is directly related to the idea of objectivism. This type of philosophical approach connotes that the principles, concepts and methods of understanding natural sciences could be imitated to resolve the problems in the social world with the help of objectivity in place of subjectivity (Cooper & Schindler 2006). Put it differently, the positivist assumes there is a single reality in social phenomena, and this reality may be found through an objective inquiry (Feilzer, 2009; Bryman & Bell, 2011; Cooper & Schindler 2006), leading to accurate knowledge (Brand, 2009). To a positivist, the phenomenon being studied is independent of the scholar, and knowledge is obtained from the direct measurement of phenomena (Krauss, 2005) which is the fundamental paradigm that underlies the quantitative research approach in data collection and measurement.

In contrast, there is the argument that human behavior in the social world differs from the phenomenon in the natural science, and thus, a different method is needed to understand the social world. Interpretivism is the paradigm that

acknowledges the existence of subjective meanings where both the researchers and the sample population interact (Brand, 2009) to understand the phenomena from the individuals' viewpoints (Creswell, 2009; Neuman, 2011). Furthermore, the supporters of interpretivism argue that a small sample can be evaluated in details to understand the views of a large population through interviews, observations, and case studies (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Kasi, 2009). To fulfill this central argument, interpretivism is usually linked to qualitative research approach (Brand, 2009).

As a consequence of the paradigm 'wars' and the 'incompatible thesis' debates (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 14) between the interpretivists who believe in applying qualitative approach for knowledge enquiry at one end and positivists who support the quantitative approach at the other end, a middle ground approach, i.e., pragmatism, offers another alternative to better understand social issues (McKerchar, 2010). The pragmatic paradigm demonstrates less concern with the philosophical discussions on the existence of multiple realities or single reality (Creswell, 2009; Feilzer, 2009; McKerchar, 2010) or whether knowledge could be uncovered only through subjective perceptions (Wheeldon, 2010). Rather, pragmatism is a research paradigm which is more interested in the appropriate strategy to resolving research problems. It is also about discovering the appropriate approaches to answering what researchers want to uncover (Feilzer, 2009) by using both the qualitative and quantitative approaches to address a research issue (Creswell, 2009; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Pragmatists believe that meaning, truth, and knowledge could change over time, and whatever is presently obtained is

considered as provisional truth (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). This line of argument is consistent with McKerchar (2010), who suggested that research is all about discovery. It is hardly about truth. This is because realistically speaking there is no single absolute truth.

In sum, the research approaches selected should be those which offer the best opportunities for answering research questions (Malina, Nørreklit, & Selto, 2011). In this study, pragmatism is considered an appropriate philosophy for the following reasons. Firstly, the goal of the present study was to test a hypothesized research model by focusing on theory testing and verification rather than developing a new theory; hence, this reflects the possible adoption of pragmatism (Feilzer, 2009). Secondly, it integrates the best of the two worlds and has the end product of data that is rich and harmonizing (Onwuegbuzie, Johnson, & Collins, 2009; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Thirdly, Giddings (2006) asserted that the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches can enlarge and broaden the phenomenon being studied. Fourthly, Mourmant (2009) suggested that it is appropriate to employ pragmatism in turnover studies since the paradigm allows turnover researchers to use different approaches to understanding actual voluntary turnover issues. Lastly and more importantly, the pragmatic paradigm is commonly employed in conducting research inquiry using mixed method research approach (Creswell, 2009; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Feilzer, 2009; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Johnson et al., 2007). Using this paradigm, the present study allowed the researcher to use interview and

survey at the same time to offer a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon being studied.

### **4.3 Research Design**

A research design is a comprehensive outline or master plan of how a study is to be conducted. Typically, a research design includes how the data are gathered, what instruments are used, how the instruments are applied, and the way the data are analyzed. Mouton (1996, p. 175) claimed that a research design serves to plan, structure and execute the research to maximize the validity of the findings. Additionally, Yin (2003, p. 19) defined a research design as “an action plan for getting from ‘*here* to *there*,’ where ‘*here*’ may be defined as the initial set of questions to be answered and ‘*there*’ is some set of (conclusions) answers.”

The present study adopted a mixed method approach to evaluating the structural relationships between job embeddedness, pay satisfaction, perceived alternative job opportunities, and actual voluntary turnover. A mixed-method approach involves the integration of quantitative and qualitative research philosophies, strategies, designs, data collection, analytic approaches, and interpretations (Greene, 2008; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).



#### **4.3.1. Mixed-method Approach**

Generally, quantitative research approach emphasizes the collective opinions of participants in interpreting the results, and hence, it diminishes the viewpoints of single participants. On the other hand, qualitative research method focuses on the perceptions of a few participants, and thus, it lacks the capacity to be generalized (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). A quantitative research approach is also more interested in discovering the relationship between constructs while a qualitative research is more concerned with understanding the subjective meaning of a social phenomenon (Harrison, 2013). But mixed methods are the type of research approach in which a study combines the components of both quantitative and qualitative research approaches to explain the phenomenon being studied by employing different forms of data, methods of collecting data, types of analyses, and reporting. Given this flexibility, studies could employ the mixed method strategy at various phases of the research, namely, at the phase of formulating the research questions and hypotheses, sampling, data collection procedures, analyses, or at the point of reporting the results (Creswell, 2009; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011), for the purposes of in-depth understanding or corroborations (Johnson et al., 2007).

Mixed-methods research was used in the present study for at least three main reasons. Firstly, it was used to increase the validity and credibility of the results from different instruments (Wheeldon, 2010). Secondly, while the mixed-methods strategy may not offer a resolution for all research problems, combining the two approaches in a single study could offer a comprehensive understanding of the

phenomenon being studied (Creswell, 2009). Thirdly, given that the aim of the mixed-method approach is not to replace either qualitative or quantitative approach, it was adopted to tap from the strengths of both approaches in a single study (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). In other words, it was used in this study because it allows multiple data collections through different methods and strategies in ways that reflect non-overlapping weaknesses and complementary strengths, permitting a mixed-method study to offer insights not possible when only quantitative or qualitative data are gathered (Greene, 2008; Johnson & Turner, 2003). Therefore, the incorporation of mixed-methods in this study offered the opportunity to include divergent views that lead to a deeper understanding of actual voluntary turnover among former faculty members in Nigeria public universities.

#### **4.3.2 Mixed-method Research Design**

In carrying out a mixed-method study, scholars have recommended a number of mixed method designs, which include whether both approaches have equal strength, or one approach supersedes the other, and whether the order of conducting the mixed-method research is either concurrently or sequentially done (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2006). Undoubtedly, while there are differences in terms of the number of major research designs being recommended for mixed method studies, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007), Creswell (2009), and Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) agreed that the choice of the appropriate mixed methods design is contingent on several factors. These

include the timing of the study, the weight to be assigned to each qualitative and quantitative strand, the choice of people as samples for the study, and the interpretation of the results. For example, in a typical sequential explanatory design, the qualitative results complement the quantitative results (Creswell, 2009; Harrison, 2013). On the other hand, a concurrent mixed method design is reflected when qualitative, and quantitative data collection and analysis are undertaken concurrently in a single study (Creswell, 2009). In a concurrent mixed methods design, both qualitative and quantitative strands are given equal focus since that they are being performed in the same phase, and data from both strands are also independently analyzed (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Since the object of this study was to understand the influence of job embeddedness, pay satisfaction, and perceived alternative job opportunities on actual voluntary turnover, therefore, the present study adopted the qualitative data.

#### **4.4 Target Population**

Campbell, Machin, and Walters (2007) describe population as the total aggregation of elements or individuals that fulfill a denoted set of criteria. The target population for this study was limited to faculty members that left the employment of public universities in Nigeria and joined private universities located in the southern part of the country within the last 36 months or less. The population excluded those who moved to the universities located in same area/state as their former universities and communities. Public universities were chosen for this study for at least two main

reasons. Firstly, faculty members are specifically seen as the most important human resource in any academic work setting. The failures or successes of the academic process in public universities lie with them (Abiodun-Oyebanji, 2012). Secondly, the increasing rate of actual voluntary departure of skilled and talented academia has been reported, thus, making this choice hugely important for the present study (Gbenu et al., 2014).

In order to obtain the list of faculty members, the researcher made an application to the office of the executive secretary, National Universities Commission (NUC), requesting the list of academic staff in the Nigerian private universities. NUC is a Federal Government agency with the statutory powers to regulate university education, as well as providing public access to education-related information. The request was acknowledged and approved, and the researcher was able to obtain some data of faculty members currently in the employment of private universities. These data represented a record of actual voluntary turnover and included the details of each faculty member in terms of their qualification, year of joining the current university, and their immediate last place of employment. The information was used to compile a comprehensive list to serve as the sampling frame for the present study. Based on the statistics obtained from NUC as at December 2014, 617 faculty members who had left Nigerian public universities and joined private universities within the last 36 months or less were identified as illustrated in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1  
*Private Universities located in the Southern Part of Nigeria*

| S/N | Name of University                | Number of former Academic Staff |
|-----|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1   | Joseph Ayo Babalola University,   | 125                             |
| 2   | Bowen University, Iwo             | 86                              |
| 3   | Redeemers University, Mowe        | 71                              |
| 4   | Godfrey Okoye University          | 75                              |
| 5   | Ajayi Crowther University         | 69                              |
| 6   | Covenant University, Ota          | 58                              |
| 7   | Western Delta University, Oghara, | 42                              |
| 8   | Renaissance University, Enugu     | 46                              |
| 9   | Obong University, Obong Ntak      | 24                              |
| 10  | Samuel Adegboyega University      | 21                              |
|     | Total                             | 617                             |

Since the study employed mixed methodologies, the following discussions are devoted to explaining the method employed in each phase.

## 4.5 Quantitative Phase of the Study

### 4.5.1 Sample Size

The question about sampling most often asked is probably, “how do you know how large a sample must be?” The answer is ‘large enough’ (Gay & Diehl. 1992, p. 140). While such answer is not convincing, an optimal sample is essential for minimizing the cost of sampling error. Salkind (2003) suggested that an appropriate sample size is necessary for any study. This is because too small a sample size is not an appropriate representative of the population. Such a sample may result in committing Type I error that is the probability of wrongly rejecting a particular result when it, in fact, should be accepted (Sekaran, 2003). Sekaran (2003) suggested that a sample size that is large is not good because of the possibility that a type II error may occur,

which is accepting a particular result when it should have been rejected. Other researchers like Bartlett, Kotrlik, and Higgins (2001) contended that there are two main consistent flaws in any sample selection. Firstly, a researcher's disregard for any issues arising from sampling error when determining his or her sample size. Secondly, a researcher's disregard for issues arising from the response and non-response biases. In this respect, the need for researchers to crucially determine a sample size in quantitative research is paramount (Bartlett et al., 2001). Bartlett et al. (2001) suggested that researchers should take precautions in choosing their sample size from any of the existing sample size tables, and formulas, given the assumed alpha of .05 and the established degree of accuracy of .05. Therefore, in determining the sample size for this study, the Cochran's (1977) formula for sample size determination (Bartlett et al., 2001; Cavana et al., 2001) seems a viable option because it allows the researcher to identify the limits of the errors in the items.

To determine the error estimation of the sample size, Cochran's (1977) formula mainly uses two key factors: (a) the "margin of error" which mainly portrays the degree of risk that the researcher is willing and able to accept in the research study, and (b) the "alpha level", that is the level of an acceptable risk that the study is willing and able to accept, which is true margins of errors. This second factor is popularly called the Type I error, that is the probability that the actual differences depicted in statistical analyses of research really do not exist. Alternative to this is the Type II error which is also called the beta error. The type II error basically takes place when the statistical procedure of research reports no significant

differences when in fact these estimated differences actually exist (Bartlett et al., 2001).

In this study, the alpha level of .05 was used to determine the sample size because the existing literature stipulates its usage either at 01 or .05 levels (Bartlett et al., 2001). Also, the majority of the educational and business research favor the utilization of alpha level of .05 (Van Bruggen, Lilien, & Kacker, 2002) as it is the intended acceptable margin of errors. More importantly, the alpha level has been incorporated into the Cochran's formula through the usage of the t-value for the selected alpha level. For example, the t-value for the alpha level of .05 is 1.96 for sample sizes beyond 120 (Hau & Marsh, 2004; Van et al., 2002).).

This study proposed an alpha level of a priori at .05, and an anticipated level of acceptable error at 3%, with an estimated standard deviation of the proposed scale of 1.1333. Below illustrates how the present study used the Cochran's sample size formula to determine the sample size. The sample size determination formula as proposed by Cochran (1977) is as follows:

$$N = (T^2 \times S^2) / D^2$$

Where:

$D^2$  = scale points multiplied by the acceptable error,

$T$  = T value

$S$  = the estimated variance

In the academic staff data set the value are as follows:

$T = 1.96$ ,  $S = 1.1333$ , Scale points = 4, Acceptable error = 3%

Therefore the required sample size was:

$$N = ([1.96]^2 \times [1.1333]^2) / [7 \times 3\%]^2$$

$$N = 154.786$$

$$N = 155$$

A formula suggested by Dillman (2000) was also employed. Hence, the sample size was computed using the formula below:

$$n = N(p)(1-p) / N - 1 + (B/C)^2 + p(1-p)$$

Where:

$n$  = the computed sample size needed for the desired level of precision

$N$  = the population size

$p$  = the proportion of population expected to be selected

$B$  = acceptable amount of sampling error

$C$  = Z statistic associated with the confidence level which is 1.96

Where:  $N = 617$ ,  $p = 0.5$ ,  $B = 0.05$ ,  $C = 1.96$

$$n = 617 \times 0.5 (1 - 0.5)$$

$$\frac{(617 - 1) \times 0.05^2 + (0.5)^2 (1 - 0.5)}{1.96^2}$$

$$98$$



$$\begin{aligned}
 n &= \frac{(617)(0.5)(0.5)}{617 \times 0.000651 + (0.5)(0.5)} \\
 &= \frac{154.25}{0.402 \times 0.25} \\
 &= \frac{154.25}{0.652} \\
 n &= 236
 \end{aligned}$$

In any research, determining an appropriate sample size is important (Bartlett et al., 2001). Hence, it became necessary to consider several different techniques in determining an adequate sample size for a given population. On the basis of this argument, this study also used Krejcie and Morgan (1970) and Dillman's (2000) guidelines to determine our sample size. However, the computed results showed no significant difference between the determined sample size of 234 using the Krejcie and Morgan's guideline and the 236 obtained based on Dillman's (2000) formula. Since the purpose of this study was to have an appropriate sample size that would be representative of the target population, the sample size of 236 obtained via Dillman's (2000) method was therefore, adopted for the quantitative part of the present study.

#### **4.5.2 Sampling Technique**

Sampling is the technique employed to select a given number of individuals from a given population (Mertens, 2005). Leedy and Ormrod (2005) associated careful

population sampling to the success of the research. Sampling in mixed methods research design is challenging since the study has to consider both the qualitative and quantitative phases in a single study (Onweugbuzie & Collins, 2007). Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) provided some suggestions to choose samples for the mixed-method design. They recommended using participants from the target population in a concurrent mixed methods study if the aim of the findings is to supplement directly two different sets of results in understanding a research problem.

In the attempt to ensure maximum representativeness of former faculty members now working in the 10 private universities located in the southern part of Nigeria, a stratified random sampling procedure was used in the quantitative phase of this study. Stratified sampling technique is described as a method in which researchers divide the target population of the study into subgroups/strata in such a manner that the identified subgroups in the targeted population are represented in the sample in the same proportion as they exist in the population (Gay & Diehl, 1992). The technique was employed for the following reasons: (a) it ensures the minimization of sampling error (Wilson, 2010), (b) it ensures heterogeneity across the different private universities, and (c) it ensures homogeneity within a group (i.e. faculty members).

According to Gay and Diehl (1992), using stratified sampling method involves a series of steps as follows:

- a. Define the population. In the current study, the population was 617.

- b. Determine the sample size. In this study, the sample size was 236 based on a formula suggested by Dillman (2000), which is  $n = \frac{N(p)(1-p)}{N-1(B/C) + p(1-p)}$ . However, in Nigeria, an estimated 40% non-response rate was reported by Adomi, Ayo, and Nakpodia (2007). To further minimize the low response rate from uncooperative participants, the sample size of 236 was increased by 50% as suggested by Salkind (1997). Adding this percentage to 236 resulted in 354. Thus, the sample for this study including the potential for a non-response rate involved 354 faculty members.
- c. Identify the subgroups/strata. In this study, the subgroups/strata were the ten universities, namely, Joseph Ayo Babalola University, Bowen University Iwo, Redeemers University Mowe, Godfrey Okoye University, Ajayi Crowther University, Covenant University Ota, Western Delta University, Oghara, Renaissance University Enugu, Obong University, Obong Ntak, and Samuel Adegboyega University.
- d. Determine the percentage of participants to be selected from each subgroup/stratum by multiplying the number of elements in the university by the determined sample size, and divided by the total population of the study. For example, in Joseph Ayo Babalola University,  $25 \times 354 = 44,250 \div 617 = 72$ , and so on. Table 3.1 shows that the number of faculty members was not evenly distributed across private universities; some of the strata were smaller than others. For example, the number of faculty members in Joseph Ayo

Babalola was 125 as compared to the number of faculty members in Western Delta University Oghara, which were 42.

To select the number of subjects in our sample, a random number table was used. In this case, each subject in the population was numbered. For example, to select 72 from 125, we assigned each subject a unique number from 1 to 125 with three-digit numbers like 001, 005, 054 for the first, fifth and fifty-fourth subjects respectively. Here, the researcher started the selection from the first row of the table and proceeded across until the required number subjects were obtained. However, the selection can be started from anywhere in the table. Stratified random sampling can either be disproportionate or proportionate. A stratified random sampling method is considered disproportionate when the sample elements are drawn from each stratum regardless to any specific percentage but based on a number of the sample elements in each of the stratum. On the other hand, stratified random sampling is proportionate when the sample elements are selected from each stratum based on a specific percentage. This study used disproportionate stratified sampling to ensure that each university is appropriately represented and because it has been used in previous studies (Ibrahim, Ghani, & Embat, 2013; Mat & Naser, 2012).

Table 4.2  
*Disproportionate Stratified Random Sampling of Participants*

| S/N | Strata                           | No of elements in stratum | No of subjects in sample |
|-----|----------------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1   | Joseph Ayo Babalola University,  | 125                       | 72                       |
| 2   | Bowen University, Iwo            | 86                        | 49                       |
| 3   | Godfrey Okoye University         | 75                        | 43                       |
| 4   | Redeemers University , Mowe      | 71                        | 41                       |
| 5   | Ajayi Crowther University        | 69                        | 40                       |
| 6   | Covenant University, Ota         | 58                        | 33                       |
| 7   | Renaissance University, Enugu    | 46                        | 26                       |
| 8   | Western Delta University, Oghara | 42                        | 24                       |
| 9   | Obong University, Obong Ntak     | 24                        | 14                       |
| 10  | Samuel Adegboyega University     | 21                        | 12                       |
|     | Total                            | 617                       | 354                      |

#### 4.6. Measurement of Constructs and Instrumentation

In the present study, a questionnaire was administered to the former faculty members of the Nigerian public universities (see Appendix A). The questionnaire consists of six sections:

- a. Section A has 13 items that measure pay satisfaction.
- b. Section B has eight items that measure community embeddedness.
- c. Section C consists of 15 items that measure organizational embeddedness.
- d. Section D also has 10 items that measure perceived alternative job opportunities.
- e. Section E comprises seven items that measure actual voluntary turnover.
- f. Section F consists of 6 demographic variables.

All items were rated on four-point Likert scale. Although divergent viewpoints are still ongoing as to whether studies should incorporate or eliminate

mid-point in rating items (Østerås, Gulbrandsen, Garratt, Benth, Dahl, Natvig, & Brage, 2008), the final decision on the choice of a rating scale is dependent upon the researcher. More importantly, it has been suggested that no single scale is better than the other in terms of importance, but rather a particular scale may be appropriate for one study and not for another.

The use of a four-point Likert scale as a rating scale was considered appropriate in this study for several reasons: (a) it allows participants freely to express the strength and direction of their opinion on the items in the questionnaire, as suggested by Garland (1991), (b) several studies in organizational behavior and business related domains have used this rating scale to measure various constructs (Deshpande, 1996; Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen, & DeLongis, 1986), (c) it can play a vital role in reducing rater's error that relates to central tendency as well as increase the measure of reliability (Rosen, Stiehl, Mittal, & Leana, 2011), (d) it reduced the participants' desire to make the researcher happy (Huang, You & Tsai, 2012), (e) it reduces the problem of participants skipping the scale, especially when they consider the items as irrelevant leading to the creation of missing observations (Hughes, 1969), (f) when participants know the content being asked and are able to respond to the issues concerning them (Hughes, 1969), and (g) other studies have tested its appropriateness (Ogaboh, Ushie, Abam, & Okoro, 2010). Minor modifications were made to the items in the questionnaire from present continuous tense to past tense.

#### **4.6.1 Reflective and Formative measures**

Given that a construct is not inherently formative or reflective and dependent upon theoretical perspectives (Jarvis, Mackenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003), it has been suggested that the measures or indicators of some constructs are modeled either as formative or reflective or both (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Before discussing the measures employed in the present study further, the differences between formative and reflective constructs are explained first. Additionally, the explanation of second order factors is included, which is necessary to understand such constructs at a more abstract level. In the present study, the community and organizational embeddedness were considered to be multidimensional and were defined using a second order factor.

#### **4.6.2 Differences between Reflective and Formative Indicators**

Indicators or measures can be differentiated as either caused by a latent construct (reflective) or formed a latent construct (formative), which can be ascertained in a way by considering the direction between the latent construct and the indicators. Reflective indicators as shown in Figure 4.2 are caused by a latent construct, and therefore, the direction of causality points from the latent construct to the indicators (Jarvis et al., 2003). Reflective indicators are expected to measure the same underlying concept of the latent variable. They are interchangeable and highly correlated (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004). Accordingly, removing an indicator will not influence any changes to the meaning of the latent construct since the remaining

indicators could sufficiently present the latent construct (Jarvis et al., 2003). But, if the latent construct changes, then all reflective indicators change accordingly (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004; Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010).

On the other hand, formative indicators cause/form the latent construct; thus, it is expected that the direction of causality should point from the indicator to the latent construct (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009; Jarvis et al., 2003), suggesting that they cause the latent construct. Formative indicators can have negative, positive or uncorrelated relationships (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004). Unlike reflective indicators that are highly correlated, deleting a formative indicator can possibly alter the meaning of the latent construct (Jarvis et al., 2003). This is because each indicator represents the different facets of the latent construct (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2009).

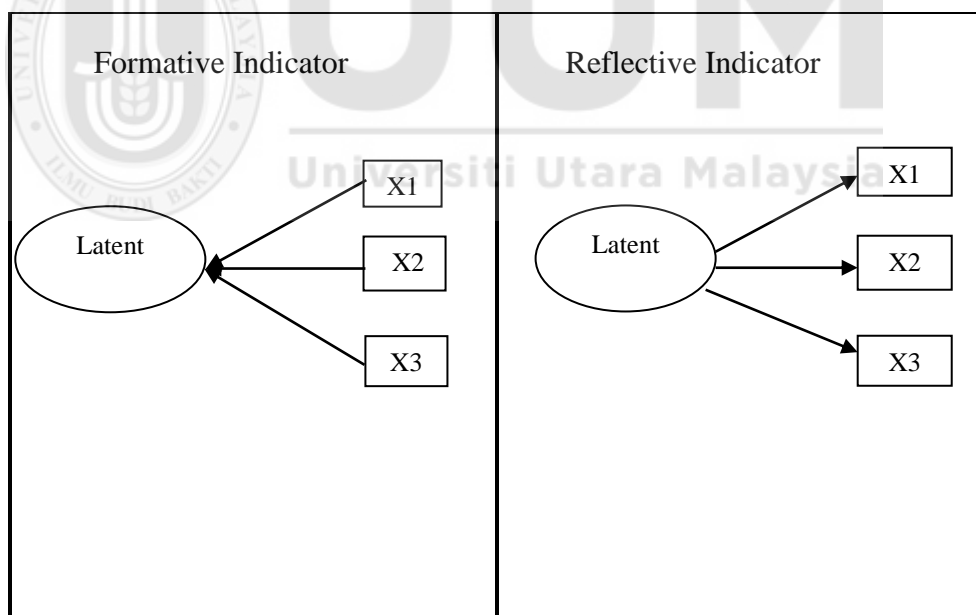


Figure 4.2

*Formative and reflective indicators*

Source: Adapted from Haenlein and Kaplan (2004).



To distinguish between formative and reflective indicators further, Jarvis et al. (2003) presented a set of guidelines displayed in Table 4.3. Basically, the guidelines emphasize four ways in differentiating the formative indicators from the reflective indicators, which are as follows.

- The direction of causality between the latent construct and the indicators.
- Whether or not the indicators are interchangeable.
- Covariance among the indicators.
- Whether or not the indicators have a similarity of determinants and outcomes.

Table 4.3  
*Guidelines to Ascertain Formative and Reflective Models*

| <b>Characteristics</b>                                  | <b>Reflective model</b>  | <b>Formative Model</b>                                      |
|---|--|---|
| Direction of causality between indicators and construct | Direction of causality points from construct to indicators     | Direction of causality points from indicators to construct  |
| Interchangeability of indicators                        | Indicators should be interchangeable                           | Indicators need not be interchangeable                      |
| Covariance among indicators                             | Indicators are expected to correlate with each other           | Not necessarily for indicators to correlate with each other |
| Nomological net of construct indicators                 | Indicators are required to have same determinants and outcomes | Indicators are not to have same determinants and outcomes   |

Source: Adapted from Jarvis et al. (2003).

#### **4.6.3 Second-Order Factor**

A latent construct can be conceptualized at a more abstract level particularly if it requires multidimensional indicators to elucidate its underlying concept. Chin (2010)

and Sanchez (2013) recognized two types of second-order construct models known as molecular and molar second-order constructs in explaining the conceptualization of model at second-order levels based on the direction of the relationship between the first and second order latent constructs. Based on the work of Chin and Gopal (1995), a second-order molecular is described as a model that has arrows from the second-order construct pointing towards the first-order constructs. In this case, the first-order constructs are reflective measures to the second-order construct. On the other hand, the molar second-order model has arrows from the first order constructs pointing towards the second-order construct, which means that the first-order constructs are conceptualized as formative measures to the second-order construct

Drawing from the extant literature, the present study adopted the molecular second-order model as suggested by Chin and Gopal (1995) in explaining actual voluntary turnover. In the current study, at the first-order level, reflective indicators (i.e., fit and sacrifice) were used to explain the attributes of organizational and community embeddedness. At the second-order level, the job embeddedness dimensions (i.e., community and organizational embeddedness) were the formative constructs.

#### **4.6.4 Job Embeddedness**

In the present study, job embeddedness was operationalised as the level of bond faculty members' had with former organization and community. Twenty-three items developed by Mitchell et al. (2001) were adapted and used to measure the

dimensions of job embeddedness (i.e., community and organizational embeddedness. For the community embeddedness subscale, former faculty members rated their community embeddedness using a four-point Likert scale ranging from 1 “strongly disagree” to 4 “strongly agree”. Examples of the adapted items include “Leaving my former community was very hard,” “The area where I lived offered the leisure activities that I liked,” “I really loved the former place where I lived,” “My former community was a good match for me.” Examples of the items of organizational embeddedness include “My former job utilized my skills and talents well”, “I liked the authority and responsibility I had at my former university”, and “I sacrificed a lot when I left the former job.” Past studies also assessed employee job embeddedness using this scale (e.g., Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Holtom & O’Neill, 2004; Jiang et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2012).

#### **4.6.5 Actual Voluntary Turnover**

In this study, actual voluntary turnover referred to the faculty members who had left Nigerian public universities and joined the employment of private universities located in the southern part of the country at their own discretion. A total of seven items were taken from Campion (1991). All items were scored by using a four-point Likert-scale. Examples of the items are “It was entirely my decision to have left my former university”, “Informally, I was encouraged to leave my former university”, and “The decision to leave was mostly mine”. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for

this scale resulted in a two-factor structure with an acceptable fit. Past studies have also used it to evaluate AVT (e.g., Morrell et al., 2008; Wallace, & Gaylor, 2012).

#### **4.6.6 Perceived Alternative Job Opportunities**

In this study, perceived alternative job opportunities were operationalised as the perception of former faculty members that alternative jobs exist in the external job market. Ten items were adapted from Griffeth et al. (2005), called the Employment Opportunity Index (EOI), to measure PAJO. A four-point Likert scale, ranging from '1' "Strongly disagree" to '4' "Strongly agree" was used. Examples of the items used include "I had a far-reaching network of contacts which helped me find out about my present opportunities", "I had contacts in other universities who helped me lined up for the current job," and "By and large, the job I got after I left my previous university is superior to the job I had." Other scholars have used this measurement scale in their studies (e.g., Berntson & Marklund, 2007; Hwang & Kuo, 2006; Kinnunen, Mäkikangas, Mauno, Siponen, Nätti, 2011; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007), indicating the wider use, validity, and reliability of the instrument.

#### **4.6.7 Pay satisfaction**

In this study, pay satisfaction was operationalized as the degree to which Nigerian faculty members were satisfied with their pay at their former universities. Thirteen items were adapted from Heneman and Schwab's (1985) Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ) scale to measure pay satisfaction. This study dropped five items

from the Heneman and Schwab scale as they were judged irrelevant to the former university faculty members in the Nigerian context. An example of the dropped was “My most recent raise”. All the items for pay satisfaction measures adapted in this study used a four-point Likert scale ranging from ‘1’ “Strongly dissatisfied” to ‘4’ “Strongly satisfied.” Examples of the items include “My take-home pay at my former university”, “My last drawn salary at my former university”, and “The way my raises were determined at my former university”. The justification for adapting PSQ scale in this study was that prior studies had found it reliable. For example, Rosen et al. (2011) found a .91 internal consistency coefficient for pay construct. Similarly, Jawanar and Stone (2011) reported internal consistency reliability of PSQ of about .87. Meanwhile, Howard (1999) tested pay based on Heneman and Schwab’s (1985) Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ) and found a .92 of Cronbach’s alpha value. Table 4.4 depicts the instruments, the respective items, and their sources.

#### **4.6.8 Demographic Data**

Six demographic variables including gender, age, marital status, highest educational qualification, current job title and salary of our participants were considered. . Categorical scale was employed to determine the demographic variables. Gender was measured on a dichotomous scale of male and female and coded using dummy variables with ‘1’ representing male and ‘2’ female. Age of the participants was measured as a ratio scaled variable. Three categories were used to measure marital

status: married, single, divorced/separated. Four categories of highest educational qualification were developed to measure the highest educational level of the participants: bachelor' degree, master's degree, doctorate, and others. Seven categories were developed to measure the current job title of the participants: professor, associate professor, senior lecturer, lecturer I, lecturer II, assistant lecturer, and graduate assistant. Finally, the participants were asked to indicate where they were paid less. This question was coded using dummy variables with value "1" for former university and "2" for the current university.



Table 4.4  
*Instruments used*

| S/N | Construct                   | Source                  | No of items | Operationalization  | Sample of items  |
|-----|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------|---|--|
| 1   | Organizational embeddedness | Mitchell et al. (2001)  | 15          | The level of bond faculty members' had with former organization   | 1. My former job utilized my skills and talents well<br>2. I had a lot of freedom on the former job to decide how to pursue my goals<br>3. I sacrificed a lot when I left the former job |
| 2   | Community embeddedness      | Mitchell et al. (2001)  | 8           | The level of bond faculty members' had with former community  | 1. I really liked the place where I lived<br>2. The former place where I lived in was a good match for me<br>3. Leaving the former place where I lived was very hard                     |
| 3   | Pay satisfaction            | Heneman & Schwab (1985) | 13          | Degree to which faculty members were satisfied with their pay at their former universities in Nigeria.                      | 1. My take-home pay at my former university<br>2. Influence my former university had on my pay   |
| 4   | PAJO                        | Griffeth et al. (2005)  | 10          | The perception of former faculty members that alternative jobs exist in the external job market                             | 1. Given my qualifications and experience getting a new job was not very hard at all<br>2. By and large, the job I got after I left my previous university is superior to the job I had  |
| 5   | AVT                         | Campion (1991)          | 7           | Faculty members that left public universities, and joined private universities located in the southern part of the Nigeria. | 1. It was entirely my decision to leave my former university<br>2. It was at least partly my former university's decision that I leave   |

#### **4.7 Data Collection Procedure**

For both phases, data collection procedure began after the proposal defense. An official letter was obtained from the Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business, Universiti Utara Malaysia. The purpose of the letter was meant to explain the objective of the study and to enable the researcher to obtain an official letter from the National Universities Commission (NUC). The official letter from NUC ushered the next stage of data collection.

The researcher along with two research assistants administered self-reported questionnaires to participants at the targeted universities of interest. However, the semi-structured interviews were solely done by the researcher. Each survey package contained cover letters, the questionnaire, a pen and N50 worth of recharge card to motivate the participants to take part in the survey. The data collection lasted about four months from 8<sup>th</sup> December 2014 until 11th April 2015.

##### **4.7.1 Translation**

Both the survey and interview instruments were prepared in English because all participants understood the English language since the language is the official language of Nigeria.

##### **4.7.2 Pretesting of the Instrument**

Prior to the actual conduct of the survey, a preliminary draft of the questionnaire was pretested by requesting some experts to read through it to see if there was any



vagueness and to ascertain the feasibility of the research study since the research effort would need data from 10 different private universities located in different southern parts of Nigeria. Three turnover experts, comprising a professor, an associate professor, and a senior lecturer from Ahmadu Bello University Zaria, Nigeria, examined the quality of the survey instrument for its face validity in terms of clarity, format, wording, simplicity, and ambiguity of the questionnaire indicators (Yaghmale, 2009). Based on their suggestions, the copies of the questionnaires were printed and distributed to four postgraduate students in Organizational Behavior in the researcher's department and two postgraduate students in Business Studies from Kaduna State University to determine how they would respond to the items. They were also asked to check the clarity of the questionnaire. No changes were made.

#### **4.7.3 Pilot Study**

According to Gay, Mills and Airasian (2006), a pilot test is regarded like “a dress rehearsal” in which a small mini-trial of a proposed research study is performed prior to the full-scale investigation. The objective of pilot testing is to refine the survey questionnaire and interview instruments before disseminating it to the actual participants of the study so that they will not have any difficulties in understanding the content of the survey questionnaire. This procedure is necessary for increasing the reliability and validity of the research instrument (Doug, Burton, Cuthill, Festing, Hutton, & Playle, 2006; Saunders et al., 2003).

In line with the above assertions, a pilot study was carried out to achieve two major concerns, i.e., to validate the intended instrument and test its reliability. Generally speaking, the main indicators of an instrument's quality are its reliability and validity measures (Kimberlin & Winetrstein, 2008). Sekaran and Bougie (2010) asserted that an instrument's reliability shows the consistency and stability, with which a concept is measured, i.e., there is consistency and stability across time and among the various items measuring a particular concept. The validity of the measuring instrument refers to the degree to which an instrument accurately measures what it is set out to measure and not something else (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

The validation could be executed in various ways. Hair et al. (2013) stressed on experts' facial validity while Babbie (2010) emphasized the conduct of a pilot study. Even though the items employed in the present study were adapted from various sources where their reliability and validity have been determined, this study further affirmed their reliability, especially when several factors may warrant changes as stated by Hair et al. (2013).

A pilot-study usually involves 15 to 30 participants although it could be increased substantially (Malhotra, 2008). As the response rate in Nigeria tended to be poor even among highly educated individuals (Nakpodia, Ayo, & Adomi, 2007; Ofo, 1994) this study increased the number of the questionnaires distributed, following Malhotra's (2008) recommendation. A total of 53 questionnaires were administered for the pilot survey. However, only 33 former faculty members from the targeted

private universities in the southern part of Nigeria completed the questionnaires, while two were excluded as a result of various errors. This resulted in a 62% response rate. It should be noted that the 33 participants were not included in the actual study. This process was done within two weeks in the month of December 2014

Kimberlin and Winetrstein (2008) opined that Cronbach's alpha coefficient is the most commonly used test to estimate individual-item internal consistency. It explains the average inter-correlations of items measuring a concept. It is described as the degree to which items of a specific construct converge together and are independently able to measure the same construct, which means that the items correlate with each other (Hair, Money, Samouel, & Page, 2007; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

The present study used the Cronbach's alpha to evaluate the internal consistency of individual constructs captured in the instrument. The collected data were keyed into SPSS version 20 for Windows and each variable was assessed by the items measuring it. According to Hair et al. (2010), the acceptable threshold for Cronbach's alpha is .70 and above even though .60 is also an acceptable benchmark in exploratory research. Table 5.5 shows that all measures achieved high a reliability coefficient, ranging from .753 to .903, suggesting that all the variables were reliable, and items of each variable were consistent among themselves in measuring the variable.

Table 4.5  
*Summary of Pilot Test Reliability Results*

| <b>Construct</b>            | <b>No of items</b> | <b>Cronbach's alpha</b> |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|
| Pay satisfaction            | 13                 | .903                    |
| Community embeddedness      | 08                 | .753                    |
| Organizational embeddedness | 15                 | .854                    |
| PAJO                        | 10                 | .804                    |
| Actual voluntary turnover   | 07                 | .815                    |

#### 4.7.4 Administration of Survey Questionnaire

Questionnaires can be distributed electronically, personally, or via the use of mail (Sekaran, 2003). The present study rejected the use of mail questionnaire because Nigeria is a country where mail services are unreliable. Posting documents in Nigeria via the Nigeria's postal service takes several months, and sometimes some of the mails get missing even before they arrive at their destinations (Nwanolue & Iwuoha, 2012). Further, Mohammed (2008) reported that the response rate is low, in fact as low as 10%, when mail questionnaire is used.

In the present study, a self-administered survey questionnaire was used to obtain the responses of former faculty members for at least four main reasons. First, all completed questionnaires can be collected within a short time period. Secondly, it does not require much expertise. Third, the researcher has the privilege to provide on the spot parts of the questions or terms that the participants cannot understand while encouraging them to take part (Sekaran & Bouge, 2010; Zikmund, 2003). Lastly, self-administered questionnaire guarantees higher responses than other techniques (Adomi et al., 2007). The questionnaire was distributed via the drop and collect

technique. It is a technique where the researcher leaves the questionnaire with participants and return to pick it up (Ibeh, Brock & Zhou, 2004). Ibeh et al. (2004) stated that using this technique offers a better response rate of nearly 60%.

Participants were given one week to fill and complete the questionnaires which the researchers perceived to be an adequate timeframe. In between the time the questionnaires were dropped up until the time they were collected, the researcher, research assistants, the various departmental secretaries of the different departments, and the executive members of the academic staff union of universities (ASUU) kept reminding and encouraging the participants to complete the questionnaires. However, a month after dropping the questionnaires, 172 completed and usable questionnaires were returned. These 172 completed questionnaires were regarded as early responses and were further utilized in conducting non-response bias on the key study variables.

In spite of the encouraging responses, a follow-up bulk Short Message Service (SMS) gentle reminder was sent to enable those who were yet to fill and complete their questionnaires to do so. The persistent posture of the researcher, the two research assistants, executive members of ASUU, coupled with the little token of incentives given to the various departmental secretaries, yielded the retrieval of additional 44 questionnaires, which were considered late responses. Within the period of data collection, 354 questionnaires were administered to the target participants, out of which 243 questionnaires were returned. Of these 243 questionnaires, 25 were excluded because they did not meet the criteria for

participation in the study. This is because they switched jobs from public to private universities that are located in the same location/state as their former universities. That left 218 useable questionnaires, resulting in a response rate of 62%.

#### **4.8. Data Analysis**

Several software programs can be employed to analyses data, such as SPSS SmartPLS, Excel, STATPAK or SAS. The present study used both SPSS software version 20 and SmartPLS 2.0 M3 (Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2005) as instruments of quantitative analysis. The present study considers the application of PLS path modeling as the most suitable technique for the following reasons: Despite PLS path modeling sharing similarities with conventional regression approach, the PLS path modeling has the advantage of estimating many relationships simultaneously (Chin & Newsteds, 1999; Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler, 2009). For example, it is regarded as one of the most powerful statistical tools in testing the links between indicators and their corresponding latent constructs (measurement model) and the links between constructs (structural model) at the same time (Duarte & Raposo, 2010; Lohmöller, 1989).

More importantly, studies have attested the quality of using this approach (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013). For a study of this kind, using partial least squares is more valid than AMOS (Hair et al., 2013). This is because it can conveniently deal with a research model that has both formative and reflective measures incorporated into the process (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006; Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000).

The present study involved series of steps in analyzing the quantitative data. First and foremost, data screening was performed via the application of SPSS software version 20.0 as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) in order to ensure that data were suitable for the PLS analysis (Hair, Sarsted, Ringle, & Mena, 2011; Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009). The next step ascertained the measurement (outer) model (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012). Standard bootstrapping with 5000 bootstraps were used to assess the structural model (Hair et al., 2012; Henseler et al., 2009). Approximation of the  $R^2$  values, effect size, predictive relevance of the model, and the significance of the path coefficients were evaluated (e.g., Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014).

Following the analyses of the main PLS path model was the PLS-SEM analysis of the moderating effect (Henseler & Fassott, 2010a; Henseler & Chin, 2010b). Lastly, this study applied Cohen's (1988) effect size formula to ascertain the strength of the moderating effects. The next section deals with a discussion on the qualitative methodology.

#### **4.9 Qualitative Phase of the study**

By and large, this phase of the study sought data from a sample of participants about their perceptions and experiences. A small, but highly informed sample of the population could provide rich information about the phenomenon being investigated (Percy, Kostere, & Kostere, 2015).

#### **4.9.1 Sample Size**

Patton (1990) argued that “There are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry. Sample size depends on what you want to know, the purpose of the inquiry, what’s at stake, what will be useful, what will have credibility, and what can be done with available time and resources” (p. 184). Based on Patton’s (1990) argument, there is no specific guideline to ascertain a sample size in qualitative research; rather, what the researcher wants to find out, why he/she wants to find out, how the findings will be used, and what available time and resources he/she has for the study guide him/her in deciding the suitable sample size. Meanwhile, Guest, Bruce, and Johnson (2006) argued that for research with a high level of homogeneity among the sample population, a sample of six interview participants would be sufficient to allow the emergence of meaningful themes and useful explanations.

Saturation level was reached after nine participants were selected, when the gathering of new information did not shed any further light on the issue under investigation. It was the point at which no new thematic code was observed in the data. At that point the sample was deemed adequate for our qualitative phase of the study.

#### **4.9.2 Sampling Technique**

Sampling in qualitative research differs from that in the quantitative approach since the latter focuses on obtaining rich information while the former emphasizes generalization in understanding the phenomena (Patton, 1990). In an effort to ensure



adequate selection of participants for the qualitative semi-structured interviews, purposeful sampling technique was used. According to Teddlie and Yu (2007), purposeful sampling involves “selecting certain units cases based on a specific purpose rather than randomly” (p. 80). In this study, the sample selection involved the researchers taking into consideration that the results of the qualitative study would be used to offer an in-depth understanding of actual voluntary turnover. As a result, the potential participants included only those who indicated their willingness to participate in the semi-structured interviews (Saunders et al., 2003).

Nine participants were identified and selected using purposeful sampling technique. This technique was chosen because it allowed the researcher to collect rich data from those who had actually left their former university as they would contribute significantly to the research study (Patton, 1990).

#### **4.9.3. Interview protocol**

To assist in addressing the issue of actual voluntary turnover among faculty members, this study developed an interview protocol. The interview protocol asks the following questions related to demographic characteristics.

1. What is your age? (Can answer in categories, if preferred), under 25, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64, 65 and over)
2. What is your marital status?
3. What is your highest educational qualification?
4. Your current job title?

5. What was your salary at your former university?
6. What is your salary in your current university?
7. How many dependents do you have?

The protocol also asked the following key questions:

1. Before you moved to this current university, which university did you work for?
2. How long were you there?
3. How long have you been in this current university?
4. Was your joining the current university voluntary?
5. When you decided to change employer, what considerations did you make? What were your priorities? What kind of employer did you look for? What expectations did you have of the new employer?
6. Can you describe for me the process you went through in changing your employer?
7. After you had decided to move to the current employer, what were the main challenges you had to address? How did you deal with them? Were they difficult to deal with? How do you like your new employer now? How do you like the new job? The new environment? Were your initial expectations met?
8. In the next five years, where would you see yourself?

#### **4.9.4 Pilot test**

Before conducting the actual interviews, some selected participants were interviewed in a pilot study. Conducting the pilot test permitted the researcher to have a good practice run of the full-scale study in order to attain more familiarity with the process of the full-scale study. In particular, three former faculty members participated in our semi-structured pilot interviews. Following the conduct of the pilot study, the outcome of the exercise was reviewed for changes that needed to be made in order to improve the full-scale study. There was just one major flaw from the pilot study. The flaw involved document consent form, which required participants to indicate their names. So, before the commencement of the full-scale study, revision was on the document consent form was effected instead of the participant being asked to fill in his or her name. Instead, the blank area for the name was filled with participants' assigned codes (i.e., pseudo names).

#### **4.9.5 Semi-Structured Interview**

This study used semi-structured interviews to supplement the survey data. The interview has been classified into different categories. Lincoln and Guba (1985) classified interviews into two categories: structured interviews and unstructured interviews. A structured interview involves researchers preparing the questions for the interview and participants are expected to offer responses according to the interview protocol prepared by the researcher. In contrast, an unstructured interview

relies on the participants' answers during the interview to guide the pattern and direction of the interview.

Saunders et al. (2003) suggested three different types namely, structured, semi-structured, and unstructured or in-depth interviews, whereas Bryman and Bell (2011) broadly categorized interviews into two groups: structured interviews and qualitative interviews. The different categories of interview serve differing purposes of studies. Accordingly, Saunders et al. (2003) claimed that a structured interview is more suitable for a descriptive based study, and a semi-structured interview is more adequate for explanatory and exploratory based studies, which is either performed through the telephone or face-to-face.

The present study used the face-to-face semi-structured interview over the other types because it is the most commonly used approach in qualitative studies and also because this study was explorative in nature (Alvesson & Deetz, 2000). More so, face-to-face semi-structured interviews are excellent tools to use in research because they use open-ended questions, which permit the researcher to explore deeply the participant's feelings and perspectives on the phenomenon being studied. This leads to rich background information that can shape further questions relevant to the phenomenon being studied (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Eric & Amitabh, 2006; Kvale, 1996; Saunders et al., 2003).

It also has the capacity to disclose important aspects of human behavior (Qu & Dumay, 2011), to reveal not only the 'how' and 'what' but also the 'why' of phenomena (Saunders et al., 2003), and to provide researchers with the opportunity

to witness the nonverbal reactions (i.e., body language) of the participants (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

Prior to the conduct of the interview, this study prepared an interview protocol, consisting of a list of questions relevant to the study. The use of an interview protocol is more likely to be helpful in reducing the reliability issues since the protocol helps make sure that the interviews are more focused and systematically conducted within a subject area (Patton, 1990). In the present study, the use of the interview protocol as the “guide to the journey” (Dilley, 2000, p. 133) also assisted the research study to carefully manage the resources and time (Patton, 1990), as well as allowing some freedom for other themes to crop up during the interview (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

The face-to-face semi-structured interviewing was concurrently undertaken along with the personal administration of questionnaires. The researcher identified participants through the academic staff list obtained from the National Universities Commission in Abuja, Nigeria. The researcher phoned some of the participants from the list. After the reason for the call was explained, they were asked whether they would be interested in participating. Some declined while other people accepted to participate. Out of the calls, nine obliged to participate. Those who accepted to participate were hand-delivered copies of the informed consent form (Appendix C) to sign and date the copy. Each participant was also informed that the interview was to be audio taped for record-keeping purposes. Of the nine participants, seven agreed to be recorded by audio-tape; two declined to be audio-recorded.

Before the interview took place, the researcher introduced herself, explained the object of the research, asked if the participant had any questions, and retrieved the informed consent form. The tape recorder was then turned on, and the researcher began asking the questions based on the interview protocol. However, some of the participants insisted on filling the first part of the interview which had the demographic questions. Interviews varied in length from approximately 30 to 45 minutes. The researcher recorded all but two interviews. For the two that refused to be audio-taped, detailed notes of each of their individual responses were written. Additionally, during interviews, notes were also jotted to capture participant's non-verbal cues, body language, facial expression and tone of voice.

All the interviews were conducted in settings that were private, quiet, comfortable, and free from interruption selected by the participants. Interviews were carried out in the participants' place of work. They were also assured that their identities and their current employer would remain anonymous and confidential. To further guarantee anonymity of the study participants was assigned pseudo names. That hugely helped to gain trust of participants for them to freely discuss on the phenomenon that was investigated. Ample time was offered for our research participants to consider the questions and reflect prior to sharing their experiences and perceptions. Resolute dialogue was employed to probe for additional clarification to aid in minimization of misinterpretation.

At the completion of the interview sessions, the participants were politely asked if the researcher could contact them a second time to clarify data or ask further

questions, if needed. When all the questions had been asked and answered, the audio recorder was turned off. The recorded responses were transcribed immediately.

Despite transcribing interviews being a very time consuming activity yielding vast amounts of information, which a researcher will need to wade through when analyzing the collected data, it has been argued that transcriptions of audio recordings should not be left until all the participants have been interviewed (Lofland & Lofland, 1995). Rather, it should be transcribed verbatim immediately after each interview was completed in order to maintain the tone and original content of the interview.

Accordingly, Patton (2002) argued that doing so guarantees that “the data obtained will be useful, reliable and authentic” (p. 384). More importantly, Beardsworth and Keil (1992) asserted that transcribing audio-recordings immediately after each interview was completed allows the researchers to be more aware of emerging themes that they may want to ask about in a more direct way in later interviews.

Even though the overall interview sessions were successful, some limitations were observed. First, some participants refused to have their responses audio-recorded. In the case where the participants did not agree to be audio-taped, the researcher had to resort to jotting down the responses. The process of jotting down information is also not without its problems (Patton, 1990; Rafaeli, Dutton, Harquail, & Mackie-Lewis, 1997). Patton (1990, 347) argued that “No matter what style of interviewing is used, and no matter how careful, interview sessions, could come to

naught if the interviewer fails to capture the actual words of the person being interviewed.” Nonetheless, this researcher still went ahead with the interview using note-taking to record, as it is highly likely for useful information to emerge.

Hence, to avoid note-taking technique coming to naught, this researcher showed all written notes to the two participants that declined audio recording as an attempt to ascertain if the jotted notes were an accurate recording of what they had said in their individual interviews. In appreciation for participant’s assistance and time, the researcher sent a short text to each participant a thank you message immediately following their individual interviews.

#### **4.9.6 Thematic Analysis**

This study used Braun and Clarke’s (2006) six-step thematic analysis as illustrated in Table 4.6 to qualitatively analyze the data of the interviews. This approach is widely used in a variety of life situations (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The present study chose it because of its flexibility and its ability to offer solutions for real world problems (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012). After transcription, data were analyzed using software to identify and report themes (patterns) within the transcribed data (Creswell, 2003; Moustakas, 1994).



Table 4.6  
*Steps in Thematic Analysis*

| S/N | Steps                       | Process  |
|-----|-----------------------------|--|
| 1   | Familiarizing with the data | Transcription of the data  |
| 2   | Generation of initial codes | Coding systematically interesting attributes of the data   |
| 3   | Searching for themes        | Collating codes into plausible themes  |
| 4   | Review of themes            | Checking if the themes represent the information at level 1 and level  |
| 5   | Defining & naming themes    | Refine the specific themes, the overall account of the data, creating clear definitions and names for each theme |
| 6   | Producing the report        | Relating back the analysis with the research questions, the literature and report                                |

Source: Adapted from Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 87)

Stage 1: Familiarizing with the information. This stage offers the bedrock for the rest of the analysis for it entails repeated reading of the whole dataset to enable the identification of plausible meanings and patterns. At this stage, the information has to be transcribed into written form in order to perform a thematic analysis.

Stage 2: Begins after the researcher has read and familiarized herself with the information or data. This stage is also an important part of the analysis as it allows the generation of a preliminary list of ideas about what is in the information. This stage involves the generation of preliminary codes from the data. A code identifies an attribute of the information and refers to the most fundamental component of the raw information or data that can be evaluated in a meaningful manner regarding the phenomenon being studied.

Stage 3 is performed when data have been initially coded and collated. This stage comprises a list of the different codes that have been identified in the dataset. This stage involves sorting and collation of the different codes into possible themes.

Essentially, this is the segment of analysis to determine how various codes may combine to produce an overarching theme.

Stage 4 starts when the researcher looks at a set of candidate theme for review. During this stage, it is evidently possible that some candidate themes may not really be themes. For example, when there is not enough information to support a theme or the information is too diverse. Or, others might collapse into each other, for instance, when two apparently separate themes may form one theme. Other themes may require being split into two separate themes. Once satisfied that the themes are adequately capturing the attributes of the coded information, the result of this refinement process is seen in the thematic map.

Stage 5 involves defining and further refining the themes. Defining and refining imply identifying the essence of what each theme is about. Stage 6 entails having a set of themes that can provide a basis to draw conclusions.

Within the last few years, numerous innovative software packages have been developed to assist in the qualitative analysis of data. CAQDAS (i.e., Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software) packages have been employed to structure data in ways that promote analytic process (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Yin, 2003). Researchers apply CAQDAS packages based on the purpose of the study and ways the researchers may want to present findings. Krippendorff (2004) argued that ATLAS.ti is one of the most versatile software programs for qualitative data analysis. It provides a variety of tools for accomplishing qualitative procedures that

could not be analyzed quantitatively. ATLAS.ti has the capacity to illustrate graphical relationships between data and theoretical concepts (Muhr, 2004).

Indeed, ATLAS.ti is a powerful tool to extract, explore, manage, compare and reassemble meaningful pieces of information into meaningful themes and has the capabilities of auto coding. Hence, the researcher deemed it suitable, the choice of ATLAS.TI software for the goals of the present study. Specifically, using ATLAS.ti enabled this study to code, categorize, and display findings that enabled the researcher to compare frequencies of words, codes, and categories.

#### **4.10 Summary**

This chapter discussed the methodology and the technique for collecting data comprising research paradigm, mixed-method research design, population and sample size, sampling techniques, research measurement, instrumentation and procedures for analyzing data. Faculty members in Nigeria and currently working in the various private universities within Nigeria was the unit of analysis. As the present study involved two phases, a separate discussion the quantitative and qualitative phases were made. Next, the results of the study (both quantitative and qualitative) are presented.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **FINDINGS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

The preceding chapter dealt with methodology and this chapter presents the findings of the quantitative and qualitative data. The collected data are analyzed and presented as follows. The first section of the chapter begins by presenting the response rates. Initial data screening and preliminary analysis are then reported. Next, the key findings are reported in two stages. In stage one; the measurement (outer) model is assessed. The second stage discusses the findings of structural (inner) model. Then qualitative findings are reported. This chapter concludes with a summary.

#### **5.2 Response Rate**

In any research, the response rate is vital to enable generalisation of the results to the entire population (Saunders et al., 2003; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). In line with the stipulated data collection procedures, 354 questionnaires were distributed to former faculty members of public universities currently lecturing in private universities located in the southern part of Nigeria.

However, response rate among Nigerians has notably been found to be low. In fact, the rate is so poor even among the well-educated individuals, who more often than not are reluctant to respond to survey questionnaire (Asika, 1991; Nakpodia et al., 2007; Ofo, 1994). This perhaps could be the explanation for the non-retrieval of

about 111 questionnaires (see Table 5.1). In particular, Nakpodia et al. (2007) reported a low response rate of 40% due to uncooperative participation. Despite the un-retrieved number of questionnaire. This study ably raised the response rate to 62% through series of consistent visits, phone calls and, bulk text messages as reminders, which were made to participants who were yet to fill and complete their questionnaire following receipt. Thus, the results of these efforts yielded reasonable returned questionnaires, a strategy that has evidently proven to be effective (Yim, Anderson, & Swaminathan, 2005).

So, in another attempt to ascertain the minimum sample and to establish sufficiency of response rate for the present study, a *priori* power analysis was performed using G\*Power 3.1 software (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007; Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). Statistically, a *priori* power analysis is a procedure that is normally performed to ascertain an appropriate sample size for a study before data collection (Bruin, 2006). In applying the G\*Power 3.1 software, sample size is calculated as a function of user-specified values for the population effect size ( $f^2$ ), the required significance level ( $\alpha$ ), and the desired statistical power ( $1-\beta$ ) (Faul et al., 2007). In agreement with Cohen's (1977) recommendations, the following standard parameters were employed in calculating the statistical power for the present study, which included the effect size ( $f^2 = 0.15$ ); significance alpha level ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ), and the desired statistical power ( $1-\beta = 0.95$ ). Based on these parameters, the calculated statistical power indicated that a minimum sample size of 178 was required to meet the selected criteria. Comparing the results of power analysis with

the valid response rate for the present study, it is suggestive that the 62% rate obtained was sufficient for further analysis. In other words, it means that the total number of returned and usable questionnaire (i.e., 218) was considered adequate for further analysis.

More so, the collected data was subjected to further scrutiny, which is in tandem with Cooper and Schindler (2007) and Zikmund's (2005) opinion, who believed that should be done to be able to affirm the consistency, accuracy, eligibility and completeness of the participants. Based on that, the present study was able to identify 25 participants who were not eligible for consideration and therefore, were excluded because of the following reasons. First, the target population for this study was limited to faculty members who relocated and joined private universities that were not located in the same area/state as their former universities and communities. Secondly, because the construct of community embeddedness is operationalised to measure the level of bond/attachment faculty members had with former community. Therefore, changing employer without relocation would not validly measure the actual level of community embeddedness in the population who switched employer but did not relocate (Willis, 2005). As a result, 25 participants were excluded for failing to meet up the aforesaid criteria. Table 5.1 illustrates the response rate of the survey questionnaire.

Table 5.1  
*Response Rate of the Survey Questionnaire*

| <b>Response</b>                             | <b>Frequency/Rate</b> |
|---|-----------------------|
| Number of questionnaires distributed        | 354                   |
| Number of questionnaire returned            | 243                   |
| Number of returned and usable questionnaire | 218                   |
| Number returned but excluded                | 25                    |
| Number of questionnaire not retrieved       | 111                   |
| Response rate                               | 69%                   |
| Rate of valid response                      | 62%                   |

### 5.3 Preliminary Data Analysis

The initial process of data screening and treatment is an all-important activity as it helps scholars to ensure that the collected data satisfies all the requirements regarding the use of multivariate techniques in data analysis (Hair et al., 2010). Screening data before analysis also assists scholars to better understand the collected data for further analysis (Pallant, 2011). But, more importantly, data screening offers a solid groundwork for achievement of significant results.

In fact, the quality of the result and analysis as attested by Hair et al. (2014) are contingent upon the quality of preliminary data screening. It is visually obvious that failure to notice the potentiality of data screening could invariably lead to poor quality of analysis and output (Ringle, Sarstedt, & Straub, 2012).

Upon the collection of 218 usable questionnaires, responses were coded and keyed into the SPSS version 20. Thereafter, the detection and treatment of missing values and outliers were performed.

### **5.3.1 Missing Value Analysis (MVA)**

Missing values are those responses that have not been completed. An initial check on the data indicated that out of 218 responses received, seven had missing values. In specific, pay satisfaction had a missing value. Likewise perceived alternative job opportunities had six missing values and no missing values were found in organizational embeddedness, community embeddedness, and actual voluntary turnover.

Even though there is no acceptable percentage of missing value at which a valid statistical inference can be derived (Olusegun, Ashari, & Nordin, 2014), however, Acuna and Rodrigues (2004) suggest that a missing data of about 15% poses a huge threat requiring sophisticated technique to resolve. Nonetheless, theorists and researchers have generally accepted that missing rate of 5% or less is insignificant (Schafer, 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) and should be replaced (Hair et al., 2013).

There are several treatments for replacing missing values. Frequently used missing value analysis techniques include, first, pairwise/listwise deletion, this involves removing cases with missing values, second, is replacing missing values with mean, third, involves using multiple imputations (MI) and finally expectation



maximization (EM). Even though pairwise/listwise deletion and replacing missing values with mean techniques are the simplest, several studies do not suggest such treatments. MI and EM are considered more viable alternatives (Schlomer, Bauman, & Card, 2010). However, a problem with multiple imputations (MI) technique is that the estimated value(s) might exceed the actual scale range (Bennett, 2001). Therefore, the most preferred approach in dealing with missing data is expectation maximization (EM) technique. This is because it is more suitable when the data is missing completely at random (Bennett, 2001; Graham, 2012; Karanja, Zaveri, & Ahmed, 2013). For this study, missing values were replaced using expectation maximization, as the data in the present study were missing completely at random.

### **5.3.2 Outlier Detection and Treatment**

Johnson (1992) defines an outlier as an outlying observation that deviates significantly from the majority of observations in a given data set. It reflects an extreme response to a particular observation and it symbolizes that an observation demonstrates an unusual permutation of two or more constructs (Bryne, 2010; Hu, Smeyers-Verbeke, & Massart, 1990).

The existence of outliers in a regression analysis is undesirable as it can affect the estimates of the regression co-efficient leading to unreliable results (Verardi & Crux, 2008). In other words, detected outliers in the data set can otherwise adversely produce biased parameter estimation and lead to model misspecification and incorrect results. In order to avoid biased results, it is therefore

essential that data set should be checked for outliers prior to further analysis (Liu, Shah, & Jiang, 2004), because it is pointless to conduct analysis when data are contaminated with outliers.

In order to detect any observation which appears to be outside the SPSS value labels, frequency tables were tabulated for all constructs using minimum and maximum statistics. Based on this analysis of frequency statistics, no observations were detected to be outside the expected value range. Further, the collected information was examined for univariate and multivariate outliers. Possible univariate outliers were checked using standardized values with a  $\pm 3.29$  z-scores ( $p < .001$ ) threshold, as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Based on this threshold, none was detected using standardized values as possible univariate outliers. Besides using standardized values to identify univariate outliers and in consistent with Tabachnick and Fidell's (2013) suggestion, the present study also employed Mahalanobis D2 measure to detect and treat multivariate outliers. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) described Mahalanobis distance (D2) as "the distance of a case from the centroid of the remaining cases where the centroid is the point created at intersection of the means of all the variables" (p. 74). Mahalanobis D2 measure was calculated based on Chi-square value. Based on 53 observed variables of the present study, the suggested threshold value of chi-square is 89.27 at  $p < 0.001$  level of significance. So, Mahalanobis values that exceeded this threshold were removed. Following this criterion (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), two multivariate outliers were detected and excluded from further analysis.

#### **5.4 Non-response Bias**

Lambert and Harrington (1990) described non-response bias as the differences in the responses between participants and non-participants. It is empirically acknowledged that there is no minimal response rate below which a research estimate is necessarily biased and in contrast, no response rate above which it is never biased (Singer, 2006). At any degree and in any form, these non-response biases occur in research studies and may influence the result (Malhotra, 2008). Hence, no matter how minimal the non-response, plausible bias should be investigated (Pearl & Fairley, 1985; Sheikh, 1981).

In order to reduce the problem of non-response bias, Lindner and Wingenbach (2002) suggested that a minimum response rate of 50% should be attained when estimating the plausibility of non-response bias. Further, Armstrong and Overton (1977) recommended a time-trend extrapolation strategy that involves comparing the early and late participants. Following Armstrong and Overton's (1977) independent-samples t-test, this study tested for significant differences in these two groups based on the five study variables. The time frame within which the target participants responded to questions was classified into two by dividing the participants into two groups based on early and late responses. Using Dillman's (2000) guidelines, participants who responded within four weeks following receipt of survey questionnaire were grouped as early response and those who responded after four weeks as late respondents (Nelson, Shaw, & Strader, 2010). On this basis, this study was able to establish that majority of the participants that is 172 (80%)

responded to the questionnaire within four weeks of receipt, while the remaining 44 representing 20% responded after four weeks. Hence, it can be affirmed from Table 5.2 that non-response bias was not a major concern in the present research study.

Table 5.2  
*Independent-Samples T-test for Non-Response Bias*

| Construct | Response bias  | N   | Mean   | SD    | t-value | p-value |
|-----------|----------------|-----|--------|-------|---------|---------|
| PS_Mean   | Early response | 172 | 26.023 | 2.812 | -.495   | .621    |
|           | Late response  | 44  | 26.321 | 2.751 | -.502   | .617    |
| JEC_Mean  | Early response | 172 | 15.474 | 1.764 | -.848   | .397    |
|           | Late response  | 44  | 15.742 | 1.770 | -.841   | .403    |
| JEO_Mean  | Early response | 172 | 30.373 | 3.015 | -.146   | .146    |
|           | Late response  | 44  | 31.096 | 3.032 | -.144   | .153    |
| PA_Mean   | Early response | 172 | 24.806 | 2.634 | -.230   | .818    |
|           | Late response  | 44  | 24.987 | 2.971 | -.443   | .831    |
| AVT_Mean  | Early response | 172 | 16.667 | 2.010 | -.714   | .476    |
|           | Late response  | 44  | 16.968 | 2.139 | -.690   | .493    |

Note: \*Significant at  $p \leq 0.05$ ,

PS\_Mean= Pay satisfaction, JEC\_Mean= Community embeddedness, JEO\_Mean= Organizational community, PS\_Mean= Perceived alternative job opportunities, AVT\_Mean= Actual voluntary turnover.

## 5.5 Common Method Variance

Richardson, Simmering, and Sturman (2009, p. 763) define common method variance (CMV) as a “systematic error variance shared among variables measured with and introduced as a function of the same method and/or source.” CMV is widely acknowledged by researchers and theorists as a measurement error problem that could inflate or deflate the observed links between variables, generating Type I and Type II errors (Campbell, 1982; Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Spector, 2006).

Since all the constructs in this study were self-reported, findings can be potentially affected by the manifestation of common method variance. To reduce this problem, this study implemented several procedural and statistical remedies as recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003) and Conway and Lance (2010). First, involved using procedural remedy to ensure anonymity (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Richardson et al., 2009) in which participants were told that all information provided would be held in strict confidence and their identities remain confidential throughout the research process. The second remedy was to lessen evaluation apprehension (Chang, Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Craighead, Ketchen, Dunn, & Hult, 2011; MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012). This study assured participants that the study was intended for research purposes only and that there were no risks involved in participating. Moreover, the participants were also informed that there is no wrong or right answer to the indicators in the survey questionnaire.

The third step was to ensure clarity of the indicators and/or questions, so, the scale indicators were enhanced (Harrison, McClaughlin, & Coalter, 1996; Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2003) by avoiding ambiguous concepts in the survey questionnaire and offering simple examples. To further enhance scale indicators, all questions in the survey were written in simple and concise language.

In addition to the procedural remedies noted above, Harman's single factor test was run (Harman, 1960; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) to enable the detection of common method variance. The major postulation of the test is that if a substantial

amount of common method variance is present, either a single factor would emerge, or one general factor would account for most of the covariance in the independent and dependent constructs (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). In other words, if the majority of the data load onto a single factor, then there is strong presence of common method variance. Using this procedure entails subjecting all constructs of interest to a principal component factor analysis and the outcome of the analysis is then observed to establish the number of factors that account for the variance in the constructs.

On the basis of this test, all indicators in the present study were subjected to a principal component factor analysis. The outcomes of the analysis showed that the first (largest) factor explained 30.52% of the total variance which is below 50% as suggested by Kumar (2012). The findings revealed that no single factor accounted for the majority of covariance in the independent and dependent constructs. Thus, this suggests that CMV is not a major concern.

## **5.6 Demographic Characteristics of Participants**

This section highlights the demographic characteristics of the research participants. The demographic information investigated in the present study include gender, marital status, highest educational qualification, position at former and current university, place of residence at former and current locations, salary, age, length of service at previous and current university, and number of dependents. Table 5.3 illustrates the study's sample demographic profile.

Table 5.3  
*Demographic Characteristics of Participants*

| <b>Item</b>                                  | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percentage%</b> |
|--|------------------|--------------------|
| <b>Gender</b>                                |                  |                    |
| Male   | 144              | 66.7               |
| Female                                       | 72               | 33.3               |
| <b>Marital Status</b>                        |                  |                    |
| Married                                      | 199              | 92.1               |
| Single                                       | 15               | 7.0                |
| Widowed/divorced                             | 2                | 0.9                |
| <b>Educational Qualification</b>             |                  |                    |
| Bachelors degree                             | 23               | 10.6               |
| Masters                                      | 142              | 65.7               |
| Doctorate                                    | 40               | 18.5               |
| Others                                       | 11               | 5.1                |
| <b>Last Position</b>                         |                  |                    |
| Associate Professor                          | 6                | 2.8                |
| Senior Lecturer                              | 9                | 4.2                |
| Lecturer I                                   | 30               | 13.9               |
| Lecturer II                                  | 80               | 37.0               |
| Assistant Lecturer                           | 59               | 27.3               |
| Graduate Assistant                           | 32               | 14.8               |
| <b>Current Position</b>                      |                  |                    |
| Professor                                    | 5                | 2.3                |
| Associate Professor                          | 9                | 4.2                |
| Senior Lecturer                              | 28               | 13.0               |
| Lecturer I                                   | 83               | 32.4               |
| Lecturer II                                  | 54               | 25.0               |
| Assistant Lecturer                           | 17               | 7.9                |
| Graduate Assistant                           | 20               | 9.2                |
| <b>Age</b>                                   | M= 41.09         | SD= 7.026          |
| <b>Length of service(current university)</b> | M= 1.64          | SD= 0.687          |
| <b>Length of service(former university)</b>  | M= 6.80          | SD= 4.13           |
| <b>Number of dependents</b>                  | M= 5.26          | SD= 2.84           |

As can be seen in Table 5.3, majority of the the participants were male (66.7%) and married (92.1%), having a minimum of masters degree as highest qualification(65.7%), had left public universities (71.8%), relocated to a different community (89.3%), and had been receiving higher salary in current universities (90%). With respect to position held, 37% of the participants stated that they were

Lecturer II at former universities and 38.4% as Lecturer I in current universities. Additionally, the research participants had on average, worked for 6.8 years ( $SD = 4.13$ ) at former university and for 1.6 years ( $SD = 0.687$ ) in the current university. Finally, on average, participants indicated that they had 5.26 ( $SD = 2.84$ ) number of dependents.

### 5.7 Descriptive Statistics of the Latent Constructs

This part of the chapter is mainly concerned with the statistical explanation of the latent constructs examined in the present study using descriptive analysis. Descriptive statistics in the form of means and standard deviations for the latent constructs were computed. All the latent constructs examined in this study were measured on a four-point Likert scale as applied in prior studies (Lapaš & Orehovački, 2015; Ngadiman, Pambudi, Wardani, & Sabandi, 2014). The findings are displayed in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4  
*Descriptive Statistics for Latent Constructs*

| Constructs                              | Number of indicators | Mean | SD   |
|---|----------------------|------|------|
| Pay satisfaction                        | 13                   | 1.94 | .572 |
| Community embeddedness                  | 8                    | 1.96 | .612 |
| Organizational embeddedness             | 15                   | 2.89 | .515 |
| Perceived alternative job opportunities | 10                   | 2.68 | .587 |
| Actual voluntary turnover               | 7                    | 3.30 | .712 |

The mean scores for the constructs were within the range of 1.94 to 3.30, while the values of the standard deviation ranged from .515 to .712. To easily interpret the findings, the four-point scale employed in this study was categorised



into three score levels, namely, high, moderate and low as suggested by Sassenberg, Matschke, and Scholl (2011). Scores of 3 (highest value 4 - 3/3) is regarded as high. Scores of less than 2 (3/3 + lowest value 1) is regarded as low; while those between low and high scores are regarded as moderate.

Findings as depicted in Table 5.4 indicate that actual voluntary turnover had the highest mean value of 3.30 (SD = .717). This is suggesting that the participants have high level of perception of actual voluntary. Meanwhile, the mean value of 1.94, with a standard deviation of .572 for pay satisfaction is an indication that the participants perceived the level of pay satisfaction as low. More so, the findings also indicate a moderate score for the organizational embeddedness (Mean = 2.89, Standard deviation = .515) this is suggesting that participants had moderate level of perception of organizational embeddedness. Having highlighted the descriptive analysis of the participants and the respective constructs, next section presents the findings of PLS-SEM path analysis.

## **5.8 Model Assessment**

This study applied a two-step process to examine the research model and this process involves assessing both the measurement (outer) model and structural (inner) model (Hair et al., 2014; Henseler et al., 2009).

In order to assess the research model on actual voluntary turnover, partial least square structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) was chosen and there are reasons for using this technique. First, PLS-SEM can handle small sample size

(Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004; Henseler et al., 2009). In other words, this technique can be applied when the number of observations is not up to 250 (Reinartz et al., 2009). Since our sample is small ( $n = 216$ ), PLS path modelling can therefore be applied in this situation. Second, PLS permits the simultaneous and unrestricted computation of cause-effect relationship that involves both reflective and formative models and this applies to the present study in having both reflective and formative constructs. Third, reason for choosing PLS path modelling is because the present study is modelled towards the prediction of the endogenous construct (Chin, 2010; Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2011; Henseler et al., 2009; Hulland, 1999).

Fourthly, PLS-SEM was chosen because of its exceptional capability and flexibility, which is such it is able to handle research models that are complex (Chin & Newsted 1999; Roldán & Sánchez-Franco, 2012), and finally, this technique can be used in both confirmatory and exploratory studies (Gotz, Liehr-Gobbers, & Krafft, 2010; Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). As is the case for the present study, which is explorative in nature, this technique is particularly suitable to explore new relationships between variables (Chin, 2010) such as applying job embeddedness theory, social exchange theory, and social interdependence theory to test our research model.

### **5.8.1 Measurement Model Assessment**

A measurement model assesses the relationships between indicators and latent constructs (Hair et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2013; Henseler et al., 2009). A measurement

model could consist of formative measures, reflective measures or a combination of both measures (Gotz et al., 2010). Depending on the mode of the measures being employed either as formative or reflective, the reliability and validity of the measurement model is determined differently.

For the measurement model in the present study, assessment was performed at two levels: the first-order constructs level and second-order construct level (Becker et al., 2012). At the first order level, the reflective constructs were assessed based on individual indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2013; Hair et al., 2014; Henseler et al., 2009). At the second-order formative construct level, the parameter estimates of individual indicator weights, multicollinearity of indicators and nomological validity were examined.

Hence, seven first-order reflective constructs of, i.e. fit organizational embeddedness, sacrifice organizational embeddedness, perceived alternative job opportunities, and actual voluntary turnover, as well as two second order formative constructs of organizational and community embeddedness were all assessed, but, differently, as depicted in Figure 5.1, Table 5.5 and Table 5.6.

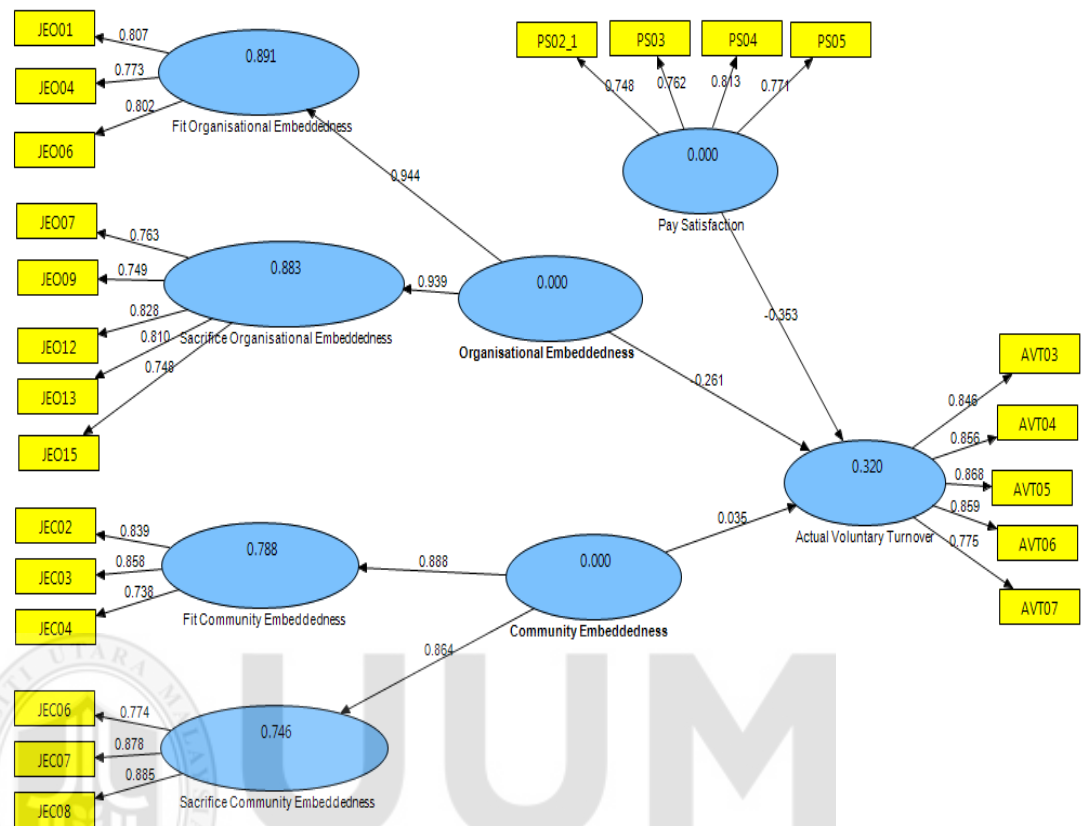


Figure 5.1  
Measurement Model

#### 5.8.1.1. Convergent Validity

Convergent validity explains the degree to which indicators actually represent the intended latent construct and as expected correlate with other measures of the same latent construct (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Findings indicate that the first-order reflective measurement model achieved adequate convergent validity, as all the individual outer loadings exceeded the 0.707 threshold value as suggested by Chin (1998) and Hair et al. (2014).

Similarly, all latent constructs (i.e. actual voluntary turnover, fit and sacrifice organizational embeddedness, fit and sacrifice community embeddedness, pay satisfaction and perceived alternative job opportunities) satisfied the construct reliability requirements, as their composite reliabilities (i.e. CR) were higher than the recommended value of 0.7 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Furthermore, all constructs exceeded the recommended average variance extracted (AVE) threshold value of 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Table 5.5 depicts the results of the loadings, CR and AVE values.

Table 5.5  
*Loadings, Reliability and Average Variance Extracted*

| Latent constructs                            | Loadings | CR    | AVE   |
|--|----------|-------|-------|
| <b>Actual voluntary turnover</b>             |          |       |       |
| AVT03  | 0.846    | 0.924 | 0.708 |
| AVT04  | 0.855    |       |       |
| AVT05  | 0.866    |       |       |
| AVT06  | 0.859    |       |       |
| AVT07  | 0.778    |       |       |
| <b>Fit organisational embeddedness</b>       |          | 0.837 | 0.631 |
| JEO01  | 0.807    |       |       |
| JEO04  | 0.773    |       |       |
| JEO06  | 0.802    |       |       |
| <b>Sacrifice organisational embeddedness</b> |          | 0.886 | 0.608 |
| JEO07  | 0.763    |       |       |
| JEO09  | 0.749    |       |       |
| JEO12  | 0.828    |       |       |
| JEO13  | 0.810    |       |       |
| JEO15  | 0.748    |       |       |
| <b>Fit community embeddedness</b>            |          | 0.854 | 0.661 |
| JEC02  | 0.839    |       |       |
| JEC03  | 0.858    |       |       |
| JEC04  | 0.738    |       |       |
| <b>Sacrifice community embeddedness</b>      |          | 0.884 | 0.718 |
| JEC06  | 0.774    |       |       |
| JEC07  | 0.878    |       |       |
| JEC08  | 0.885    |       |       |

Table 5.5 (continued)

| <b>Latent constructs</b>                       | <b>Loadings</b> | <b>CR</b> | <b>AVE</b> |
|--|-----------------|-----------|------------|
| <b>Perceived alternative job opportunities</b> |                 | 0.878     | 0.590      |
| PA02   | 0.756           |           |            |
| PA03   | 0.722           |           |            |
| PA05   | 0.814           |           |            |
| PA06_1   | 0.713           |           |            |
| PA08_1   | 0.828           |           |            |
| <b>Pay satisfaction</b>                        |                 | 0.856     | 0.599      |
| PS02_1   | 0.748           |           |            |
| PS03   | 0.762           |           |            |
| PS04   | 0.813           |           |            |
| PS05   | 0.771           |           |            |

Note: CR= composite reliability, AVE= average variance extracted.

At this point, the reliability and validity of the first-order reflective measurement models were adequately fulfilled. The next procedure was an evaluation of the formative second order measurement model that included determining individual weight reliability, multicollinearity of the indicators and nomological validity (Becker et al., 2012). Theoretically, formative indicators, unlike reflective ones, should never, by no means be deleted out of the construct since doing so would bring about a misspecified measurement model (Henseler et al., 2009). Therefore, in the present study all formative indicators were retained (see Table 5.6)

Table 5.6  
Outer Weight and Variance Inflation Factor

| Constructs                  | Indicators | Outer Weights | Variance Inflation Factor(VIF) |
|-----------------------------|------------|---------------|--------------------------------|
| Community embeddedness      | JEC01      | 0.003         | 1.689                          |
|                             | JEC02      | 0.252         | 1.680                          |
|                             | JEC03      | 0.238         | 1.766                          |
|                             | JEC04      | 0.222         | 1.346                          |
|                             | JEC05      | 0.059         | 1.184                          |
|                             | JEC06      | 0.152         | 1.451                          |
|                             | JEC07      | 0.230         | 2.054                          |
|                             | JEC08      | 0.239         | 2.163                          |
| Organizational embeddedness | JEO01      | 0.256         | 1.920                          |
|                             | JEO02      | 0.043         | 2.605                          |
|                             | JEO03      | -0.025        | 1.495                          |
|                             | JEO05      | 0.050         | 1.387                          |
|                             | JEO06      | 0.211         | 1.894                          |
|                             | JEO07      | 0.110         | 1.667                          |
|                             | JEO08      | -0.007        | 2.562                          |
|                             | JEO09      | 0.153         | 1.624                          |
|                             | JEO10      | 0.009         | 1.906                          |
|                             | JEO11      | 0.004         | 2.205                          |
|                             | JEO12      | 0.110         | 2.253                          |
|                             | JEO13      | 0.115         | 1.957                          |
|                             | JEO14      | 0.001         | 3.885                          |
|                             | JEO15      | 0.143         | 1.748                          |

Multicollinearity is another issue that is important for formative indicators. This is in view of the notion that the presence of multicollinearity between indicators can make it quite problematical to separate distinct effects of the individual indicators on the latent constructs (Petter, Straub, & Rai, 2007; Thien, Thurasamy, & Razak, 2013).

In this study, the extent of multicollinearity among the formative indicators was assessed using variance inflation factor (VIF) (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982). Moreover, previous studies have suggested that threshold values for VIF should not exceed 5 (Hair et al., 2012) and 10 (Hair et al., 2010; Gefen, Rigdon, & Straub, 2011). From Table 4.6 it is clear that VIF ranged from 1.184 to 3.885, suggesting that all VIF values were below the threshold value of 5, as recommended by Hair et al. (2012). Hence, it is concluded that there is no issue of multicollinearity among the formative indicators.

Finally, the present study also examined the nomological validity of the second-order formative constructs by hypothesizing their relationships with one of the reflective constructs being investigated. Nomological validity is supported if the relationships between the formative constructs and other reflective constructs are significant to the extent that a variable relates to other variables in a theoretically consistent way (Becker et al., 2012).

Table 5.7  
*Nomological Validity*

| <b>Path</b>                         | <b>Beta</b> | <b>SE</b> | <b>t-value</b> |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|-----------|----------------|
| Organizational embeddedness and AVT | .499        | .500      | 9.623          |
| Community embeddedness and AVT      | .265        | .519      | 5.302          |

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

Table 5.7 shows that all constructs had correlation with t-values significant at the level of .001, as theory would suggest. The outcome of this test confirmed the impacts of the formative measures of organizational embeddedness and community embeddedness on actual voluntary turnover.



Therefore, nomological validity was supported. Following the establishment of the reliability of the reflective and formative constructs, the discriminant validity of reflective latent variables was examined.

### 5.8.1.2 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity refers to the degree to which a specific latent construct is distinct from other latent constructs (Duarte & Raposo, 2010). Two tests are usually used to determine discriminant validity, i.e. the Fornell-Larcker (1981) criterion and the cross-loading. The Fornell-Larcker criterion is an all-important test widely regarded as more systematic and reliable than cross-loading (Chin, 2010). According to the Fornell-Larcker criterion, the square root of the AVE for each construct should be more than its correlations with other constructs to attain discriminant validity. Thus, discriminant validity was achieved based on Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criterion by making a comparison of the correlations among the latent variables with square roots of their AVE. Table 5.8 presents the findings from the Fornell-Larcker criterion tests for discriminant validity.

Table 5.8  
*Discriminant Validity(Fornell-Larcker's Criterion)*

| Latent variables                          | 1          | 2          | 3          | 4          | 5          | 6          | 7          |
|---|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| 1 Actual voluntary turnover               | <b>.84</b> |            |            |            |            |            |            |
| 2 Fit community embeddedness              | .37        | <b>.81</b> |            |            |            |            |            |
| 3 Fit organizational embeddedness         | -.43       | -.52       | <b>.79</b> |            |            |            |            |
| 4 Pay satisfaction                        | -.52       | -.62       | .49        | <b>.75</b> |            |            |            |
| 5 Perceived alternative job opportunities | .57        | .53        | -.44       | -.55       | <b>.77</b> |            |            |
| 6 Sacrifice community embeddedness        | .29        | .54        | -.36       | -.42       | .43        | <b>.85</b> |            |
| 7 Sacrifice organizational embeddedness   | -.42       | -.52       | .78        | .52        | -.47       | -.36       | <b>.78</b> |

Note: Entries depicted in bold represent the square root of the average variance extracted.

Cross-loading is another strategy that tests for the presence of discriminant validity at the indicator level. For this test, Chin (1998) recommends that all the individual indicator loadings should be greater than their cross-loadings.

Table 5.9  
*Cross Loadings*

| Item   | AVT          | FCE          | SCE          | FOE          | SOE          | PAJO         | PS           |
|--------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| AVT03  | <b>0.846</b> | 0.301        | 0.257        | -0.334       | -0.322       | 0.468        | -0.410       |
| AVT04  | <b>0.855</b> | 0.272        | 0.263        | -0.372       | -0.371       | 0.458        | -0.431       |
| AVT05  | <b>0.866</b> | 0.374        | 0.340        | -0.367       | -0.353       | 0.498        | -0.454       |
| AVT06  | <b>0.859</b> | 0.300        | 0.195        | -0.396       | -0.362       | 0.500        | -0.464       |
| AVT07  | <b>0.778</b> | 0.297        | 0.171        | -0.349       | -0.342       | 0.469        | -0.410       |
| JEC02  | 0.300        | <b>0.839</b> | 0.550        | -0.453       | -0.438       | 0.442        | -0.534       |
| JEC03  | 0.305        | <b>0.858</b> | 0.399        | -0.438       | -0.432       | 0.452        | -0.500       |
| JEC04  | 0.294        | <b>0.738</b> | 0.351        | -0.369       | -0.397       | 0.388        | -0.474       |
| JEC06  | 0.167        | 0.407        | <b>0.774</b> | -0.325       | -0.353       | 0.351        | -0.356       |
| JEC07  | 0.273        | 0.486        | <b>0.878</b> | -0.277       | -0.308       | 0.365        | -0.388       |
| JEC08  | 0.290        | 0.475        | <b>0.885</b> | -0.307       | -0.269       | 0.382        | -0.327       |
| JEO01  | -0.380       | -0.451       | -0.288       | <b>0.807</b> | 0.647        | -0.385       | 0.444        |
| JEO04  | -0.365       | -0.393       | -0.287       | <b>0.773</b> | 0.573        | -0.376       | 0.361        |
| JEO06  | -0.287       | -0.390       | -0.272       | <b>0.802</b> | 0.645        | -0.296       | 0.352        |
| JEO07  | -0.318       | -0.379       | -0.335       | 0.606        | <b>0.763</b> | -0.403       | 0.375        |
| JEO09  | -0.396       | -0.506       | -0.381       | 0.614        | <b>0.749</b> | -0.416       | 0.505        |
| JEO12  | -0.291       | -0.341       | -0.207       | 0.639        | <b>0.828</b> | -0.304       | 0.344        |
| JEO13  | -0.301       | -0.471       | -0.227       | 0.633        | <b>0.810</b> | -0.409       | 0.480        |
| JEO15  | -0.320       | -0.325       | -0.265       | 0.562        | <b>0.748</b> | -0.270       | 0.314        |
| PA02   | 0.384        | 0.275        | 0.283        | -0.267       | -0.275       | <b>0.756</b> | -0.424       |
| PA03   | 0.311        | 0.329        | 0.401        | -0.184       | -0.217       | <b>0.722</b> | -0.361       |
| PA05   | 0.579        | 0.524        | 0.366        | -0.523       | -0.543       | <b>0.814</b> | -0.551       |
| PA06_1 | 0.292        | 0.236        | 0.296        | -0.189       | -0.171       | <b>0.713</b> | -0.252       |
| PA08_1 | 0.503        | 0.531        | 0.325        | -0.391       | -0.413       | <b>0.828</b> | -0.441       |
| PS02_1 | -0.338       | -0.376       | -0.257       | 0.239        | 0.321        | -0.442       | <b>0.748</b> |
| PS03   | -0.381       | -0.516       | -0.379       | 0.473        | 0.511        | -0.401       | <b>0.762</b> |
| PS04   | -0.416       | -0.450       | -0.274       | 0.306        | 0.352        | -0.442       | <b>0.813</b> |
| PS05   | -0.450       | -0.555       | -0.381       | 0.465        | 0.416        | -0.427       | <b>0.771</b> |

Table 5.9 shows that all indicators loaded higher in their own measures than to all their cross-loadings, indicating the adequacy of discriminant validity for further analysis. Once the measurement (outer) model was validated, the next step was to assess the structural (inner) model and its associated hypothesized relationships, the findings of which are presented next.

### **5.8.2 Structural Model Assessment**

At this level, PLS-SEM calculates the level of the  $R^2$  values, the effect size, the predictive relevance ( $Q^2$ ), test of hypotheses and the significance of the path coefficients of latent constructs as contained in the research model.

#### **5.8.2.1 Level of $R^2$**

A relevant yardstick for evaluating the structural model in PLS modelling is the  $R^2$  value, also referred to as the coefficient of determination (Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2012; Henseler et al., 2009). This value explains the amount of variation in the dependent construct(s) that can be explained by one or more independent constructs (Chin, 2010; Elliott & Woodward, 2007; Hair et al., 2006; Hair et al., 2010). Even though the cut-off value for an acceptable  $R^2$  seems dependent upon the context of the study (Hair et al., 2012), the larger  $R^2$  is better since it explains a larger percentage of variance (Gotz et al., 2010). Nonetheless, Falk and Miller (1992) suggested that an  $R^2$  value should be equal or greater than 0.10 as a minimum acceptable level, while Chin (1998), Henseler et al. (2009) and Urbach and

Ahlemann (2010) regarded a value of 0.60 as substantial, 0.30 as moderate, and around 0.19 as weak. Table 5.10 shows the  $R^2$  value of the endogenous latent construct (i.e. actual voluntary turnover).

Table 5.10  
*Variance Explained in the Endogenous Latent Construct*

| Latent Construct          | Variance Explained ( $R^2$ ) |
|---------------------------|------------------------------|
| Actual Voluntary Turnover | 32%                          |

Table 5.10 shows that the exogenous latent constructs (i.e. pay satisfaction, organizational embeddedness, and community embeddedness) collectively explained 32% of the variance in actual voluntary turnover. Based on Falk and Miller's (1992) and Chin's (1998) yardstick, the variance explained is considered moderate.

#### 5.8.2.2 Effect Size ( $f^2$ )

In addition,  $R^2$  is also useful in evaluating effect size. Effect size shows the effect of a particular independent latent construct on a dependent latent construct by ways of changes in the  $R^2$  (Chin, 1998). Effect size determination is performed by calculating the dependent construct's coefficient in the structural model twice, first with the respective predictor latent construct, and second without that particular predictor latent construct. Put differently, effect size means that a change in the  $R^2$  value when a specified independent variable is omitted from the model can be used to assess whether the omitted variable has a substantive effect on the dependent variable. The effect size  $f^2$  is calculated using the formula below (Cohen, 1988):

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2_{included} - R^2_{excluded}}{1 - R^2_{included}}$$

Cohen (1988) suggested that  $f^2$  values of 0.35, 0.15, and 0.02 have strong, moderate and weak effects, respectively. Table 4.11 depicts the respective effect sizes of the latent constructs of the structural (inner) model based on Cohen's (1988) recommendation.

Table 5.11  
*Effect Sizes of the Latent Constructs*

| <b>R<sup>2</sup></b>             | <b>Included</b> | <b>Excluded</b> | <b>f<sup>2</sup></b> | <b>Effect Size</b> |
|----------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| <b>Actual Voluntary Turnover</b> |                 |                 |                      |                    |
| Organizational Embeddedness      | 0.320           | 0.277           | 0.07                 | Small              |
| Community Embeddedness           | 0.320           | 0.319           | 0.01                 | None               |
| Pay Satisfaction                 | 0.320           | 0.249           | 0.10                 | Small              |

Table 5.11 shows that the effect sizes for the organizational embeddedness, community embeddedness, and pay satisfaction on actual voluntary turnover stood at 0.07, 0.01, and 0.10, respectively. Based on Cohen's (1988) guideline, the effect sizes of these three exogenous latent constructs on actual voluntary turnover can be viewed as small, none, and small respectively. Associations with a small  $f^2$  are not necessarily statistically significant. According to Chin, Marcolin, and Newsted (2003), even the minutest strength of  $f^2$  should be noted because they can influence the dependent construct in their own ways.

### 5.8.2.3 Predictive Relevance of the Research Model

Having ascertained the effect size ( $f^2$ ), this study further undertook a test to determine the predictive relevance of the model. Predictive relevance is symbolised by  $Q^2$ , which is a yardstick to measure how well a model ably predicts the data of omitted cases (Chin, 1998; Hair et al., 2014). This study employed Stone-Geisser's test to ascertain the model's predictive relevance using blindfolding procedure to obtain the  $Q^2$  (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974). Although the present study applied blindfolding to determine the predictive relevance of the research framework, it should be noted that “blind-folding procedure is only applied to endogenous latent variables that have a reflective measurement model operationalization” (Sattler, Völckner, Riediger, & Ringle, 2010, p. 320). Hence, the procedure was employed only to the reflective endogenous latent variable (i.e. actual voluntary turnover).

Specifically, a cross-validated redundancy measure ( $Q^2$ ) was employed to evaluate the predictive relevance of the research model (Chin, 2010; Geisser, 1974; Hair et al., 2013; Ringle, Sarstedt, & Straub, 2012b; Stone, 1974). In the structural model, a reflective dependent latent construct with  $Q^2$  value larger than zero is considered to have predictive relevance (Henseler et al., 2009). In addition, a research model with higher positive  $Q^2$  values suggests greater predictive relevance.

Table 5.12 illustrates the outcome of the cross-validated redundancy  $Q^2$  test.

Table 5.12  
*Construct Cross-Validated Redundancy*

| <b>Total</b>              | <b>SSO</b> | <b>SSE</b> | <b>1-SSE/SSO</b> |
|---------------------------|------------|------------|------------------|
| Actual voluntary turnover | 1080       | 745.412    | 0.3098           |

Table 5.12 shows that the cross-validation redundancy measure  $Q^2$  for the endogenous latent variable was larger than zero, suggesting predictive relevance of the model (Chin, 1998; Henseler et al., 2009). The test of hypotheses and path coefficients follows in the following sections.

#### **5.8.2.4 Path Coefficients and Tests of Hypotheses**

Path coefficient in PLS is employed to establish the link between constructs and to evaluate the significance and strength of the path coefficients. Hair et al. (2012) and Henseler et al. (2009) recommend applying the bootstrapping approach which offers the t and p values. Therefore, in determining the statistical significance level of the path coefficients of the main and moderating effects, this study performed bootstrapping based on 5000 bootstrap samples and 216 cases as suggested by Hair et al. (2014) and Henseler et al. (2009). In this case, the magnitude, algebraic signs and significance of the path coefficient are noted.

#### **5.8.2.5 The Main Effects**

This section presents the findings of the hypothesized main effects as predicted at the outset. The assessment criteria for affirming each hypothesis was the use of t-values greater than or equal to 2.326 at 0.01 and greater than or equal to 1.645 at 0.05 one-tailed level of significance for each path loading (Hair et al., 2006).

Hypothesis one stated that there is a negative relationship between organizational embeddedness and actual voluntary turnover. Findings (i.e. Table

4.13, Figure 4.2) revealed that the hypothesised path for H1 was negative and significant ( $\beta = -0.26$ ,  $t = 3.368$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H1 was supported. Hypothesis two, which predicted a negative relationship between community embeddedness and actual voluntary turnover, was not supported because the estimates derived from the PLS model were not significant ( $\beta = 0.03$ ,  $t = 0.416$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Hypothesis three suggests a negative relationship between pay satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover. The hypothesised path for H3 was negative and significant. Findings showed that pay satisfaction negatively influenced actual voluntary turnover ( $\beta = -0.35$ ,  $t = 4.093$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

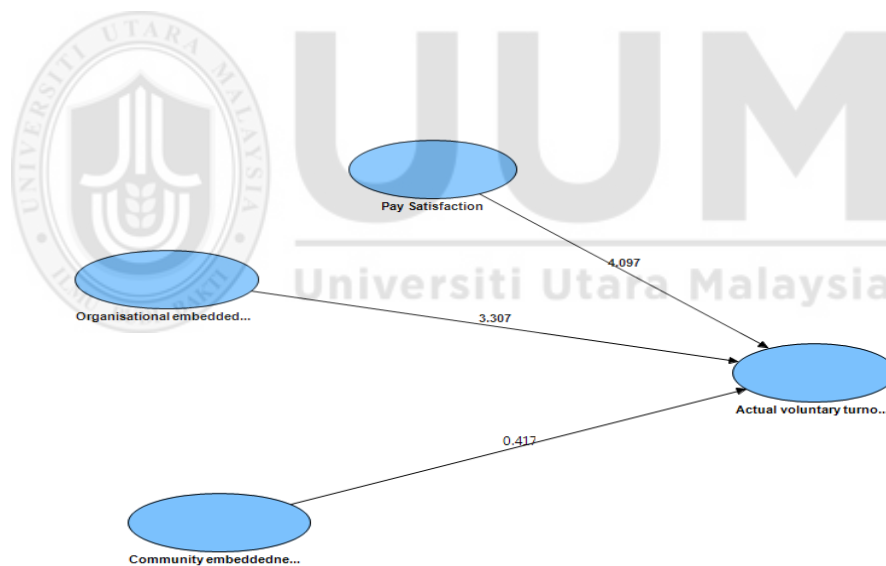


Figure 5.2  
*Structural Model without Interaction*



Table 5.13  
*Structural Results ( Main effects without Interactions)*

| Hypotheses | Relation                            | Beta  | SE   | t/<br>value | Findings         |
|------------|-------------------------------------|-------|------|-------------|------------------|
| <b>H1</b>  | Organizational Embeddedness<br>→AVT | -0.26 | 0.78 | 3.368**     | Supported        |
| <b>H2</b>  | Community Embeddedness<br>→AVT      | 0.03  | 0.82 | 0.416       | Not<br>supported |
| <b>H3</b>  | Pay Satisfaction →AVT               | -0.35 | 0.86 | 4.093**     | Supported        |

Note: \*\* Significant at 0.01 (1-tailed), \* Significant at 0.05 (1-tailed)

AVT = Actual Voluntary Turnover

Figure 5.2 and Table 5.13 provide a summary of the hypotheses tested for the main effects derived from the PLS analysis and the t-values for each path obtained through bootstrapping. Overall, the significant paths were found to support H1 and H3 at the 1% and 5% confidence interval.

#### 5.8.2.6 The Moderation Effects

Chin et al.(2003), Henseler and Fassott, (2010), Latan and Ramli (2013), and Wilson (2010) suggested that the better way to report moderation effects in PLS-SEM is by employing the two-stage approach. Specifically, Chin et al. (2003) and Henseler and Fassot (2010) recommended this approach for estimating moderating effects if the exogenous construct and/or the moderator are formative. This is because the pairwise multiplication would not be possible, “since formative indicators are not assumed to reflect the same underlying construct (i.e. can be independent of one another and measuring different factors), the product indicators between two sets of formative indicators will not necessarily tap into the same underlying interaction effect” (Chin et al., 2003, Appendix D).

Additionally, Chin and colleagues reiterated that instead of using a product indicator approach, the two-stage PLS approach must be used for estimating the moderating effects if formative variables are involved. Consequently, following the modelling recommendation of Chin et al.(2003), and Henseler and Fassott (2010), the present study adopted the two-stage PLS approach over the product indicator approach to identify and estimate the strength of the moderating effect of perceived alternative job opportunities, because two of the study's exogenous constructs are formative (i.e., organizational embeddedness and community embeddedness).

In an effort to test the interaction effects, the current research model was run with the independent and moderating constructs used to predict the dependent construct to obtain the latent variable scores in the first stage. In SmartPLS 2.0, when latent constructs are analysed, their latent variable scores are automatically reported. After running the first research model, the latent variable scores were copied from the SmartPLS report and exported into Excel. Then, the interaction effects were created in Excel by multiplying the latent variable scores for the independent constructs (i.e. organizational and community embeddedness, and pay satisfaction) with the moderator variable (i.e. perceived alternative job opportunities).

Next, the latent variable scores of all the constructs and the generated interaction terms were exported into SmartPLS for further analysis to usher in the second stage. In this stage, the research model was run where all latent

independent variable scores, moderating variable score, interaction terms and latent variable scores of the dependent variable using single indicator scores were bootstrapped (Henseler & Fassort, 2010; Latan & Ramli, 2013). On this basis, this study was able to appropriately model the interaction effects (see Table 5.14 and Figure 5.3).

As earlier stated, hypothesis four predicted that the relationship between organizational embeddedness and AVT is moderated by PAJO. Precisely, this kind of relationship is weaker when the PAJO is plentiful than when PAJO is scarce. As expected, the findings depicted in Table 5.14 and Figure 5.3 demonstrated that the interaction terms representing organizational embeddedness X perceived alternative job opportunities ( $\beta = 0.15$ ,  $t = 1.92$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) were statistically significant. In other words, the findings showed that perceived alternative job opportunities significantly interacted with organizational embeddedness to influence actual voluntary turnover such that the effect of organizational embeddedness on actual voluntary turnover was weaker under conditions of high perceived alternative job opportunities. Hence, H4 was supported. On the other hand, the findings shown in Table 5.14 and Figure 5.3 did not support hypothesis five, which stated that perceived alternative job opportunities moderate the relationship between community embeddedness and actual voluntary turnover ( $\beta = 0.08$ ,  $t = 0.861$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ).

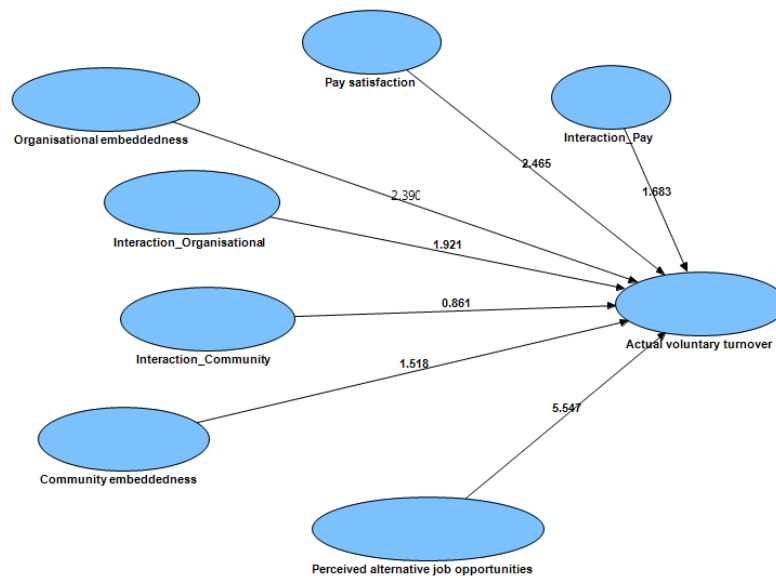


Figure 5.3  
*Structural Model with interaction*

Table 5.14  
*Structural Results (with Interactions)*

|           | Relation                                 | Beta  | SE    | t-value | Findings      |
|-----------|--|-------|-------|---------|---------------|
| <b>H4</b> | Organizational Embeddedness * PAJO → AVT | 0.152 | 0.079 | 1.921*  | Supported     |
| <b>H5</b> | Community Embeddedness * PAJO → AVT      | 0.079 | 0.091 | 0.861   | Not supported |
| <b>H6</b> | Pay Satisfaction* PAJO → AVT             | 0.172 | 0.102 | 1.683*  | Supported     |

Note: \*\* Significant at 0.01 (1-tailed), \* Significant at 0.05 (1-tailed).

AVT = Actual Voluntary Turnover, PAJO=Perceived Alternative Job Opportunities

In compliance with the procedures outlined by Aiken and West (1991), data from the path coefficients were employed to plot the moderating effect of perceived alternative job opportunities on the relationship between organizational embeddedness and actual voluntary turnover. Figure 5.4 illustrates that the

relationship between organizational embeddedness and actual voluntary turnover was weaker when the perceived alternative job opportunities were plentiful than when perceived alternative job opportunities were scarce.

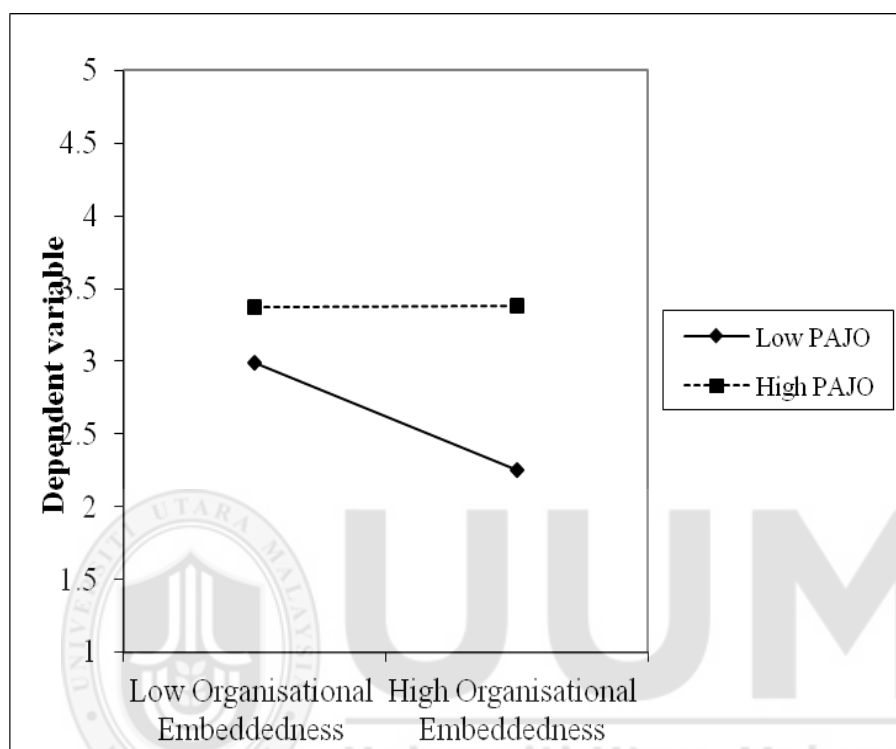


Figure 5.4  
*Interaction effect of organizational embeddedness and perceived alternative job opportunities on actual voluntary turnover*

The findings displayed in Table 5.14 and Figure 5.3 supported hypothesis six, which predicted that perceived alternative job opportunities moderate the relationship between pay satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover such that the relationship was weaker when perceived alternative job opportunities were plentiful than it is when the perceived alternative job opportunities are scarce ( $\beta = 0.17$ ,  $t = 1.68$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Graphically, Figure 5.5 shows that the relationship between pay

satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover was weaker when the perceived alternative job opportunities were plentiful than when perceived alternative job opportunities were scarce.

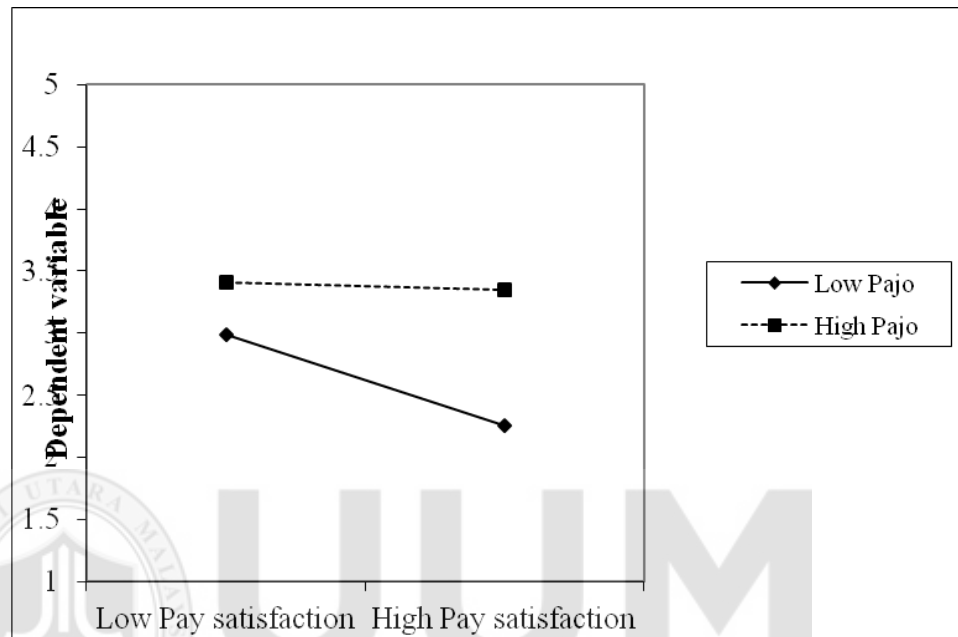


Figure 5.5  
Interaction effect of pay satisfaction and perceived alternative job opportunities on actual voluntary turnover

The results of our analysis provided further support for the hypothesized model that PAJO is a pure moderator of the organizational embeddedness-AVT and pay satisfaction-AVT links. A moderator construct is considered pure if it enters into the interaction with independent constructs without being a significant independent construct as well as having a negligible correlation with the dependent construct (Sharma, Durand, & Gur-Arie, 1981).

### 5.9 Strength of the Moderating Effects

In order to establish the strength of the moderating effects of perceived alternative job opportunities on the relationship between job embeddedness, pay satisfaction and actual voluntary turnover, Cohen's (1988) effect sizes were computed. This involves comparing the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) value of the main effect model with the  $R^2$  value of the whole model that includes the exogenous latent, with and without the moderator constructs (Henseler & Fassott, 2010a; Wilden, Gudergan, Nielsen, & Lings, 2013). Hence, the strength of the moderating (i.e., interaction) effects can be estimated from

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2_{\text{model with moderator}} - R^2_{\text{model without moderator}}}{1 - R^2_{\text{model with moderator}}}$$

The moderating effect size values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 indicate that the model is weak, moderate and strong, respectively (Cohen, 1988; Henseler & Fassott, 2010a). Accordingly, a model with a low effect size does not necessarily mean that the underlying interaction effect is insignificant. For example, Chin et al. (2003) argued that "Even a small interaction effect can be meaningful under extreme moderating conditions, if the resulting beta changes are meaningful, then it is important to take these conditions into account" (p. 211).

Table 5.15  
*Strength of the Moderating Effects*

| Endogenous latent construct | $R^2$    |          | $f^2$ | Effect size |
|-----------------------------|----------|----------|-------|-------------|
|                             | Included | Excluded |       |             |
| Actual voluntary turnover   | 0.448    | 0.320    | 0.231 | Moderate    |

Based on Cohen (1988) and Henseler and Fassott's (2010a) rule of thumb for ascertaining the strength of the moderating effects, Table 5.15 reveals that effect size for actual voluntary turnover was .23 suggesting that the moderating effect was moderate on the endogenous construct (Henseler, Wilson, Götz, & Hautvast, 2007; Wilden et al., 2013).

## 5.10 Summary of Quantitative Findings

Table 5.16 summarizes the findings of all the tested hypotheses.

Table 5.16  
*Summary of hypotheses testing*

| Hypotheses | Statement  | Result        |
|------------|--|---------------|
| H1         | There will be a negative relationship between organisational embeddedness and AVT  | Supported     |
| H2         | There will be a negative relationship between community embeddedness and AVT   | Not supported |
| H3         | There will be a negative relationship between pay satisfaction and AVT   | Supported     |
| H4         | PAJO moderates the relationship between organisational embeddedness and AVT. Particularly, this relationship is weaker when PAJO is plentiful than it is when PAJO is scarce | Supported     |
| H5         | PAJO moderates the relationship between community embeddedness and AVT. Particularly, this relationship is weaker when PAJO is plentiful than it is when PAJO is scarce      | Not supported |
| H6         | PAJO moderates the relationship between pay satisfaction and AVT. Particularly, this relationship is weaker when PAJO is plentiful than it is when PAJO is scarce            | Supported     |

## 5.11 Qualitative Results

Semi-structured interviews were conducted to collect qualitative data, which would be used to complement the quantitative data. Nine former faculty members were



interviewed to obtain their perceptions and experiences regarding the phenomenon under study. This section of chapter presents the findings of the qualitative data. The first segment of the section begins by presenting the interview questions. Next, the demographic profiles of our interview participants are presented. Coding process is then discussed. Finally, the key emergent themes are reported.

#### **5.11.1 Interview Questions**

Initially 13 potential participants indicated their interest and willingness to participate in the interview. However, four of the 13 were not available despite attempts to confirm their actual participation. Eventually, nine participants consented to voluntarily participate in the study. The participants were asked series of demographic questions that included gender, marital status, highest educational qualification, work tenure at the current and former university, salary range at previous and current universities, number of dependents, last location, and previous university. In addition, they were asked some key questions:

#### **5.11.2 Demographic Profile of Interview Participants**

Table 5.17 shows the demographic profile of the nine participants who were interviewed.

Table 5.17  
*Demographics of Qualitative Participants*

| Items                                    | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|--|-----------|----------------|
| <b>Gender</b>                            |           |                |
| Male                                     | 7         | 78             |
| Female                                   | 2         | 22             |
| <b>Age</b>                               |           |                |
| 25-34                                    | 2         | 22             |
| 35-44                                    | 5         | 56             |
| 45-54                                    | 2         | 22             |
| <b>Marital status</b>                    |           |                |
| Married                                  | 7         | 78             |
| Single                                   | 1         | 11             |
| Divorced/widowed                         | 1         | 11             |
| <b>Highest Educational Qualification</b> |           |                |
| Masters                                  | 5         | 56             |
| Doctorate                                | 4         | 44             |
| <b>Current Job Title</b>                 |           |                |
| Associate Professor                      | 2         | 22             |
| Senior Lecturer                          | 2         | 22             |
| Lecturer 1                               | 5         | 56             |
| <b>How long as a lecturer</b>            |           |                |
| 5-11                                     | 6         | 67             |
| Above 11-17                              | 3         | 33             |
| <b>How long at former university</b>     |           |                |
| 5-10                                     | 6         | 67             |
| Above 10-15                              | 3         | 33             |
| <b>How long in current university</b>    |           |                |
| Below 1 year                             | 2         | 22             |
| 1-2 years                                | 5         | 56             |
| Above 2 years                            | 2         | 22             |

As depicted, the majority were male (78%), between the ages of 35 to 44 years old (56 percent), married (78%), and a little over half of them had a master's degree as the highest educational qualification (56%). They also had a varying number of dependents. With respect to the current job title, 56% were lecturer I and had spent between 5 and 11 years as lecturers (67%). In addition, over half of them had spent between 5 and 10 years (67%) working at the former university with 56%

to have spent between 1 and 2 years in the current university. Further, all participants stated that they voluntarily left the public universities and joined private universities located in the southern part of the country. Lastly, all participants reported receiving a higher salary at the current university than what they received at their former university.

### **5.12 Coding Process**

In order to establish meaningful themes, this study used Braun and Clarke's (2006) thematic six steps approach and ATLAS.ti software version 7.0 to analyze the data gathered from the semi-structured interview. ATLAS.ti was employed for at least two reasons. Firstly, it is capable to extract, compare and reassemble meaningful pieces of information into meaningful themes. Secondly, it is able to display findings that enable the researcher to compare frequencies of words, codes and categories (Muhr, 2004). Using the software involves series of steps. The first step was getting familiar with the collected data by converting them into transcripts on Microsoft word document and then entering them into ATLAS.ti. The software digitally accesses, manages, and analyzes the collected data into a compliant form. That was followed by the systematic generation of initial codes. The codes were collated into possible themes. Next was to review and define the themes, which were then labeled. Finally, a graphical representation of the analysis is produced through the use of a variety of links and networks.

### 5.13 Emergent Themes

Based on the thematic analysis, four themes emerged that include:

- Theme 1: Considerations for changing employer
- Theme 2: Process of changing employer
- Theme 3: Challenges
- Theme 4: Expectations

#### 5.13.1 Consideration for changing employer

In explaining their understanding about changing employer, the general understanding of the former faculty members who participated in the interviews described the following forces they considered to have triggered their exit and they include the work environment, commute time and pay disparity. Some of the considerations are presented here:

*“Quality of the work environment... general conditions of service which the private university appears to be doing better for now.”*

(Participant 001, 35-44 age bracket, male, PhD, SL)

*“The considerations were ... Functional work setting ... that will ensure a healthy work environment.”*

(Participant 006, 25-34 age bracket, male, Masters, L1)

*“When I decided to switch to my present employer I considered the fact that the longer I stayed in my former institution the more clear it was that I was teaching in a very dysfunctional work environment....It assisted me to understand why I left. It was just like, that’s was the reason why I left. It was the uncondusive work environment.”*

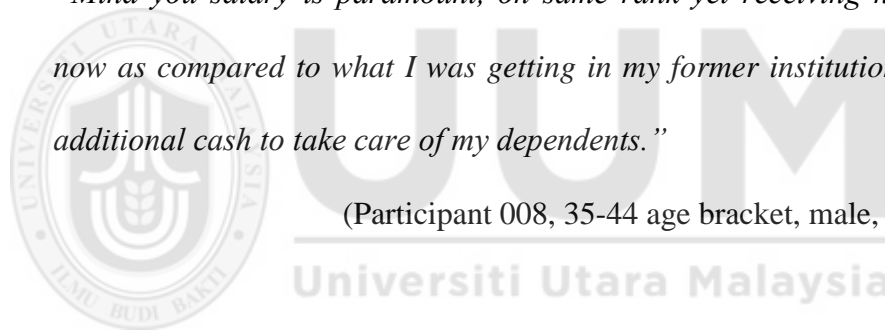
(Participant 009, 35-44 age bracket, female, Masters, L1)

*“I spent a lot of time commuting from home to the previous university; it became too tiring with lots of negative impacts on my family, friends..... That I considered as a burden to spend hours from home to work on almost daily basis and a vital reason to leave. As you see now I spend less time to and fro home to my lectures.”*

(Participant 003, 25-34 age bracket, male, Masters, L1)

*“Mind you salary is paramount, on same rank yet receiving higher salary now as compared to what I was getting in my former institution. I need the additional cash to take care of my dependents.”*

(Participant 008, 35-44 age bracket, male, Masters, L1)



Overall, the interview findings revealed the pervasiveness of a sense of misfit and dysfunctional nature of university work environment, commute time and disparity in pay could have influenced exit decisions.

### **5.13.2 Process of changing employer**

The interview also delved into the process faculty members used to change to their current employer. The interview responses indicate that formal job application,

unsolicited offers, and friends/colleagues influenced their process of switching employer, which can be evidenced from the following relevant excerpts:

*“I wrote an application letter and thereafter was interviewed shortly.”*

(Participant 001, 35-44 age bracket, male, PhD, SL)

*“So I was sitting in my office at IBB University and I got a phone call. Someone had sent them my profile and that they will want to talk to me. So I was invited and interviewed...after the interview they insisted I should come on board.”*

(Participant 002, 35-44 age bracket, male, PhD, SL)

*“The process I went through in changing to my current employer is greatly attributable to some of my friends/colleague/acquaintances who had left to some other universities, encouraged and told me about opportunities elsewhere.... That was what prompted me to leave and grab the opportunity offered by my current employer.”*

(Participant 008, 35-44 age bracket, male, Masters, L1)

### **5.13.3 Challenges**

The main challenges former faculty members of public university had to address upon joining the current employer was also brought up. During the interviews, former members indicated the existence of challenges. For instance,

*“Forming a new department....., also starting some new courses.”*

(Participant 001, 35-44 age bracket, male, PhD, SL)

*“Well the main challenge the moment I reached here was the fear of the unknown. When you go to a new place definitely there are new things, you envisage either the negatives or the positives.....I was able to overcome the few challenges.”*

(Participant 003, 25-34 age bracket, male, Masters, L1)

*“One of the main challenges was in terms of relocating my family members. You know you have to transfer all your children and.... you have to get them into new school.”*

(Participant 005, 35-44 age bracket, male, Masters, L1)

#### **5.13.4 Expectations**

The expectations former members of public universities had of the new employer and whether their initial expectations have been met were also discussed during the interviews. Based on the comments provided by the participants, majority of them expected organizational support related to all academic activities. Some of the opinions are presented here:

*“I expected them to be supportive of all academic endeavors, which they are doing now in all disciplines. I have not had any cause to complain because management is being professional, especially in the way they handle issues and that’s the difference between private and public.”*

(Participant 001, 35-44 age bracket, male, PhD, SL)

*“The expectation is that they will continue to and meet the high level of academic attainment.”*

(Participant 002, 35-44 age bracket, male, PhD, SL)

*“Expectations..... offer opportunities for continuous training and development and research..... There is adequate training program; I have seen that on ground.”*

(Participant 003, 25-34 age bracket, male, Masters, L1)

*“My expectations .... Here you don’t need to lobby to pursue further studies or to get sponsored for conferences. Look at my sponsorship letter to undertake PhD, coming to a place less than a year; I have been sponsored to undertake a PhD.”*

(Participant 006, 25-34 age bracket, male, Masters, L1)

*“The expectation is for the employer to provide me opportunities and grants to go round and meet international scholars.”*

(Participant 007, 45-54 age bracket, male, PhD, Assoc Prof)



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Finally and interestingly, majority of the participants indicated the ambition to attain professorship being the highest echelon one can achieve in an academic environment.

## **5.14 Summary**

In this chapter the assessment of the measurement model and structural model were conducted using PLS-SEM technique via the SmartPLS software (Ringle et al., 2005) in which the key results of the study were presented. Similarly, qualitative



data were also analysed resulting in four main themes. The next, chapter 6 discusses the major findings, contributions, limitations, conclusion of the study and suggestions for future research.



## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

In the previous chapter, the findings of the current study were presented. This chapter discusses the research findings by linking them to the underpinning theory and previous studies. This chapter brings forth a recapitulation of major findings of the study, followed by discussions based on the research questions stated earlier. Additionally, the chapter presents the implications of the study, limitations and suggestions for future research directions. Finally, a conclusion is drawn.

#### **6.2 Recapitulation of Major Findings**

The primary objective of the current study was to examine the moderating effect of perceived alternative job opportunities the links between organizational embeddedness, community embeddedness, pay satisfaction, and actual voluntary among former faculty members of Nigerian public universities. The current study showed that the full PLS path model had reasonable explanatory power with the data, validating four of six hypotheses. Specifically, the findings revealed that organizational embeddedness was significantly and negatively related to actual voluntary turnover. Pay satisfaction was also found to be significantly and negatively related to actual voluntary turnover. However, community embeddedness was not found to be related to actual voluntary turnover. With respect to perceived alternative

job opportunities as a moderator, the findings revealed that perceived alternative job opportunities moderated the link between organizational embeddedness and to actual voluntary turnover. Perceived alternative job opportunities were also found to moderate the link between pay satisfaction and to actual voluntary turnover. But, it did not moderate the relationship between community embeddedness and to actual voluntary turnover. Taken together, the current study has advanced the understanding of the key determinants of actual voluntary and, in particular, the moderating effects of perceived alternative job opportunities. The next section discusses the research findings in relation to previous studies, qualitative findings, and relevant theories in detail.

### **6.3 Discussion**

As noted earlier, the main goal of the current study was to examine the moderating effect of perceived alternative job opportunities (PAJO) on the relationship between organizational embeddedness, community embeddedness, pay satisfaction, and actual voluntary turnover (AVT) among former faculty members. Generally, the research model received empirical support in that actual turnover was attributed to lower levels of organizational embeddedness and pay satisfaction, as well as higher perception of alternative job opportunities. Hence, the findings are generally consistent with previous works. Next, the discussion turns to each predictor of AVT.

#### **6.4 Direct Effects of Organizational Embeddedness**

Hypothesis H1 stated that organizational embeddedness significantly influences actual voluntary turnover. Here, organizational embeddedness was considered one of the dimensions of job embeddedness. It refers to an employee's perception of fitness or compatibility with his/her job, as well as what he/she would lose if he/she leaves the organization (Mitchell et al., 2001). Statistically, the current finding revealed a negative link between organizational embeddedness and AVT, thus, supporting H1. This finding further reaffirms Mitchell et al.'s (2001) claim that the degree of organizational embeddedness is critical for one to engage in actual voluntary exit. The current finding also appears to be in conformity with the results of previous researchers (e.g., Allen, 2006; Felps et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2011). For example, Allen (2006), in a study on employees of financial organizations in the USA, reported that low levels of organizational embeddedness were related to higher incidence of AVT. Smith et al. (2011) also found organizational embeddedness to be a significant predictor of AVT. In addition, Felps et al. (2009) reported a significant relationship between organizational embeddedness and actual turnover decisions among bank and hospitality employees.

This result is also in congruent with the job embeddedness theory (Mitchell et al., 2001), which postulates that if the level of an individual's fitness or compatibility in his/her organization is low, actual voluntary turnover is likely to occur and vice-versa (Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). Ng and Feldman (2009) noted that organizational embeddedness represents both favorable and unfavorable job-related

attributes that enhance or compromise employee functioning, respectively. In this context, the more distant employees' personal goals and values are with those of the organization, the less embedded they would personally and professionally feel in that organization (Mitchell et al., 2001). Subsequently, the individual could be gravitated toward other organizations perceived as sharing some or all of his/her personal values (Cable & Parsons, 2001). Hui (1992) argued that personal values of the individuals can be reflected in the values at work. Work value concerns an outcome of the work, such as work conditions that employees share by being associated with the work organization. We expect one to seek for a job consistent with his/her personal values. He further reiterated that a job that places greater value on self-direction and independence appears to place a much higher value on job conditions that are pleasant as he/she views work not as an end in itself, but a means to attain other, more desirable ends. It could be speculated that faculty members strived to better the livelihood of themselves and their family members.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with several former faculty members who were asked specifically about the considerations they had made before they decided to leave their former employer. The qualitative results indicated that participants used terms such as "quality of the work environment", "conditions of service," "management structure," "supportive of all academic endeavors," "material availability," "career advancement," "training and development," "devoid of any sentiment," "professional advancement," "functional work setting," "better interaction," "conducive environment," "grants," "room for flexibility," "grow my

skills,” and “innovative change,” to describe the work environment in the former organizations. Work environment reflects the broad-based job-related conditions under which employees work (Johnson, Kraft, & Papay, 2012). From the interviews, it is reasonable to speculate that if these conditions were present they might have thwarted the participants’ departure.

Of the elements cited about the work environment, some work conditions in the Nigerian public university played a critical role in the participants’ decisions to actually leave. For instance, many participants expressed disenchantment with the amount of materials made available at the former universities. As related to one faculty member, “The one thing I would mention about my former employer that was very disheartening was that there was insufficient teaching and research support.” Another member shared, “We were using blackboards at my former university, while people have transferred to the use of e-learning materials.”

Several members remarked upon how over time the lack of instructional materials and number of students translated into stress. A former member said, “I was doing so much for so long that it started to wear me down after a while I complained while in the public university that every day after class I went home on several occasions with severe headaches because I shouted on top of my voice ... nobody cared.”

Even though conflict and arbitrary abuse of authority have been recognized as pervasive issues within organizations (Medina, Munduate, Dorado, Martinez, & Guerra, 2005; Spector & Jex, 1998), what was disconcerting was the level of the

conflict and arbitrary abuse of authority and high-handedness of superior officers. Former member exclaimed, “Honestly, the Vice-Chancellor at the former university was one of the reasons why I left because of his high-handedness and arbitrary abuse of power and authority, the guy was such a no good tribalist.” A member also said, “I left because of conflict with a head of department. I attempted to introduce innovative change, but my head of department and other colleagues were not comfortable.”

In addition to this conflict and arbitrary use of authority, former faculty members also expressed dissatisfaction with the limited opportunities for training and development. The qualitative findings revealed that it was the lack of support from the school management towards personal and professional growth that resulted in their departure. The majority of former members complained that the “... issues regarding funds for conferences, workshops, and post-graduate programs were shrouded in secrecy, and the most annoying aspect was that internal research and conference funding were limited and information about funding opportunities and deadlines were also limited. The so called said grants were not easily accessible and were also not fairly administered ... largely characterized by favoritism and sentiments.” These testimonies basically are indications of a high state of dissatisfaction, which was difficult for several to accept and come to terms with. Particularly, in light of the fact that the method of selection and administering funds regarding professional development were largely characterized by who you know.

The interview findings substantiated that more disconnected an individual's personal beliefs, values, and goals are with those of the university, the lower the professional embeddedness in the teaching job and the institution. Additionally, as related to one faculty member "Well, I greatly feel at home here. Most definitely the current employer is far better than the former. Coming to Covenant University, here you find out actually, is wonderful, I have what I call a special or close association with my current employer." This assertion reflected the concept of organizational embeddedness in what the sampled participants called a "special or close association," which was lacking at the previous employment and likely influenced their actual turnover decisions. Perhaps, this finding is not a surprising one given the Nigerian public university's eroding economic climate. More so, Nigeria has been reported to be one of the most corrupt countries in the world (Okpara & Wynn, 2008) characterized by ineffective contemporary human resource management (HRM) practices (Adeyemi, Ojo, Aina, & Olanipekun 2006; Karatepe & Magaji, 2008). It is, therefore, possible that the absence of compatible values in relation to HRM practices between the individual and the organization made them leave. However, such plausible explanation needs to be validated further.

Additional expression of misfit with the job and university management was made. A former member remarked, "The longer I stayed in former employment the more clear it was that I was teaching in a work environment that was very dysfunctional." For other members it was not until they left that they realized the former university work setting for what it was in light of their new university's



climate. One of the members said, “It assisted me to understand why I left. It was just like, that’s was the reason why I left. It was the unconducive work environment.” Correspondingly, Maslow’s hierarchy of need (1943) argues that an individual will not stop needing until he/she gets to the apex rank in the hierarchy.

It is, therefore, likely that the faculty member who voluntarily moved because he/she could not actualize his/her higher needs if he/she chose to remain in the former university. Even though the public university system might not be the only agency of the Nigerian higher education sector to encounter faculty departure (Ambrose et al., 2005; Twale & DeLuca, 2008), the interview findings revealed the pervasiveness of a sense of misfit and dysfunctional nature of university work environment could have influenced exit decisions.

### **6.5 Direct Effects of Community Embeddedness**

Hypothesis H2 stated that community embeddedness, a dimension of job embeddedness, significantly influences actual voluntary turnover. Community embeddedness was defined as the extent to how ingrained employees are in their community (Crossley et al., 2007; Mitchell et al., 2001). It captures the emotional ties that a person has towards his/her community. It includes compatibility with weather and local culture, safe neighborhood, religious and social affiliations, community activities, children in school, working spouse, good public transport, childcare and recreational facilities among others. These influences can create communal bonds that individuals have difficulties giving up.

Unexpectedly, no significant relationship was found, leading to the rejection of H2. The result appears to be inconsistent with the job embeddedness theory (Mitchell et al., 2001), which postulates that if an individual's level of fit with his/her community is low or when the perception of what one would have to give up in leaving his/her community is low, then he/she is likely to leave. Nonetheless, the current result appears to be consistent with other studies that examined similar issue on community embeddedness. For example, Crossley et al. (2007), in a study on employees of a medium-sized organization in the USA, reported an insignificant relationship between community embeddedness and AVT. Similarly, Lee et al. (2004) found that community embeddedness did not explain AVT among employees of five separate international financial institutions. In another study among Caucasian and Hispanic bank employees, Mallol, Holtom, and Lee (2007) found no significant link between community embeddedness and AVT.

Plausible reasons for the insignificant link are revealed by the qualitative finding. Given that the family is the most proximal aspect of one's immediate environment within which a person functions (Posthuma, Joplin, & Maertz 2005; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010), the qualitative findings revealed that living in the same home with parents and other extended family members had influence on turnover decisions. One participant remarked, "The need to live with my parents and other close-knitted family members in the same house. Throughout my work life up until now I have stayed away from my lovely close-knitted family. Thanks to be God for sparing the lives of my parents who are still alive. I value family so much. Being the

eldest and it is obvious that the onus lies on me to care take of the family. I switched to this university because I needed to have both of my immediate and extended family as one big closely knitted family under same roof. You know how it is, is a Nigerian thing to take care of one's family.” This finding, in particular, suggests living with the family is an important actual turnover decision. More importantly, the norm in Nigeria places greater emphasis on entrenched traditional family system than the immediate environment (Ekeopara, 2012).

The qualitative results offer an additional explanation for the irrelevance of community embeddedness as a significant contributor to the faculty departure. The attributes that make a particular community attractive may not be unique to any particular location across the Nigerian states. A former member said that “To change to a particular institution because of its location is not an important consideration. All the states in Nigeria are nearly evenly developed. Almost all the universities are located in the state capital. So, for me where an institution is located is immaterial. Any other university in located in any state could offer equivalent resources that similarly can serve my personal or family needs.”

Another possible explanation for the insignificant result might be related to commute time. Commute time refers to how long an individual spends on travelling from home to work (Purba, 2015; Stutzer & Frey, 2008). If one is highly embedded in his or her immediate community, yet has a job outside the community, high commute time may be perceived as a burden (Stutzer & Frey, 2008) because it thwarts the luxury of the time needed to build stronger ties with the community.

While such claim may be true, more research needs to be done to confirm it. The plausibility of examining commute time as an important topic in turnover decisions becomes paramount as indicated by Deding, Filges, and Van Ommeren (2009), who found that employee's actual reason for quitting was related to commute time. Similarly, Zax and Kain (1991) reported that longer commutes triggered people to quit their jobs.

### **6.6 Direct Effects of Pay Satisfaction**

It was hypothesized that pay satisfaction significantly influences actual voluntary turnover. Pay satisfaction was defined as the overall positive or negative feeling that an individual has towards his or her pay (Miceli & Lane, 1991) and it is a key indicator of the relative willingness on the part of an employee to stay or quit the job (Cropsey et al., 2008; Currall et al., 2005; Tekleab et al., 2005). As expected, this study found a negative relationship between pay satisfaction and AVT, therefore, supporting hypothesis H3. In this context, the current finding appears to be in agreement with prior research that found similar results (Amey, 1995; Borman & Dowling, 2008; Goldhaber et al., 2011; Griffeth et al., 2000; Panaccio et al., 2014; Stanz & Greyling, 2010). For instance, a study by Panaccio et al. (2014) among HRM personnel found that a lower level of pay satisfaction amplified the rate of AVT. In addition, Amey (1995) found a lower level of pay satisfaction to be related to actual voluntary exit among teaching staff in the USA.

Importantly, the current negative result also appears to be in agreement with the tenets underlying social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), which postulates that for exchange relationships to thrive, interactions should generate obligations to reciprocate favors received (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2002; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Ideally, when one does a favor for another person, there is an expectation of some future favorable reciprocation (Blau, 1964). This is because an imbalance in the exchange relationship could generate dissatisfaction (Settoon et al., 1996). As employees seek to redress this imbalance, they may respond in a negative or positive way (e.g., Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004). Therefore, based on the negative norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), it is likely that employee AVT reflects the state of dissatisfaction, which obligates them to repay the negative treatment with a negative one (Eisenberger, Lynch, Aselage, & Rohdieck, 2004; Perugini & Gallucci, 2001). On the basis of this perspective, it is reasonable to argue that the sampled participants could have ended the relationship by leaving because they were dissatisfied with the “give and take” in the exchange relationship.

Interestingly, the interviews provided further clarification to the meaning of pay satisfaction. For some participants, pay satisfaction did not refer solely to the amount but also the disparity in the pay package. As remarked by one participant, “On same rank yet receiving higher salary now as compared to what I was getting in my former institution.” Another commented that, “I need additional cash to take care of my dependents.”

The interview findings also reaffirmed the negative link between pay satisfaction and AVT and highlighted pay disparity between public and private sector academic staff, with the former universities paying better than the latter. Fapohunda (2013) also indicated that the Nigerian public universities appear to have issues with pay equity. Presently, the condition of the Nigerian educational system has deteriorated and faculty members have become the least paid among their contemporaries in Nigeria. This was reported in a survey carried out in 2013 by the National universities Commission (NUC). It was found that a full professor in any Nigerian public university earns a total of N2.4 million per annum (equivalent to USD12, 000). Therefore, a need arises for the Nigerian public universities to undertake a thorough salary analysis to rectify the possible pay inequities between public universities and the other sectors of the Nigerian economy.

#### **6.7 Moderating Effect of Perceived Alternative Job Opportunities (PAJO)**

PAJO refers to an employee's perception regarding alternative job options in the external job market and his/her belief that he/she can find a better job elsewhere (Hui et al., 1999; Lee et al., 2008; Thatcher et al., 2002). The incorporation of PAJO as a moderator was theorized to play a significant role in strengthening the negative effects of organizational embeddedness and pay satisfaction on actual voluntary turnover. As expected, this study found a moderated relationship between organizational embeddedness and AVT, therefore, supporting hypothesis four. As

predicted, the current study as well demonstrated a moderated link between pay satisfaction and AVT, supporting H6.

The current results appear to be line with prior studies that found the moderating effect of PAJO (Addae et al., 2008; Boswell et al., 2004; Hwang & Kuo, 2006; Liden & Parsons, 1986). For instance, a study by Hwang and Kuo (2006) found PAJO to moderate the association between job satisfaction and voluntary turnover. Similarly, Liden and Parsons (1986) also revealed a moderated relationship between job reactions, job acceptance, and PAJO. In a recent study of bank employees of different conventional and Islamic banks in Islamabad, Pakistan, Mushtaq et al. (2014) showed that the relationship between organizational justice and job satisfaction was moderated by PAJO. Furthermore, the current moderated results appear to be consistent with Thibaut and Kelley's social interdependence theory (1959), which posits that perception of alternative job opportunities raises the comparison levels for alternatives and job change especially when alternative job opportunities are plentiful than it is when they are scarce.

However, contrary to expectation, no moderated relationship was found between community embeddedness and AVT, and therefore H5 was rejected. A possible explanation for the insignificant result might have to do with the notion that most individuals "do not quit on the basis of probabilities estimated from alternatives available, but they quit on the basis of certainties represented by jobs already offered" (Hulin et al., 1985, p. 244). Such position is suggestive that a job already

offered is a more important consideration influencing the turnover decisions than one's level of community embeddedness.

In addition to the quantitative survey, the perception of alternative job opportunities was evidenced from the in-depth interviews done with several former faculty members. They were asked specifically about how they switched to the current university. As participants remarked "I applied through, online. And when I applied through online I was immediately called for an interview." "I wrote an application letter and thereafter was interviewed shortly." "I simply submitted an application letter, called for an interview, and here we are today that was how I came here."

From the interviews, it is reasonable to speculate that the establishment and proliferation of private universities ushered in a vibrant higher education job market in Nigeria. Such played a critical role in the participants' decisions to actually leave. Nonetheless, the plausibility of other forms of alternative jobs influencing turnover decisions is also speculated.

For instance, as related to one faculty member, "My profile I don't know was in the worldwide web, so I was sitting in my office at IBB University and I got a phone call. Someone had sent them my profile and that they will want to talk to me. So I was invited and interviewed. At that time they were really getting off the ground. And so I did and after the interview they insist I should come on board." Hence, this result is indicative that unsolicited job offers as well influences turnover decisions.



Taken together, it is reasonable to speculate that the increase in the number of private university jobs with better conditions of service and salaries might have evoked the demand for additional manpower (Iruonagbe et al., 2015), triggered misfit (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991) and pushed employees towards other organizations they believe share some or all of their personal goals and values (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006), and likely created a favorable condition for faculty turnover (Olusegun, 2012). It therefore, follows that the competitive edge of an employer can be easily lost if the worker decides to explore opportunities outside the organization (Mushtaq et al., 2014). Because plentiful alternative jobs could evoke an individual not to accept anything less than what he/she expects and what is being offered from the competitors (Dinger et al., 2012). While such assertion may be possible and valid, this remains speculative at most. Thus, future scholars need to further investigate this assertion.

## **6.8. Implications of the Results**

The results of this study have many important implications for theory and practice. The implications are, therefore, discussed in the following two sections.

### **6.8.1 Theoretical Implications**

Firstly, the current study has offered a theoretical implication by providing additional empirical evidence in the domain of job embeddedness theory. The theory posits that an employee's perception of fitness or compatibility with his/her job, as well as what

he/she would lose if he/she leaves the organization, (Mitchell et al., 2001) should theoretically be able to determine the likelihood of individuals engaging in actual voluntary turnover (Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). Prior studies have heavily explored the effects of job embeddedness using turnover intention in the western context. Instead of focusing on the relationship between organizational embeddedness and turnover intention, this study extended the theory by examining actual voluntary turnover in a non-western context. This is crucial because focusing on intention provides an incomplete view of actual voluntary turnover behavior (Cohen et al., 2015; Meier & Hicklin, 2008; Selden & Moynihan, 2000). Using this theory, this study was able to ascertain that poorly embedded employees are much more oriented towards the external labor market, and more likely to demonstrate greater involvement in AVT. Specifically, it was clear that the results of the present study have significant implications for faculty members' actual voluntary turnover. What remains unclear is whether the effects of organizational embeddedness on AVT could be generalized to a non-western work setting due to the differences in the nature of the job, and, thus, future research needs to be carried out to investigate this.

Secondly, this study has offered a theoretical implication by providing additional empirical evidence in the domain of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). The theory postulates that in order for high quality exchange relationships to thrive, parties in the relationships should derive satisfaction and demonstrate state of mutual benefits from each other. When one does a favor for another person, there is an expectation of some future favorable return. The current study has extended the

social exchange theory by assessing the effect of pay satisfaction on actual voluntary turnover behavior at work. In the course of testing social exchange theory, the current study has been able to uncover that poor exchange relationships between employer and employee obligated employees to reciprocate negative treatment with negative ones. Additionally, current results demonstrated that pay satisfaction significantly predicted AVT thereby lending empirical evidence in support of the said theory. Based on the findings and discussions, it is therefore, important to pay attention to this factor as related to the higher levels of AVT exhibited by former faculty of the Nigerian public universities.

Thirdly, prior studies have reported significant relationships regarding the moderation effects of PAJO (Panaccio et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2012). However, the current study offered empirical evidence of the power of PAJO to moderate significantly between job embeddedness, pay satisfaction, and AVT. This study has exceeded beyond a mere validation of the negative effects of job embeddedness and pay satisfaction on AVT as reported in previous literature (Allen, 2006; Felps et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2004; Mallol et al., 2007; Mitchell et al., 2001; Panaccio et al., 2014; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010; Smith et al., 2011). Undoubtedly, the interactive effect allows for a better understanding of the dynamics that exist between job embeddedness and AVT, as well as between pay satisfaction and AVT. As such, the current study has reinforced the arguments made by Addae et al. (2008) and Amankwaa and Anku-Tsede (2015) on the potentially significant role of perceived alternative job opportunities construct as a moderator.

An extensive review of the literature indicates that only a few studies have been conducted on the job embeddedness-AVT link (Allen, 2006; Felps et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2012). The current study contributes further to the existing job embeddedness-AVT literature. However, much more about the theoretical links between job embeddedness and AVT remained unexplained, especially in countries such as Nigeria and in the higher education sector where no similar research had been done, with exception of a study by Karatepe (2013) among hotel personnel in Nigeria. The rest of job embeddedness-AVT studies were conducted in the developed western societies. The context of the present study (i.e., Nigeria) is a multi-religious, multi linguistic multi-ethnic, and the most populated black nation in the entire world. So, a study of this nature is likely to be a good contribution to the existing body of knowledge.

This study also extended the embeddedness literature by modeling and measuring job embeddedness as a second-order latent construct. Given that very few studies have measured the dimensions of job embeddedness as separate variables (Feldman & Ng, 2007; Mitchell et al., 2001), this study tested the concept's specific dimensions as separate constructs, which were found to be significantly predicting AVT. Nonetheless, more research is needed to further validate its importance in predicting AVT.

### **6.8.2 Practical Implications**

The findings from this study have several implications for management with regards to the importance of organizational embeddedness, pay satisfaction, and the influence of perceived alternative job opportunities. They also offer guidance on how to encourage high level embeddedness and satisfaction among employees.

First, this study provides evidence on the importance of strong embeddedness in organization. A stronger tie to the organization has many positive outcomes. Therefore, university management can take cue and promote deeper ties and greater sense of belonging. In addition, they should understand that poorly embedded members are much more likely to be oriented towards the external labor market, especially when there are plentiful job opportunities (Thatcher et al., 2002). Against this backdrop, the university management should prioritize, promote and strengthen the culture of embeddedness in their institutions (Gallagher, Kaiser, Simon, Beath, & Goles, 2010).

The university management can be proactive about organizational embeddedness in the following ways. First, organizational fit embeddedness can be amplified by matching workers' skills, attitudes, knowledge, and abilities with a job's requirement (Gallagher, Kaiser, Frampton, & Gallagher, 2007; Gallagher et al., 2010). In this case, the management should ensure that tasks and obligations are only assigned according to the expected workload so that members are not unnecessarily overburdened. The sacrificial cost of leaving can also be increased by providing, for example, an on-going program of training and career advancement. In addition, the

employees' level of embeddedness could be boosted by providing opportunities to enhance initiative and creativity. The school management can also publicly praise members for a job well done. Doing so should make employees feel appreciative and respected by their colleagues.

Secondly, this study revealed that dissatisfaction with pay was one of the reasons Nigerian public universities had lost a large number of their members. The current finding presents yet another important clue for the university management to grasp, appreciate and use it against further exit of their members. They can use as an avenue to promote high satisfaction level among all members. In this instance, the university management can consider implementing competitive compensation systems that would reward employees for their experience and knowledge, as well as encourage them to stay (Rayton, 2003).

Finally, the current study uncovered PAJO as an important moderating variable that strengthens the effects of both job embeddedness and pay satisfaction on AVT. The current findings indicate that an external labor market with plentiful job alternatives attracts the interest of individuals who are weakly embedded and dissatisfied with their pay in comparison to people with higher levels of organizational embeddedness and pay satisfaction (Michaels, 1982; Thatcher et al., 2002).

Therefore, the university management can take cue and provide more internal growth opportunities (Osterman, 1984). The school authority can, for example, promote teaching staff into managerial roles. To prepare them for such

responsibilities, the management should conduct leadership training activities or support their members' pursuit of external managerial education (Ang & Slaughter, 2004).

Providing such opportunities demonstrates that members who stay will have the chance to assume a managerial role in addition to teaching (Roepke, Agarwal, & Ferratt, 2000). Therefore, members who perceive such opportunities would likely form stronger connections with their university and remain long term

## **6.9 Study Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research**

Generally speaking, the research should determine the method. However, at times, the progression of the study determines which research method is the most appropriate. Therefore, this study adopted a cross-sectional study such that data were collected once within a relatively short period of about four months. But a cross-sectional study could not offer insights into the cause-and-effect relationships. This is because a cross-sectional study provides a snapshot of a single moment in time, which does not consider what occurs before or after the snapshot is taken. That would be the reason why a researcher should start with a cross-sectional method to first establish whether there are relationships between certain constructs. Such an attempt would then facilitate longitudinal studies among future researchers because it is more likely to determine causal relationships among constructs by virtue of its scope (Allen, 2006; Messersmith & Guthrie, 2011)

Secondly, the present study considered only former faculty members of Nigerian public universities. Given that the faculty members were homogenous and the resources available were limited, relying on a single geographical zone (i.e., southern) was an appropriate, doable and economical option. However, the use of only former faculty members of public universities was limited in terms of the extent to which the results of the study can be generalized. Therefore, this study should be replicated in other types of higher education institutions like private universities, polytechnics, monotechnics, specialized universities and institutes, school of nursing, colleges of education, and colleges of health technology in order to increase the generalizability of the results.

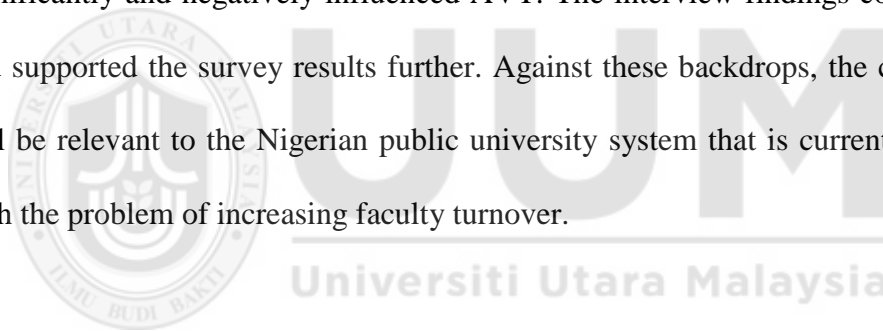
Finally, the independent variables examined in the present study were confined to organizational embeddedness, community embeddedness, and pay satisfaction. Perhaps, there are other factors of AVT that should be given a considerable attention in the Nigerian public university, such as commute time, pay disparity, and objective alternative job opportunities, which were uncovered following the conduct of interviews. Hence, future researchers should incorporate them in future research.

## **6.10 Conclusion**

Theoretically, two important gaps exist in the literature with regards to the links between job embeddedness, pay satisfaction, and AVT. Past studies in this area (Jiang et al., 2012; Panaccio et al., 2014; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010) have not



addressed the following in their study: (1) the moderating influence of perceived alternative job opportunities on the relationship between job embeddedness and AVT; and (2) the moderating influence of perceived alternative job opportunities on the relationship between pay satisfaction and AVT. The current study has enhanced the literature by further affirming prior findings (Jiang et al., 2012; Panaccio et al., 2014; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010) regarding the significant negative relationship between organizational embeddedness, pay satisfaction, and actual voluntary turnover in a newer context (Nigeria) and setting (public university). The current study demonstrated that organizational embeddedness and pay satisfaction significantly and negatively influenced AVT. The interview findings complemented and supported the survey results further. Against these backdrops, the current study will be relevant to the Nigerian public university system that is currently grappling with the problem of increasing faculty turnover.



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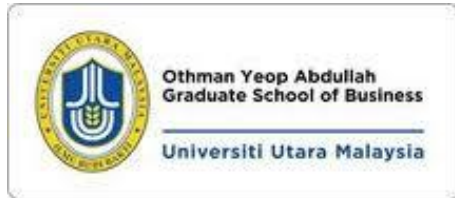
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## Appendix A

### Research Questionnaire



Othman Yeop Abdullah  
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Dear Prof / Reader / Dr / Mr / Mrs / Ms,

#### ACADEMIC RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

My name is Talatu Raiya Umar, and I am enrolled in a doctoral program at UNIVERSITI UTARA MALAYSIA, currently undertaking a research study on actual voluntary turnover. As part of my research study I am asking academic staff who voluntarily left the employment of Nigerian public universities and join private universities to participate in the survey. For this reason, you are selected to share your views about your former employer. At the present time, I am in the data collection phase of the doctoral process, and in order for me to fulfill my dissertation requirements, I humbly ask for your assistance and voluntary participation in completing the questionnaire. In doing so, you will be helping to complete my research study. The information you provide will be held in strict confidence, and you will not be identified in any way. To help ensure the confidentiality of your responses, please do not disclose your identity. This survey is voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time from participating. However, your help, time, insights, and perceptions are valuable resources and will be highly appreciated, and your participation should not take more than 10 to 15 minutes of your time to complete. Do please return the completed survey in the envelope provided to the administrative officer at the respective offices of your Heads of Department within seven (7) days of receipt. If you have any questions or concerns about this research study, please feel free to email me at raiyau@yahoo.com or call +2347031639445.

Sincerely,  
Talatu Raiya Umar,  
Ph.D Research Candidate

## TURNOVER SURVEY

### PART A:

The statements below describe your feelings toward pay at YOUR FORMER UNIVERSITY. Please use the scales provided to indicate your level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with each statement, by circling the appropriate response.

|       |   | Strongly<br>dissatisfied | Dissatisfied | Satisfied | Strongly<br>satisfied |
|-------|---|--------------------------|--------------|-----------|-----------------------|
| PS1.  | My take-home pay at my former University                                | 1                        | 2            | 3         | 4                     |
| PS2.  | My overall level of pay at my former University                         | 1                        | 2            | 3         | 4                     |
| PS3.  | Size of my last drawn salary at my former University                    | 1                        | 2            | 3         | 4                     |
| PS4.  | My benefit package at my former university                              | 1                        | 2            | 3         | 4                     |
| PS5.  | Influence my former university had on my pay                            | 1                        | 2            | 3         | 4                     |
| PS6.  | The raises I had typically received at my former university             | 1                        | 2            | 3         | 4                     |
| PS7.  | The way my raises were determined at my former university               | 1                        | 2            | 3         | 4                     |
| PS8.  | My former university's pay structure                                    | 1                        | 2            | 3         | 4                     |
| PS9.  | Information my former university gave about pay issues of concern to me | 1                        | 2            | 3         | 4                     |
| PS10. | Pay of other jobs at my former university                               | 1                        | 2            | 3         | 4                     |
| PS11. | Consistency of my former university's pay policies                      | 1                        | 2            | 3         | 4                     |
| PS12. | Differences in pay among jobs at my former University                   | 1                        | 2            | 3         | 4                     |
| PS13. | How my former university administered pay                               | 1                        | 2            | 3         | 4                     |

## PART B:

The following statements describe your perceptions about your former place of residence. Please use the scales provided to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each statement, by circling the appropriate response.

JEC1 Is your new place of residence in a different location/state as your former place where you lived? ☐ Yes ☐ No

If you answered **YES** to the above question, please proceed to questions JEC2-JEC9.  
If you answered **NO** to the above question, skip and proceed to JEO1.

|  | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|--|-------------------|----------|-------|----------------|
| JEC2. I really liked the place where I lived   | 1                 | 2        | 3     | 4              |
| JEC3. I liked the family-oriented environment of my former place where I lived   | 1                 | 2        | 3     | 4              |
| JEC4. The former place where I lived in was a good match for me  | 1                 | 2        | 3     | 4              |
| JEC5. I thought of the former place where I lived as home  | 1                 | 2        | 3     | 4              |
| JEC6. The former area where I lived offered the leisure activities that I liked (e.g. sports, outdoors, cultural, arts). | 1                 | 2        | 3     | 4              |
| JEC7. Leaving the former place where I lived was very hard   | 1                 | 2        | 3     | 4              |
| JEC8. People respected me a lot in my former place where I lived   | 1                 | 2        | 3     | 4              |
| JEC9. My former place of residence was safe  | 1                 | 2        | 3     | 4              |

## PART C:

The following statements describe your perceptions about your former job and university. Please use the scales provided to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each statement, by circling the appropriate response.

|        |  | Strongly<br>disagree | Disagree | Agree | Strongly<br>agree |
|--------|--|----------------------|----------|-------|-------------------|
| JEO1.  | My former job utilized my skills and talents well  | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| JEO2.  | I felt like I was a good match for the former university                                     | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| JEO3.  | I felt personally valued by the former university  | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| JEO4.  | I liked my work schedule (e.g. flextime, shift) at my former university                      | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| JEO5.  | I fitted with the former university's culture  | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| JEO6.  | I liked the authority and responsibility I had at the former university                      | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| JEO7.  | I had a lot of freedom on the former job to decide how to pursue my goals                    | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| JEO8.  | The perks on the former job were outstanding   | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| JEO9.  | I felt that people at the former university respected me a great deal                        | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| JEO10. | I incurred very few costs when I left the former university                                  | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| JEO11. | I sacrificed a lot when I left the former job  | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| JEO12. | My promotional opportunities were excellent at the former university                         | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| JEO13. | I was well compensated for my level of performance at my former university                   | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| JEO14. | The benefits were good in the former job   | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| JEO15. | I believed the prospects for continuing employment with the former university were excellent | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |

## PART D:

Below are statements that describe how you may have perceived the external job market. Please use the scales provided to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each statement, by circling the appropriate response.

|       |  | Strongly<br>disagree | Disagree | Agree | Strongly<br>agree |
|-------|--|----------------------|----------|-------|-------------------|
| PA1.  | There weren't simply very many jobs for people like me in the job market.  | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| PA2.  | Given my qualifications and experience getting a new job was not very hard at all.                                       | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| PA3.  | I can think of a number of universities that would have probably offered me a job when I was looking.                    | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| PA4.  | If I looked for a job, I would probably wind up with a better job than the one I had before                              | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| PA5.  | By and large, the job I got after I left my previous university is superior to the job I had.                            | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| PA6.  | I had a far-reaching network of contacts which helped me find out about my present opportunities.                        | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| PA7.  | I had contacts in other universities who helped me line up for the current job.  | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| PA8.  | My work and/or social activities brought me in contact with a number of people who helped me line up for my present job. | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| PA9.  | When I left, I already had a job offer on the table from another university  | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |
| PA10. | I found a better alternative than previous employment.   | 1                    | 2        | 3     | 4                 |



## PART E:

The statements below represent your behavior with respect to separation from YOUR FORMER UNIVERSITY. Please use the scales provided to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each statement, by circling the appropriate response.

|       |  | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|-------|--|-------------------|----------|-------|----------------|
| AVT1. | It was entirely my decision to leave my former university.           | 1                 | 2        | 3     | 4              |
| AVT2. | It was at least partly my former university's decision that I leave. | 1                 | 2        | 3     | 4              |
| AVT3. | Informally, I was encouraged to leave my former university.          | 1                 | 2        | 3     | 4              |
| AVT4. | I was certain that my former university wanted me to stay.           | 1                 | 2        | 3     | 4              |
| AVT5. | The decision to leave was primarily made by my former university.    | 1                 | 2        | 3     | 4              |
| AVT6. | My former university no longer needed me.                            | 1                 | 2        | 3     | 4              |
| AVT7. | The decision to leave was mostly mine.                               | 1                 | 2        | 3     | 4              |

## SECTION F:

Please fill in the space provided or tick in the appropriate box.

- What is your gender? ☐ Male ☐ Female
- Your age (please specify): \_\_\_\_\_ years
- What is your marital status? ☐ Married ☐ Single  
☐ Widowed/divorced
- Your highest educational qualification?  
☐ Bachelor's degree ☐ Masters ☐ Doctorate ☐ Others
- Name of previous university? \_\_\_\_\_
- Length of service at current university? \_\_\_\_\_
- Length of service at previous university? \_\_\_\_\_
- Last job position at previous university? \_\_\_\_\_
- Your current job title?  
☐ Professor ☐ Associate Professor ☐ Senior Lecturer  
☐ Lecturer I ☐ Lecturer II ☐ Assistant Lecturer  
☐ Graduate Assistant
- Please Indicate where you were/are being paid less than you deserve

☐Former      ☐Current University

11. How many dependents do you have? \_\_\_\_\_

12. Indicate your current place of residence (name of area/state)\_\_\_\_\_

13. Indicate your previous place of residence (before leaving the former university)

\_\_\_\_\_

**Thank you so much for completing the questionnaire ☺**



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## **Appendix B**

### **Semi-structured Interview Protocol**

**Inquiry:** Academic staff actual voluntary turnover  
**Participant:**  
**Gender**  
**Date:**  
**Time:** \_\_\_\_\_ to  
**Place**

#### **Opening remarks:**

Researcher greets the participant and thanks him/ her for accepting to participate in the interview. The researcher briefly reviews the focus of the study. During this session, researcher will ask many questions. The questions are intended to guide the interview; there is no right or wrong answers, so participants are expected to express themselves as openly as they feel comfortable. Then researcher tells participants' that today's interview should take about 30-40 minutes.

Researcher will seek participants' consent to audio record the conversation. Assures participants that their identities will remain anonymous and confidential and all audio recordings will be destroyed after transcription. Then participants will be asked if they are in agreement with this approach.

After this discussion and achieving agreement from the participants, each participant will append his or her signature on the informed consent form. The tape recorder will be checked to ensure that it is working.

#### **Participant Interview Question**

Researcher told individual participant that as one who left public university and currently teaching in a private university, he/she has been chosen to speak with the researcher because he/she is identified as someone who has a great deal to share about his or her lived experiences that led to his/her departure. As such, his/her opinion regarding actual voluntary turnover is important to this study.

First, researcher will ask individual participant the following questions related to demographic characteristics.

Please may I know?

1. What is your age? (Can answer in categories, if preferred, under 25, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64, 65 and over)
2. What is your marital status?
3. What is highest educational qualification?
4. Your current job title?
5. What was your salary at your former university?
6. What is your salary in your current university?

7. How many dependents do you have?

Secondly, the following key question will be asked:

1. Before you moved to this current university, which university did you work for?
2. How long were you there?
3. How long have you been in this current university?
4. Was your joining the current university voluntary?
5. When you decided to change employer, what considerations did you make? What were your priorities? What kind of employer did you look for? What expectations did you have of the new employer?
6. Can you describe to me the process you went through in changing your employer?
7. After you had decided to move to the current employer, what were the main challenges you had to address? How did you deal with them? Were they difficult to deal with? How do you like your new employer now? How do you like the new job? The new environment, were your initial expectations met?
8. In the next five years, where would you see yourself?

Before the interview ends, researcher asks whether the participant has any questions or has anything else to say.

### **Conclusion**

Researcher will ask participants if they would consent to a follow up on any of their answers in which the researcher may need clarification or more detail. Finally, researcher thanks the participants for sharing their feelings.

## Appendix C

### Informed Consent Form

Dear (Code of Participant)

The purpose of this study is to examine how academic staffs who left public and joined private universities within the last 36 months or less perceive the experiences that led to their actual voluntary turnover. Participation in this research study is voluntary and all information will be treated as confidential. You may withdraw from the research study at any time without consequence to you. The interview will be audio recorded. Your signature below indicates informed consent to voluntarily participate in this research study. You are acknowledging your understanding of the aim of this study and you are providing permission to audio-record your interview.

Please feel free to contact me at any time: raiyau@yahoo.com or call +60146303150, +2347031639445, and +2348023639393

Sincerely,

Talatu Raiya Umar,

PhD Research Candidate,

Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of

Business, Universiti Utara Malaysia,

06010, Sintok, Kedah, Malaysia

\_\_\_\_\_  
Name of Participant

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of Participant

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Approval for Recording of Interview

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

## **Appendix D**

### **Qualitative Methods and Data**

The qualitative data are obtained from face-to-face semi-structured interviews of nine faculty members that left the employment of public universities in Nigeria and joined private universities. The researcher identified participants through the academic staff list obtained from the National Universities Commission in Abuja, Nigeria. The researcher phoned some of the participants from the list, and politely introduced herself and explained the reason of the call and asked if they were interested in participating. Others declined while other people accepted to participate. Out of the calls, nine obliged to participate. All subjects that accepted to participate were hand-delivered a copy of the informed consent form (Appendix C) to sign and date the copy.

At the onset of each interview, the researcher introduced herself, re-explained the object of the research. All participants were also informed that interview was to be audio taped for record-keeping purposes and asked if they had any questions. Thereafter, the tape recorder was then turned on, and the researcher began asking the questions based on the interview protocol (see Appendix B). However, some of the participants insisted on filling the first part of the interview which comprises questions on their demographic profiles. When all the questions had been asked and answered, the audio recorder was turned off.

The interviews were performed between December 2014 and February 2015. All participants except two agreed for the interview sessions to be audio-taped. In these two interviews detailed notes were taken of the conversation. The interviews generally lasted between 30-45 minutes. The interviews enabled the study to gather an array of information on why teaching staff voluntary leave public universities. Collected data were transcribed and analyzed using thematic approach (Braun & Clarke, 2006) and ATLAS.ti software to extract, explore, manage, and reassemble meaningful pieces of collected data into meaningful themes. For this study, the analyzed transcripts culminated into four major themes of considerations, process, challenges, and expectations of changing employer.

**APPENDIX E**  
**Summary of Selected Studies on Actual Voluntary Turnover**

| S/N | Author   | Country | Industry                          | Variable/Method  | Findings and Future Studies  |
|-----|--|---------|-----------------------------------|--|--|
| 1   | Kirshenbaum and Weisberg (1990)                  | Israel  | Hospital                          | Age, wage level, tenure, intention, actual turnover. Logistic regression                               | AVT and intention affected by separate sets of factors. Tenure, age, and wage level had significant impact on AVT. Further studies on the link between intent and AVT                          |
| 2   | Campion(1991)                                    | USA     | Education                         | Voluntariness, functionality, utility, and turnover reasons. Hierarchical regression analyses          | Voluntariness significantly relates to turnover reasons. Functionality insignificantly relates to turnover reasons. Continuous measure of turnover behaviour recommended for further research. |
| 3   | Lyness and Judiesch(2001)                        | USA     | Financial services                | Promotion, gender, absenteeism and AVT. Cox regression analyses  | Lower turnover rate among female workers compared to male. Promoted female less likely to leave than males. Extend to consider other factors of AVT e.g., non-work factor.                     |
| 4   | Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, and Erez(2001) | USA     | Retail grocery store and hospital | Organisational commitment, Job satisfaction, job search, job embeddedness and AVT. Regression analysis | Total aggregate of job embeddedness negatively predicted AVT. Further studies on why people stay and leave simultaneously  |
| 5   | Kirshenbaum and Mano-Negrin (2002)               | Israel  | Hospital                          | Work history, internal and external employment opportunities, and turnover decisions. ANOVA            | Past job history and present job opportunities influence actual turnover behaviour. Future studies need to consider longitudinal and interdisciplinary approach                                |

Appendix E (continued)

| S/N | Author                            | Country | Industry         | Variable/Method  | Findings and Future Studies   |
|-----|-----------------------------------|---------|------------------|--|---|
| 6   | Nwadiani and Akpotu (2002)        | Nigeria | Higher Education | Actual turnover rates.<br>Descriptive statistics   | Turnover rate for the period understudy stood at 16.8%. 1476 faculty left.<br>Professors had the highest turnover rate (20.88%).<br>Social Sciences discipline had the highest rate (20.58%).<br>Female had higher rate (18.99%) compared to male. NA |
| 7   | Hendrie(2004)                     | UK      | Retail           | Pay rates, career development, and hours of work, training, staff recognition, staff facilities, communication, and AVT.<br>Descriptive statistics | Primary reasons for leaving: Lack of enough working hours, poor compensation, poor career prospects, poor training, and inadequate staff facilities and staffs' point of views not listened to. NA  |
| 8   | Luzius and Ard (2006)             | USA     | Library          | Career change, salary, job satisfaction, and AVT.<br>Descriptive statistics.   | Former librarians were dissatisfied with salary and administration.<br>Future studies should consider more research on retention  |
| 9   | Chen, Chu, Wang, and Lin (2008)   | Taiwan  | Hospital         | Resource distributive justice, kinship, workload, supervision intention, and actual turnover.<br>Multiple and logistic regression.                 | With the exception of workload, the rest variables investigated poorly predicted actual turnover.<br>Future studies should be more comprehensive in the selection of turnover factors when attempting to explain variations in AVT.                   |
| 10  | Gbenu, Kolawole, and Lawal (2014) | Nigeria | Education        | Retention policies and voluntary turnover. ANOVA   | Results showed a significant difference in both retention policies and in the rate of turnover between Federal and state owned universities. NA.  |



Appendix E (continued)

| S/N | Author  | Country   | Industry             | Variable/Method   | Findings and Future Studies  |
|-----|---|-----------|----------------------|---|--|
| 11  | Josephson, Lindberg, Voss, Alfredsson, and Vingard (2008) | Sweden    | Public Hospital      | Individual factors and working conditions. Logistic regression  | Most of the respondents cited low self-rated general health, being socially excluded by superiors and /or co-workers, and negative impacts of organisational change as reasons for leaving.  |
| 12  | Morrell, Loan-Clarke, Arnold, and Wilkinson (2008)        | UK        | Education            | Image violations, shocks, script, job offer, job search, tenure, avoidability, and voluntary turnover.  | The study revealed that the time taken between the decision to quit and actual voluntary departure was insignificant. Future studies should supplement leavers' responses with additional data e.g., organisational records.             |
| 13  | Emily, Lynette, and Scot(2010)                            | USA       | Public sector        | Organisational culture, job stress orientation, incentives, organisational change, and job satisfaction. Descriptive statistics                               | Reasons for leaving included inadequate resources to perform job tasks, insufficient support and minimal recognition for personal development, and insufficient training. Future studies should replicate the study using larger sample. |
| 14  | Law(2010)   | Hong Kong | Public accounting    | Social comparison, with peers, age, stress, gender discrimination, physical appearance, role conflict, and actual turnover. Multinomial; logistic regression. | Social comparison with age, stress, and peers predicted AVT. But, role conflict had the highest explanatory power among the remaining precursors to AVT. Future studies should include personality facets e.g locus of control.          |
| 15  | Brewer, Kovner, Greene, Tukov-Shuser, and Djukic a (2011) | USA       | Non-Hospital setting | Personal attributes, job attributes, opportunity, shocks, and actual turnover. Binomial probit regression   | Result indicated that when intent to stay was omitted from the probit model, organisational commitment and job satisfaction negatively predicted AVT.  |

Appendix E (continued)

| S/N | Author  | Country | Industry              | Variable/Method  | Findings and Future Studies  |
|-----|---|---------|-----------------------|--|--|
| 16  | Clausen, Tufte.<br>and Borg(2012)                           | Denmark | Eldercare<br>services | Body mass index, physical<br>workload, experience at work,<br>organisational commitment, role<br>conflicts, emotional demand,<br>quality of leadership and actual<br>turnover. Hierarchical regression | Psychosocial work conditions influenced voluntary<br>turnover.<br>Future researchers should consider subgroup analyses.  |
| 17  | Böckerman,<br>Ilmakunnas,<br>Jokisaari, and<br>Vuori (2013) | Finland | NA                    | Working conditions, promotion.<br>Discrimination, supervisor<br>support, and job alternatives.<br>Linear regression.   | Poor promotional opportunities, mental health symptoms,<br>poor working conditions and discrimination did not relate<br>to AVT. Further research should incorporate this issue in<br>other institutional contexts. |