



**AN EXPLORATORY STUDY ON THE PREDICTORS OF TURNOVER  
INTENTIONS AMONG EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS AND TALENT  
RETENTION STRATEGIES AT SELECTED UNIVERSITIES IN  
KWAZULU-NATAL, SOUTH AFRICA**

by

**EDWIGE PAULINE NGO HENHA**

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirement for

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY  
IN MANAGEMENT SCIENCES:  
HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT**

in the

**Department of Human Resources Management  
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**SUPERVISOR: PROF D.C. JINABHAI**

**MARCH 2019**



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MBL (UNISA, 1990); DBA (UDW, 1998)**

**DATE**

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## **ABSTRACT**

This research study aimed to identify the factors that predict turnover intentions among expatriate academics and to propose effective retention strategies. The study was conducted on expatriate academics employed at two selected traditional Higher Education Universities in the KwaZulu-Natal province of South Africa, namely the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand. The study was underpinned by meeting the key objectives and research questions of the empirical investigation. Having skilled expatriate academics is a competitive advantage in this era of internationalisation of Higher Education Institutions. However, with the high turnover propensity amongst expatriate academics, this study focussed on the primary causes of actual turnover intentions in these two HE Institutions under investigation.

The review of the literature on turnover intentions revealed various factors that predict employees' turnover intentions. However, eight recurrent factors were selected for this study. These factors included demographics, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational justice, perceived job opportunities, social and cultural adjustment, adequacy of retention strategies and institutional characteristics. A conceptual framework highlighting the linkages between the aforementioned factors was also formulated for this study. Various hypotheses were formulated and tested using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 for Windows. In addition, the thesis was subjected to a TURNITIN Test to assess the degree of plagiarism and yielded a result of 15%.

For the research methodology and design, a linear snowball non-probability sampling referral method was adopted to acquire the target respondents. A structured self-administered questionnaire measured on the Five-Point Likert Scale was used to collect the primary data for the quantitative paradigm employed. Thus, 133 questionnaires were obtained from the identified target population using the personal method of data collection and 8 questionnaires were discarded as they were incomplete. The responses to the remaining 125 usable questionnaires were captured to form a data set and thereafter subjected to various statistical tests. This equated to a response rate of 93,9%. The overall findings of this research study revealed that most of the aforementioned factors, except for perceived job opportunities, correlated with expatriate academics' turnover intentions. Moreover, the multiple regression analyses revealed that job satisfaction was the more pertinent factor that highly predicted turnover intentions of expatriate academics. Furthermore, job satisfaction was also found to mediate the relationship between the other factors and turnover intention. Thus, it was recommended that the management of the two Higher Education Institutions under study undertake appropriate measures to conduct turnover intention surveys to uncover the reasons for leaving and develop set criteria during the recruitment and selection process to assess expatriate academics' expectations. Furthermore, the study suggested that the two institutions implement sound retention strategies that enhance expatriate academics' commitment and job satisfaction and deter turnover intentions.

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All those not expressly mentioned here are however not forgotten. My gratefulness is extended to all those friends who endlessly assisted me with words of endearment towards the realization of this research project.

*“The LORD is my strength and my shield; my heart trusts in him, and he helps me. My heart leaps for joy, and with my song I praise him”. (Psalm 28:7).*

## DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my father, Henha Samuel, and to my mother, Andela Agathe, who nurtured me over the years. Papa and Mama, “you have always been my source of motivation and strength”. Your love for me has inspired me to better myself every day. I thank the Almighty for given me parents like yourselves and being my role models.

*“Me yéga papa Sam ni Mama Agatha i nyu gwéha yap ni mahola map”.*

*“I will give thanks to you, LORD, with all my heart; I will tell of all your wonderful deeds” (Psalm 9:1).*

*“M’a ti Yéhōva mayéga ni ñem wem wonsôna; M’a añaal minson nwoñ mi hélha nwominsôna” (Tjémbi 9:1).*

## **DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that the thesis submitted for the Doctor in Philosophy Degree in Management Sciences: Human Resource Management in the Department of Human Resource Management, Faculty of Management Sciences at the Durban University of Technology is my original work. The text and the bibliography have not been submitted to any other Institution. I further declare that all sources cited or quoted are indicated and acknowledged in the bibliography.

**EDWIGE PAULINE NGO HENHA**

**STUDENT NO: 21751282**

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# **CHAPTER 1**

## **BACKGROUND AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

Retaining talented individuals in a fast-growing, competitive global economy is a daunting task for many organisations, especially institutions of higher learning (Allen, 2008:1). Usually, the reputation, success and sustainability of academic institutions depend on the intellectual and innovative capabilities of its academic staff (Pienaar and Bester, 2008:32; Ng'ethe, Iravo and Namusonge, 2012:205; Hundera, 2014:57). It is therefore imperative for academic institutions to retain talented employees. However, many academic institutions are faced with high staff turnover rates (Daly and Dee, 2006:778). Despite considerable research over the past decades, high employee turnover is still a persistent problem. An attempt to prevent its occurrence has kindled this study on turnover intentions. Nonetheless, scholars have emphasized the significant influence of turnover intentions on actual turnover (Xu, 2008:22; Zhou and Volkwein, 2004:4; Hassan and Hashim, 2011:85; Park, 2015:8). Different attributes such as precursor, predictor, antecedent, determinant, etc. are given to turnover intentions in the literature to emphasize its strong impact on actual turnover. Scholars contend that researching turnover intentions is important as it can provide an indication of an individual's perception and judgement, and it can be assessed in the present to help understand and possibly deter the cause of actual turnover (Mobley, 1979) cited by Jha, 2009:27). Understanding the turnover intention phenomenon will assist in developing strategies that will help retain academics, as many of them have expressed their wish to leave their institutions in South Africa (Koen, 2003 as cited by Pienaar and Bester, 2008:32). In this regard, Pienaar and Bester (2008:32) encourage Higher Education Institutions to make the retention of academics a strategic priority.

## 1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Globalization appears to have affected many important aspects of modern societies including commerce, medicine, sports, technology, politics, religion and education. It has not spared the job market as more and more people take up job assignments outside of their countries of origin and become what is defined as 'expatriates' or individuals who are not citizens of the country in which they are assigned to work (Tahir and Ismail, 2007:73). Likewise, Weber (2004:5) defines an expatriate as "anyone living and working in a country of which he or she is not a citizen, and who can be characterized as possessing skills critical to the success of the performance of foreign subsidiaries". Globalisation and the internationalisation of institutions have increased the mobility of learners, students and academics worldwide. However, the scarcity of academic professionals in countries such as Canada, Australia, New-Zealand (Richardson and McKenna, 2000:32), USA (Baruch and Hall, 2004:242) and South Africa (Govender, 2014:5; Kraak, 2005:58; Daniels, 2007:2; Steyn, 2013:1) has sparked the emigration of academics beyond borders. Hence, the rise of expatriate academics. Expatriate academics, *per se*, are classified amongst those who have decided to take an overseas assignment on their own accord (Richardson and McKenna, 2000:26). Richardson and McKenna (2006:9) state that expatriate academics comprise "professors and non-professorial staff, the latter only as far as they are part of research and in a teaching profession".

The impact of expatriate academics on organisational performance has been acknowledged. Thus, Williamson and Cable (2003:25) as cited by Richardson and McKenna (2006:8), label expatriate academics as "knowledge workers demonstrating a significant level of confidence in the portability and the transferability of their knowledge". Similarly, Richardson and McKenna (2006:9) describe expatriate academics as being highly educated people who possess special qualities and expertise in a particular field. Expatriate academics usually take assignments abroad in good faith and for the purpose of exploring another culture, turning a new page in their lives or contributing to the development of their careers and to the success of their new institutions (Richardson and McKenna, 2002:71). However, these positive intentions can be affected and result in turnover if their expectations are not met. In this regard, the Expectancy Theory (Vroom,

1964) postulates that people take up employment with expectation and values. If these expectations are not met, they will most likely leave the organisation (Daly and Dee, 2006:778). As outlined in the literature, employee turnover can be costly and disruptive to organisations (Robbins, Judge, Odendaal and Roodt, 2009:18). Hence, there is a need for academic expatriates to be valued and retained for their professional expertise, as well as giving credence to talent management strategies.

### **1.3 TERMINOLOGY**

The key terms of this study are defined below in order to provide a broad understanding of the study. However, it should be noted that further clarification is provided in the literature.

#### **1.3.1 EXPATRIATION DEFINED**

Przytula (2015:96) defines expatriation “as a specific form of cross-border migration referring to a specified professional group encompassing managers and specialists in international companies, with reasons for it which are rather non-economic ones (including personal development, motivation to achieve and cognitive curiosity) and are persuasive arguments for going abroad”.

#### **1.3.2 DEFINITION OF EXPATRIATE**

An expatriate refers to “an employee in an international company, usually a top-ranking specialist or manager, who is sent from corporate headquarters to foreign units” (Przytula, 2015:96). According to Lee and Donohue (2012:1198), an expatriate is an individual who moves from his/her homeland to an international location for work or business purposes and stays temporarily in the host country.

#### **1.3.3 CONCEPTUALISATION OF EXPATRIATE ACADEMIC**

Trembath (2016:116) defines an expatriate academic as a member of the higher education sector who has moved from their dominant place of residence across national borders to take up legal, long-term yet time-bound employment in a teaching or research-related role within a university environment. According to Richardson and McKenna (2006:9), expatriate academics encompass professors and non-professorial staff involved in research and in teaching at an institution.

#### **1.3.4 THE CONCEPT OF TURNOVER INTENTION**

Turnover intention, intention to leave and intention to quit are terms that are usually used interchangeably in the literature to indicate the probability that an employee will quit his or her job within a certain time period (Perez, 2008:14). Scholars strongly emphasize the influence of turnover intention on actual turnover. Furthermore, scholars postulate that although turnover intention does not always lead to final quitting, it is a strong predictor and precursor of actual turnover (Zhou and Volkwein, 2004:6; Hassan and Hashim, 2011:85; Park, 2015:8).

#### **1.3.5 TALENT RETENTION DEFINED**

Talent retention denotes the ability and the effort an employer makes to encourage productive employees to remain with the organisation (Schuler and Jackson, 2006:216). Armstrong (2014:267) refers to talent retention as “the implementation of policies designed to ensure that talented people remain as engaged and committed members of the organisation”.

### **1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

The internationalisation of institutions of higher learning and the scarcity of skilled academics throughout the world have certainly increased competition amongst institutions, as well as the war for procuring talented academics. Attracting the best academics has become increasingly important as institutions strive to excel in terms of teaching and research outputs. This concern eventually leads institutions to go abroad in search of the best academics. Labelled as talented employees, expatriate academics are perceived as highly skilled and knowledgeable individuals who possess skills and expertise sought after by employers (Reynolds, 2005:62; Richardson and McKenna, 2006:8). However, the dilemma underpinned by high turnover propensity of these talented employees (Allen, 2008:1). Even though turnover intention amongst corporate expatriates is over-emphasized in the literature (Richardson and Zikic, 2007:167; Van Aswegen, 2008:47), expatriate academics' tendency to leave their institutions prematurely has also been stressed (Hassan and Hashim, 2011:85 and Kim, Twombly and Wolf-Wendel, 2013 as cited by Park, 2015:13).



Usually, turnover occurs when an employee makes the decision to leave the organisation (Curtis, 2010:12). As a result, turnover is regarded as a disruptive and hindering phenomenon that affects an organisation's effectiveness (Robbins *et al.*, 2009:18). Therefore, the main problem at the core of this study is well captured by Winterton (2004:372) who highlights the expensive nature of labour turnover for employers, both in terms of tangible costs such as advertising, recruitment and training. In terms of intangible costs, Winterton (2004:372) stresses "the loss of morale and productivity associated with an uncertain working environment" as some of the negative effects of employee turnover. Daly and Dee (2006:778) concur by asserting that employee turnover is a serious dilemma that "can be costly to the reputation and to the quality of an institution". Similarly, Robbins, *et al.* (2009:18) claim that "a high rate of turnover can disrupt the efficient running of an organisation when knowledgeable and experienced personnel leave". Consequently, with the disruptive nature of the employee turnover phenomenon, it becomes imperative for top management to develop concrete retention strategies of expatriate academics to minimise their turnover intentions in HE Institutions in South Africa. The central focus of this research involves two HE Institutions, namely, the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) and the University of Zululand (UNIZUL).

## **1.5 THE AIM OF THE STUDY**

According to Munhall and Chenail (2008:23), the aim of the study involves clearly articulating what the researcher wishes to accomplish. With regard to this study, the researcher seeks to explore the factors associated with expatriate academics' turnover intentions in order to propose talent retention strategies to the management of higher institutions as an attempt to prevent and overcome turnover intentions. The study focuses on turnover intentions of expatriate academics at the University of KwaZulu-Natal and at the University of Zululand in KwaZulu-Natal, respectively

## **1.6 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

Research objectives are statements that the researcher wants to achieve by completing the research activity (Mc Nabb, 2015:54). Thus, the research objectives of this study are:

- To investigate whether expatriate academics at the University of KwaZulu-Natal and at the University of Zululand intend to leave their institutions.
- To identify the predictors of turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics at the University of KwaZulu-Natal and at the University of Zululand.
- To develop strategies to deter turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics at the selected KwaZulu-Natal universities.
- To investigate the relationship amongst the biographical variables (age, gender and tenure status) that might predict expatriate academics' turnover intentions at the University of KwaZulu-Natal and at the University of Zululand.
- To design a conceptual framework of turnover intention factors for expatriate academics based on the literature reviewed.
- To validate the above conceptual framework based on the findings of the survey by the hypotheses testing.
- To propose talent retention strategies to top management of both these traditional Universities to reduce turnover intention.

## **1.7 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

According to Blaikie (2000:23) as cited by Rwegoshora (2014:80), research questions attempt to address the 'what, why and how?' of the study. They define the scope of the study and determine what is to be studied and the extent to which it will be studied (Rwegoshora 2014:81). Therefore, the research questions that this study seeks to address are:

- What are the advantages of employing expatriate academics in the Higher Education Sector?
- What are the turnover intention levels of expatriate academics employed in both institutions under study?

- What are the demographic profiles of expatriate academics at both the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal and the University of Zululand?
- What are the causative factors impacting on expatriate academics' turnover intentions at the University of KwaZulu-Natal and at the University of Zululand?
- What are the differences in turnover intention amongst expatriate academics from different biographic groups?
- What are the theories underpinning the design of the conceptual framework of the predictors of turnover intentions for expatriate academics at the two Institutions under study?
- How can the turnover intention factors of expatriate academics be minimised to retain their services at both these Higher Education Institutions?
- Which strategies should be adopted by Higher Education Institutions to manage their talented expatriate academics in order to deter them from leaving their institutions?

## **1.8 HYPOTHESES**

Kumar (2014:100) defines a hypothesis as “a hunch, assumption, suspicion, assertion or an imaginative idea about a phenomenon or situation which form the basis for an investigation”. A hypothesis appears to be a proposal made by the researcher that needs to be tested and evaluated. Thus, the hypotheses of this research study are:

- H1: There are significant high turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics of both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand.
- H2: The demographic variables (age, gender, origin, marital status, tenure status, academic rank, experience in academia, qualification and years of experience in the institution) significantly influence expatriate academics' turnover intentions.

- H3: There is a significant difference in turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics from different biographic groups (age, gender, origin, marital status, tenure status, academic rank, experience in academia, qualifications and years of experience in the institution).
- H4: There is a significant relationship between the characteristics of the institution and expatriate academics' turnover intentions.
- H5: There is a significant relationship between the cultural and social adjustment of expatriate academics and turnover intention.
- H6: There is a significant relationship between expatriate academics' job satisfaction and turnover intention.
- H7: There is a significant relationship between expatriate academics' level of organisational commitment and turnover intention.
- H8: There is a significant relationship between perceived external job opportunities and expatriate academics' turnover intentions.
- H9: There is a significant relationship between organisational justice and expatriate academics' turnover intentions.
- H10: There is a significant relationship between the retention strategies (compensation, reward, involvement, recognition and career development) and expatriate academics' turnover intentions.
- H11: The independent variables (job satisfaction, institutional characteristics, cultural and social adjustment, organisational commitment, perceived job opportunities, organisational justice and talent retention strategies) significantly predict turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics.
- H12: The relationship between turnover intentions and the following variables, namely institutional characteristics, cultural and social adjustment, organisational commitment, organisational justice and adequacy of retention strategies is mediated by job satisfaction.

## **1.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The rationale of the study briefly explains the worthiness of the study and may highlight the significant contribution that the study may add to the body of already existing research. Thus, this study intends to add new insights in to the management of International Human Resources in general and of turnover intentions of academics in particular. According to Daly and Dee (2006:778), turnover is a serious factor affecting organisations, and turnover intention appears to be the main precursor of actual turnover (Tett and Meyer, 1993:261; Zhou and Volkwein, 2004:5; Xu, 2008:613; Oluwafemi, 2013:43). The impact of turnover intention on actual turnover has stimulated much research on turnover intentions amongst academic staff. Researchers found that studying turnover intentions yield more accurate reasons for understanding the actual causes of turnover (Kaur, Mohindru and Pankaj, 2013:1221; Rizwan, Arshad, Munir, Iqbal and Hussein 2014:4; Park, 2015:8). Johnsrud and Rosser (2002), cited by Park (2015:6), explain that actual turnover is more difficult to study because it is not easy to locate those expatriates who have left organisations and their response rate is often low.

Moreover, as stated by Abbasi, Hollman and Hayes (2008:53) and Oluwafemi (2013:44), high levels of turnover intentions amongst employees have negative consequences on employee work performance. Therefore, probing factors that might incite expatriate academics' turnover intentions could help institutions to find proactive approaches to tackling and overcoming turnover-related issues. Furthermore, Zhou and Volkwein (2004:4) noted some research gaps on turnover and the retention of academics. Hence, they pointed out that "future research is needed to validate conceptual models at varying types of institutions and for different sub-groups of faculties, so that institutional leaders will have a more comprehensive understanding of the factors that contribute to faculty retention" (Zhou and Volkwein, 2004 as cited by Al-Omari, Qablan and Khasawneh, 2008:40). Likewise, Richardson (2000:126) states that there is limited research on expatriate academics, despite their growing number in institutions of higher learning.

## **1.10 SCOPE OF THE STUDY**

According to Simon and Goes (2013:1), the scope of the study refers to the parameters under which the study will be conducted. Thus, the scope of this study focuses on expatriate academics at two traditional Universities in (KwaZulu-Natal), namely the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand in (South Africa). The choice of these universities is based primarily on their proximity to the researcher, as well as on the fact that there is no record of previous studies assessing the antecedents of turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics in these two universities, despite both these institutions employing considerable number of international academics from foreign countries in the Sub-Saharan African region.

## **1.11 LITERATURE REVIEW**

This section provides a brief overview of the concept of expatriation, the differentiation between traditional or multinational expatriates and self-selected expatriates, as well as the various motives for expatriation. The section also highlights the impetus behind expatriation in South Africa.

### **1.11.1 CONCEPTUALISATION OF EXPATRIATION**

According to Altman and Baruch (2012) as cited by Vaiman and Haslberger (2013:19), expatriation is the most prominent and the most usual global move. Many people are increasingly compelled to either take up assignments in a subsidiary or to pursue a career on their own. Expatriation is “a time-bound cross-border work assignment for a designated position and/or employment, initiated by an employer and/or employing agency, whereby an employee is ‘assigned’ overseas” (Doherty, Dickman and Mills, 2011 as cited by Vaiman and Haslberger, 2013:19). The concept of expatriation was previously used to denote expatriate managers who were sent to subsidiaries (Andresen and Biemann, 2013 cited by Trembath, 2016:115). However, advanced research in the late 1990s and early 2000s indicates that there are other means by which people pursue their careers abroad. Hence, what constitutes an expatriate was reviewed by Suutari and Brewster (2000) as cited by Trembath (2016:116). As a result, scholars categorised two main types of expatriates, namely multinational expatriates, and self-selected expatriates.

### **1.11.2 MULTINATIONAL EXPATRIATES VERSUS SELF-SELECTED EXPATRIATES**

According to Van Aswegen (2012:34), multinational expatriates are those sent by a multinational company to a subsidiary, while self-selected expatriate are those who choose to take-up an assignment on their own (Richardson and McKenna, 2000:26, Selmer and Luring, 2011:2055). For the purpose of this study, expatriate academics fall under the category of self-selected expatriates as they took their own initiative to expatriate. However, it is worth noting that some scholars have extended the denotation of expatriate academics, as they are often labelled as “foreign academics”, “academic migrants” or “international academics” (Selmer and Luring, 2011:2055; Trembath, 2016:115).

The literature on multinational expatriates provides a platform to understand and research self-selected expatriates as there is a considerable amount of literature on multinational expatriates. Scholars contend that the main point of similarity between multinational and self-selected expatriates is that both types live and work outside of their countries. As a result, they are both subjected to inherent challenges such as cultural and social adjustment, family adjustment and isolation (Black, 1988 and Mendenhall, 1996 as cited by Richardson and McKenna, 2006:8). However, the major divergences between the two categories of expatriates pertains to the initiation of expatriation; the assignment types; the motives of expatriation; pre-departure training; the time limit in the assignment; compensation; career paths; and the support system in non-work-related issues (Reynolds, 2005:60; Howe-Walsh and Schyns, 2010:6; Schoepp, 2011:61).

With regard to the decision to expatriate, multinational expatriates are usually sent by their companies, while self-elected expatriates initiate their own expatriation. According to scholars, multinational expatriates usually received pre-departure training, unlike self-selected expatriates that have to plan and prepare their own departure. The time-frame in the assignment of multinational expatriates is three months to five years, while the time limit for self-selected expatriates is not clear. The compensation packages for multinational expatriates are usually more attractive than those of Self-selected expatriates.

Multinational expatriates often receive support from their companies, unlike self-selected expatriates who initiate their own departure (Reynolds, 2005:60; Howe-Walsh and Schyns, 2010:6).

### **1.11.3 MOTIVES FOR EXPATRIATION**

Contemporary literature on expatriation highlights various factors that can influence an individual to pursue or to accept an international assignment. Drawing on the work of Borg (1988), Stahl and Cerdin (2004) and Dickmann, Sparrow and Brewster (2008:17) outline three main drivers to expatriation, namely career advancement, financial rewards and personal goals (for example exploring another culture) as motives for expatriation. Further research conducted by Doherty, Dickmann and Mills (2011:601) on 522 individuals working abroad found that the primary driver for multinational expatriation was career motives, such as the nature of the job, the skills acquired and the impact that working abroad will have on their careers. As for self-selected expatriates, the impetus to expatriate was the desire for adventure, perceived family benefits, the location and the reputation of the host country (Doherty, Dickmann and Mills, 2011:602). Likewise, Richardson and McKenna (2002:71) previously identified four metaphors of expatriates, indicating four different motives for expatriation. These metaphors include “Explorer”, “Mercenary”, “Architect” and “Refugee”.

According to Richardson and McKenna (2002:71) and Froese (2012:1096):

- An “Explorer” is someone who goes overseas with the purpose of exploring foreign countries and to better understand different cultures;
- A “Mercenary” is an individual who is in search of greener pastures and decides to expatriate for financial reasons;
- An “Architect” is one that perceives an international assignment as career-building material; and
- A “Refugee” is an individual who decides to escape from his or her home country in search of a better personal and professional life or because of political issues such as war, floods, etc.



With regard to this study, the researcher believes that the motives for the expatriation of expatriate academics are varied and it is difficult to isolate any particular one since they are perceived as hardworking and knowledgeable individuals who possess scarce skills which can add value to the host institutions.

#### **1.11.4 BRIEF OVERVIEW OF EXPATRIATION IN SOUTH AFRICA**

According to Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2006:529), expatriation started in South Africa in the 19th century. From 1870 to 1900, South Africa hosted thousands of immigrants that came to work in the gold and diamond mines and on the sugar cane farms (Grobler *et al.*, 2006:529). However, due to the apartheid regime, the migration of people from different parts of the world ceased as a result of the sanctions imposed by international law. When the country became a democratic nation on 27 April 1994, South Africa faced intensive international competition (Grobler *et al.*, 2006:529). This led to the immigration of many skilled and non-skilled people to South Africa. According to Statistics South Africa (StatsSA) and the Department of Home Affairs, 109000 self-declared foreign nationals were granted residency permits in 2003 (<http://www.statssa.gov.za/>). This figure had however declined considerably due to either new regulations pertaining to entry visas or to the increased xenophobic attacks (in South Africa) in 2008, 2015, 2016 and 2017.

#### **1.11.5 INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS**

The internationalization of higher education institutions can be defined as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education” (Knight, 2003:2 as cited by Delgado-Márquez, Hurtado-Torres and Bondar, 2011:267). Van Damme (2001), cited by Delgado-Márquez, Hurtado-Torres and Bondar (2011:267), states that internationalization constitutes a source of competitive advantage for Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). Van Damme (2001:418) further contends that the mobility of students and academics is often regarded as the main form of internationalisation in Higher Education.

#### **1.11.5.1. INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA**

The internationalisation of academic institutions has been a trend in recent years. The mobility of academics and students across the globe has prompted the need for institutions of higher learning to restructure and review their policies in order to embrace these global trends. Likewise, South Africa has not been an exception. A report by Higher Education South Africa (HESA, October 2009:8) raised the issue of internationalisation of higher education amongst the challenges that South African HE Institutions need to overcome.

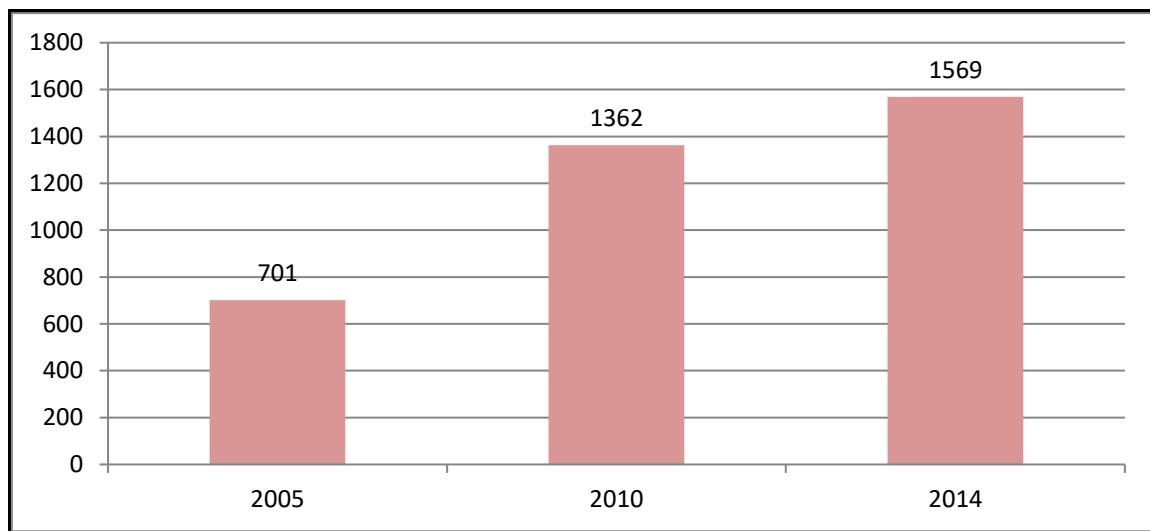
The ongoing skills shortage and the brain drain of the skilled workforce continue to affect South African institutions of higher learning. Thus, as an effort to embark on the internationalisation of its institutions, Higher Education of South Africa (HESA) has endeavoured to attract international students and academics. (HESA, October 2011). As a result, it has urged the Department of Home Affairs to have flexible policies and effective management in issuing study visas and work permits (HESA, October 2011). In 2007, the then former Minister of Education of South Africa Naledi Pandor, encouraged the recruitment of foreign educational professionals to counter the shortage of skilled academics in South Africa (Africa News, February 15, 2007. <http://www.expatfocus.com>). This led to a huge inflow of skilled academics into South African institutions. Furthermore, the South African government has intensely emphasized the urgent need to bring in foreign workers to help overcome the skilled academic shortage and assist in integrating South Africa into the global marketplace (Govender, 2014:1 as cited by Maharaj, 2016:58). Thus, the government has invested a substantial amount of money to attract foreign academics to fill vacancies in South African institutions countrywide (Govender, 2014:1).

#### **1.11.5.2. THE PROLIFERATION OF EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS IN SOUTH AFRICAN INSTITUTIONS**

The flow of expatriate academics in to South African institutions has been emphasized by scholars. In her study on Academic Mobility and Immigration Trends in South African Higher Education Institutions, Maharaj (2016:59) investigated the proportion of expatriate academics during the period 2005, 2010 and 2014. She

found a total of 3632 expatriate academics during those three periods, with the proportion of 701 (4.6%) expatriate academics in 2005; 1362 (8.2%) in 2010; and 1569 (9%) in 2014. For more clarity, this present study undertakes the initiative to display these statistics in Figure 1.1 below. From Figure 1.1, one can easily perceive that there was a steady increase of expatriate academics in to South Africa from 2010 to 2014.

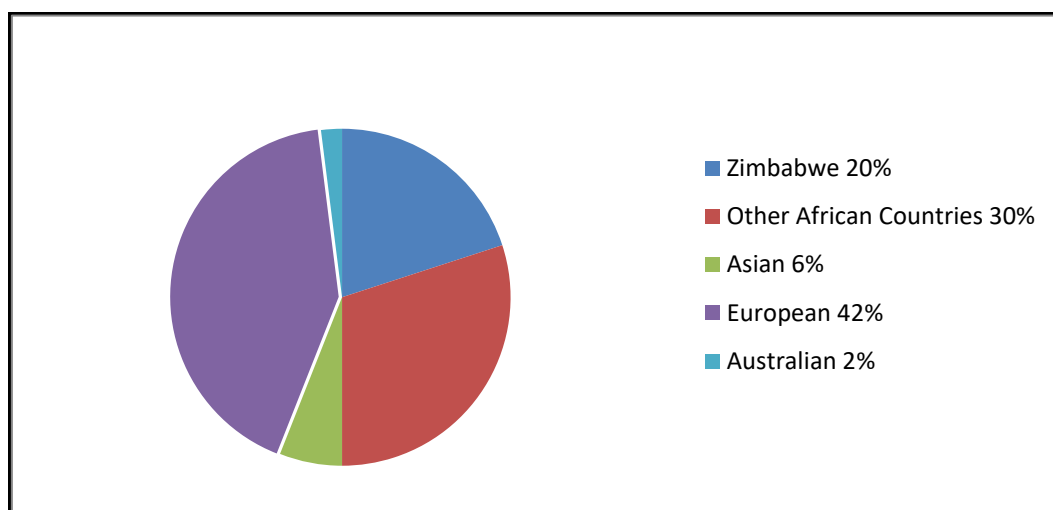
**FIGURE 1.1 EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS IN SOUTH AFRICA FROM 2005-2014**



**Source:** Self-Generated (2017).

Previously, the statistics of the distribution of foreign academics in South African Universities have been released by The Higher Education Management Information System (HEMIS). HEMIS (2010) has presented the proportion of expatriate academics during the period 2005 and 2008. These statistics reveal that the highest proportion of expatriate academics in South Africa during that period came from African countries (50%) (Zimbabwe with 20% and other African countries accounting for 30%); followed by European countries with a proportion of 42% of expatriate academics; and the smallest proportion of 6% came from Asia and 2% from Australia. These statistics are presented in Figure 1.2 below.

**FIGURE 1.2 DISTRIBUTION OF FOREIGN ACADEMIC STAFF ACROSS REGIONS (2005-2008)**



**Source:** Maharaj, A. (2011:46); Sebola, M.P. (2015:184). Adapted.

#### **1.11.6 CHALLENGES FACING EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS IN SOUTH AFRICA**

Expatriates are believed to encounter many challenges in a foreign country, including cultural and social adjustment; language barriers; reduced career prospects; safety issues; unfair treatment; and administrative hurdles in work permits and visa processing (Mulenga and Van Lill, 2007:31; Sebola, 2015:183; Koenane and Maphunye, 2015:84; HESA, 2011). It is worth noting that challenges encountered by expatriates might be related to a number of factors such as the host country characteristics, the origin of the expatriates, local people's perceptions of expatriates, etc.

##### **1.11.6.1 SOCIAL AND WORK CHALLENGES**

The limited research on expatriate academics in South Africa revealed that South African institutions attract expatriate academics from different continents. However, these expatriates are sometimes subjected to different treatment from local people and from their employers. Scholars reveal that European and Asian expatriate academics are usually favoured and respected by local people compared to African expatriate academics who encounter social adjustment challenges, such as hostile, barbaric and uncivilised treatment (Mulenga and Van Lill, 2007:31; Sebola, 2015:183; Koenane and Maphunye, 2015:84). The xenophobic attacks of 2003,

2008, 2016 and 2017 in different regions of the country seem to confirm the statement. Sebola (2015:184) outlines that these challenges are not only limited to the social environment of African expatriate academics but also extend to the working environment where university executives seem to give a preferential treatment to European and Asian expatriate academics compared to their African counterparts. Some examples of such preferential treatment are related to the issues of compensation, promotion to managerial positions and career advancement. One of the reasons that this situation appears to persist is the fact that African expatriate academics are perceived as job-seekers that are willing to settle for any job offer and working conditions. In addition, Munene (2014:457) states that foreign academics usually experience loneliness and isolation due to their exclusion by their host national colleagues.

#### **1.11.6.2 CHALLENGES PERTAINING TO CONDITIONS OF SERVICE**

The employment of expatriates in South Africa must be in line with the labour legislation. The South African Employment Services Act No4 of 2014 stipulates that foreign nationals can only be employed if no suitable person in the Republic of South Africa has been found to fill the vacancy. Furthermore, the South African Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 requires that designated groups referred to as “Black People” (i.e. Africans, Coloured and Indians) should be prioritized for vacant posts. However, foreign nationals are not recognized as designated groups. Thus, these restrictive and discriminatory employment policies have compelled many South African higher education institutions to review their recruitment policies. For instance, the University of KwaZulu-Natal has formulated a recruitment policy stating that only “[a]ppointable designated group candidates, South African citizens and permanent residents shall be granted preference for vacant posts at the University” (UKZN Recruitment Policy, HRE/04/08/CO, 2002). Consequently, the conditions and the length of service of expatriate academics are restricted. Thus, many expatriate academics are employed on limited short-term contracts in which they are not entitled to some of the benefits (i.e. pension funds, group life insurance, etc.) that are usually provided to permanent staff. As a result, feelings of mistrust, uncertainty and job insecurity are created amongst expatriate academics.

### **1.11.6.3 LANGUAGE BARRIERS**

The inability to speak the local language is also daunting for all categories of expatriates, especially for African expatriates as South Africans are prejudiced, violent, unkind and brutal to those that do not speak their local languages (Koenane and Maphunye, 2015:92). Language barriers can also be felt in the interactions between expatriate academics and students. English, being the medium of instruction in most institutions, often poses challenges to many South African students because for the majority, it is their second or third language. As a result, expatriate academics are often blamed for the poor academic performance of students with alibis such as expatriate academics not being able to communicate properly and students' failure to understand the accent of expatriate academics, etc.

### **1.11.6.4 HURDLES IN THE PROCESSING OF VISA AND WORK PERMITS**

It is usually cumbersome for foreign academics to obtain their work permits on time. South African employment law requires that all foreign citizens must have a work permit that allow them to work in South Africa. However, the delays in processing work permits by the South African Home Affairs Department were reported to hinder the recruitment of expatriate academics (HESA, October 2009). These delays are sometimes attributed to a lack of knowledge in handling foreign work permit applications or to incorrect information being given to applicants.

<http://immigrationsa.com/2015/01/sa%C2%B4s-dysfunctional-work-permit-system/>

### **1.11.7 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY**

The mobility of skilled individuals around the world has increased the scope of Human Resources Management. Nevertheless, Human Resources Management in South Africa is still faced with many challenges pertaining to the management of global employees (Van Aswegen, 2012:31). Globalisation has major implications for Human Resources Management practice as it shifts focus to an international perspective. Thus, as Scullion and Linehan (2005:8) point out, the emergence of International Human Resource Management requires organisations to develop international Human Resource Management strategies. These key strategies include the attraction, development and retention of global talent. Given that the search for talented employees usually triggers a war for talent, developing HR

strategies to manage and retain global academics in South African academic institutions become imperative. This study therefore endeavours to add value to the management of expatriate academics in South African academic institutions by proposing retention strategies and developing an original framework appropriate for this peculiar type of employee, as well as by contributing to the dearth of expatriate academic literature on the African Continent.

## **1.12 RESEARCH METHOD AND DESIGN**

According to Myers (2009), the research method is a strategy of enquiry which moves from the underlying assumptions to the research design to data collection. There are generally two main research methods, namely quantitative and qualitative methods. For the purpose of this study, a quantitative research method was adopted. Data was collected and captured to form a data set. Thereafter, the data was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 for Windows, using the appropriate statistical tests. The researcher felt that using mixed methods (i.e. the qualitative component with an interviewing schedule) served no value as the structured closed-ended questions were in depth and captured the key concepts of the variables of the study. Furthermore, the researcher was constrained by the fact that the designation and location of expatriate academics was not known.

### **1.12.1 PRIMARY DATA**

Primary data is basically the original data that will be collected by the researcher. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013:113), primary data refers to information obtained first-hand by the researcher on the variables of interest for the specific purpose of the study. Primary data for this study were obtained through a structured questionnaire (Annexure B) that was self-administered to expatriate academics at both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand.

### **1.12.2 SECONDARY DATA**

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013:116), “secondary data refers to information gathered by someone other than the researcher conducting the current study”. The secondary data of this study were obtained from an extensive review of journal articles, textbooks, internet articles, related dissertations and other publications.

### **1.12.3 RESEARCH DESIGN**

The research design can be described as a blueprint that indicates how the research study will be conducted. It is an overall plan that outlines how the researcher will answer the research questions. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012:159) posit that a research design includes the objectives and data collection sources of the research. Thus, for this study, a quantitative research design was adopted.

### **1.12.4 TARGET POPULATION**

According to Saunders, *et al.* (2012:260), a target population is a complete set of cases or group members from which a sample is taken. The target population of this study encompasses all expatriate academics employed at the University of KwaZulu-Natal and at the University of Zululand. However, the total number of expatriate academics employed in the above-mentioned institutions was unknown due to the unavailability of a database in both institutions.

### **1.12.5 SAMPLING TECHNIQUE**

The total number of expatriate academics as a source list employed in the two institutions under study could not be obtained to determine the sample population. Therefore, a non-probability snowball sampling technique was employed acquire 133 respondents, whereby 125 usable questionnaires were produced and utilised for further analysis.

### **1.12.6 SAMPLING PROCEDURE**

Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2014:195) contend that snowball sampling is a non-probability sampling procedure where initial respondents refer to additional respondents based on similar characteristics. Thus, exponential non-discriminative snowball sampling was used to identify an initial three respondents who referred other respondents until a sample of 133 respondents was generated.



### **1.13 MEASURING INSTRUMENT**

The measuring instrument included a covering letter (Annexure A) inviting respondents to fill the questionnaire contained in Annexure B, with a list of guidelines. The questionnaire (Annexure B) encompasses pre-coded, structured questions comprising two sections. The first section assesses the respondents' biographical characteristics and the second section determines if the identified variables, namely institutional characteristics; social and cultural adjustment; demographics; job satisfaction; organisational commitment; organisational justice; retention strategies; and external job opportunity influence expatriate academics' turnover intentions. The structured questionnaire comprised a 5-point Likert rating scale with responses ranging from "strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree" (5).

### **1.14 PRE-TESTING**

Pre-testing is useful to identify problems before the data is collected. In order to ensure the clarity of the questions, a pre-test was carried out on three randomly selected expatriate academics. These expatriate academics were omitted from the identified respondents. Thereafter, the shortcomings of the questionnaires were reviewed, and the final questionnaire was fine-tuned and administered to the identified expatriate academics.

### **1.15 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY CONSTRUCT**

Reliability and validity are two criteria used to evaluate, measure and define the consistency of the measurement instrument.

#### **1.15.1 VALIDITY**

Validity refers to the extent to which the research measures what it actually claims to measure (Gravetter and Forzano, 2016:73). Thus, this study used methods such as expert consultation and audit trails to ensure the content and the construct validity of the scales. Furthermore, a factor analysis using the Principal Component Analysis was run to determine the construct validity of the scales.

### **1.15.2 RELIABILITY**

Blumberg, *et al.* (2014:195) assert that a measure is reliable if it yields the same results on different occasions. The reliability of the study was ensured through the questionnaire items that were clearly and explicitly phrased. In addition, a Cronbach's Alpha test was run to determine the consistency and the reliability of the items.

### **1.16 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION**

Data for this study was collected through a self-administered questionnaire. This method of data was facilitated by using the personal method. According to Saunders, *et al.* (2012:416), this method of data collection ensures a high response rate.

### **1.17 ANALYSIS OF DATA**

Data analysis entails reducing the data collected to a more convenient and controllable size to enable the researcher to identify the patterns and trends, to summarise the data and to apply appropriate statistical techniques (Cooper and Schindler, 2008:93). The data from this study was analysed using quantitative analyses such as tables, charts, graphs, histograms, hypotheses testing and relevant statistical tests. Quantitative analyses were used to describe, display and report the results. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 for Windows was utilised to analyse the data.

### **1.18 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

With regard to ethical considerations, Silverman (2000:201) cautions researchers to always remember that they are actually invading the privacy of their respondents while they are doing their research. Therefore, researchers should respect the rights, needs, values and desires of the respondents (Creswell, 2008:7). In so doing, this study has obtained consent from the respondents and has ensured that they understood what the study entails. A cover letter (Annexure A) was attached to the questionnaire to assure respondents of the privacy, confidentiality and anonymity that the study intended to maintain.

- **Right of respondents**

This study also ensured that respondents' lives were neither harmed nor at risk. However, the study stipulated that respondents who experience any form of harm or feel victimised emotionally or otherwise had the right to withdraw from the study.

## **1.19 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY**

This research study probes and explores factors that might trigger turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics at selected universities, with the aim of recommending strategies appropriate to the retention of these talented employees. Moreover, the theoretical discussion focuses on expatriate academic cultural and social adjustment, perceived job opportunities and on expatriate academics' level of commitment and satisfaction with their institutions with regard to the compensation, fairness, policies and procedures, institutional characteristics and adequacy of retention strategies. All these factors are perceived as hampering expatriate academics' stability in their institution. The research study firstly addresses the concept of expatriation, along with the motives to expatriate, its importance and the challenges faced by expatriates in general and expatriate academics in particular in the host country. The second section provides a detail discussion on turnover and intention to leave by expatriate academics. Turnover intentions and retention theories and models are also highlighted in this section. The last section of this thesis analyses the findings of the survey and strategies to retain talented expatriate academics are proposed. Therefore, the study is structured as follow:

- Chapter 1 presents an overview of the study. It subsequently outlines the background to the study; states its objectives and purpose; familiarises the reader with the concepts of expatriation; and the theoretical underpinning to the field of international human resource management. The questions that the research seeks to answer are also addressed.
- Chapter 2 explores the existing theoretical frameworks and models on the subject of turnover intentions in general and on expatriate academics in particular. Talent retention models and theories are also explored in this chapter.

- Chapter 3 provides ample discussion of the literature on different factors that predict the turnover intentions of employees in general and of expatriate academics in particular. The chapter also emphasizes and explores the identified variables that this study seeks to test.
- Chapter 4 proposes a theoretical framework of the predictors of turnover intentions of expatriate academics of both institutions, based on the literature review.
- Chapter 5 explains the research methodology and design used for the study. It also highlights the approach, methods and techniques used to collect and analyse data based on the design and empirical testing of the expatriate academics' turnover intention framework proposed in this study.
- Chapter 6 presents the analysis of the data and a discussion of the findings of the survey, using applicable statistical tests.
- Chapter 7 concludes the study and makes recommendations based on an empirical analysis of the data.

## **1.20 CONCLUSION**

This chapter provides a synopsis of the research study. The background, the aim and the objectives of the study are provided. Key concepts are explained. The concept of expatriation is broadly explored, with emphasis on the expatriation of academics in South Africa. The chapter also outlines a brief literature review on the internationalisation of higher education institutions in South Africa. The research design and methods used in this study are all presented in this chapter. Thus, as mentioned in the section above, the subsequent chapter will present and discuss different theoretical frameworks and models pertaining to turnover intentions and retention of employees in general and of expatriate academics in particular.

## **CHAPTER 2**

# **CONCEPTUALIZATION OF TURNOVER AND TURNOVER INTENTION AND THEORIES AND MODELS UNDERPINNING TURNOVER INTENTION PERTAINING TO TALENT RETENTION**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

Bergman (2011:99) advocates that it will be difficult to conduct empirical research in the absence of the theory. According to Silverman (2000:75), “any scientific finding is usually to be assessed in relation to the theoretical perspective from which it derives and to which it may contribute”. For Bryman (2012:20), a theory gives a “backcloth and rationale for the research that is being conducted”. Furthermore, Silverman (2000:75) contends that a good research study should display critical thoughts and engage with theories. The above statements imply that theories strengthen research. Thus, this chapter presents the main theories and models supporting existing research on employees’ turnover intentions and on talent retention. Selected constructs from these theories and models will be used for the design of the theoretical framework of this study on a new approach towards the retention of the talent of expatriate academics. This new approach will be derived from the identification of the factors affecting the turnover intentions of this category of employees. The chapter begins with a review of literature on turnover and turnover intentions. Then, a brief overview of selected turnover intentions models is highlighted. Thereafter, a brief presentation of talent retention models is illustrated and discussed.

### **2.2 CONCEPTUALISATION OF TURNOVER AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Both turnover and turnover intentions can be classified amongst withdrawal behaviour actions. However, turnover reflects the stage in which an employee has actually separated himself or herself from the organisation. Turnover intention is subjective as it refers to the stage whereby an employee is still processing thoughts of leaving. The following section provides ample description of the two concepts.

### 2.2.1 THE CONCEPT OF TURNOVER

Employee turnover has been a growing concern for organisations and has sparked the attention of many scholars (Hom, Lee, Shaw and Hausknecht, 2016:3). The first empirical study on labour turnover dated from 1925 (Hom, Lee, Shaw and Hausknecht, 2016:4). Employee turnover is defined as the point at which an employee ceases to be a member of an organisation. Various scholars have provided more ample definitions of employee turnover. Harkins (1998) as cited by Arokiasamy (2013:1532) defines employee turnover as the “entrance of new employees into the organisation and the departure of existing employees from the organisation”. Kaur, Mohindru and Pankaj (2013:1219) describe turnover as the change in the workforce during a definite time period. For Rahman and Nas (2013:568), turnover is perceived as an “employee’s permanent movement beyond the boundary of the organisation”. According to Ellet, Westbrook and Deus (2007) as cited by Shim (2010:848), employee turnover can be classified into three different categories, namely unavoidable turnover, desirable turnover and undesirable turnover.

*Unavoidable* turnover usually occurs due to retirement, sickness or sometimes because of family issues. According to Shim (2010:848), *desirable* turnover occurs termed when an employee is deemed incompetent. *Undesirable* turnover refers to the point at which talented, skilled and competent employees leave the organisation. Thus, amongst the above-mentioned types of turnover, undesirable turnover appears to be of concern to many organisations. Usually, organisations do not want to lose their talented employees. Hence, Johnsrud and Rosser (2002:518) state that “too often, the faculty members who leave are those the institution would prefer to retain”. Other scholars have also identified voluntary and involuntary turnover as being the two main types of employee turnover. Wiley (1993) cited by Gill, Ahmed, Rizwan, Farid, Mustafa, Saher, Bashir and Tanveer (2013:848) defines involuntary turnover as a release or termination of an individual’s employment due to numerous reasons. For Mathis and Jackson (2004), involuntary turnover is an “instance of discharge, that reflects an employer’s decision to terminate the employment relationship”. In contrast, voluntary turnover is an employees’ decision to leave the organisation of their own will (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart and Wright, 2006).

People usually decide to leave an organisation for countless reasons. Many scholars have identified the following factors, *inter alia*, poor compensation; job stress; poor performance appraisal; the lack of job satisfaction; a lack of career advancement opportunities; a lack of organisational commitment; a lack of autonomy; and the perception of unfairness in the organisation as being the causes of voluntary turnover (Lee and Mowday, 1987 cited by Al-Omari, Qablan and Khasawneh, 2008:27; Gill *et al.*, 2013:848; Kaur *et al.*, 2013:1220).

Voluntary turnover usually has adverse effects on organisations. Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) as cited by Park (2015:1) state that high levels of turnover are a curse for institutions as they are destructive and detrimental for both organisations and employees. Furthermore, Bodla and Winterton (2004:372) claim that turnover results in the loss of financial and social capital. Equally, Winterton (2004:372) and Daly and Dee (2006:778) posit that voluntary turnover affects the morale of the remaining employees and the reputation of the organisation. In addition, Zahra, Irum, SaadMir and Chishti (2013:85) emphasize the impact of turnover on existing members of organisations when stating that turnover disrupts teamwork and causes delays in important projects when quitting employees are members of any team. Akhtar, Awan, Anwar, Saeed, Ali and Qurban (2016:655) also outline the effect of turnover on employees' attitudes when stating that turnover can result in a lack of commitment, loss of morale and further turnover in institutions.

In the context of academia, scholars have highlighted the significant impact that academics' turnover has on the quality of education and on the financial activities of institutions. Daly and Dee (2006:778) contend that employee turnover is a serious problem that "can be costly to the reputation and to the quality of an institution". Similarly, Zhou and Volkwein (2004:4) state that when academics resign, the entire institution bears the loss at all levels, which affects the goodwill of the institution. Fitz-Enz (1998) as cited by Jeswani (2012:254) also stress the high costs, such as recruitment and training costs, associated with turnover. Kim (2015:139) postulates that the turnover of academics can increase the cost of mentoring and recruiting. The amount of contemporary literature on voluntary turnover clearly portrays its growing concern for organisations as it usually involves talented and skilled employees leaving the organisation. Although there is a plethora of research on actual turnover, it is still a challenge for organisations to determine its real causes

in order to reduce its high propensity. Hence, various scholars agree with Mobley (1982) that studying turnover intentions will yield more accurate results to understand the actual causes of turnover (Johnsrud and Rosser, 2002; Perryer, Firms and Travaglione, 2010:913; Kaur *et al.*, 2013:1221; Rizwan, Shahid, Shafiq, Tabassum, Bari and Umer, 2013:65; Park, 2015:8). Employees' attitudes and behaviour preceding their decision to quit is very complex as it might depend on various control variables. Therefore, Udechukwu and Mujtaba (2007:183) suggest that the concept of voluntary turnover be elucidated only if it is perceived as a blend of social, economic and psychological processes. This implies that in order to understand one's intention to leave the job, the underlying social, economic and psychological factors stimulating the decision to leave should be perceived as a process integrating all three factors. People usually decide to quit the job after careful thought. They assess the situation, they weigh options, they look for opportunities and they ponder their feelings before taking the decision. Thus, Carley (1992) as cited by Zahra, *et al.* (2013:85) assert that the decision to quit the job is not usually taken lightly, but it is instead the result of a thoroughly thought out process. March and Simon (1958) as cited by Jeswani and Dave (2012:254) highlight that employees would initiate the process of terminating employment only when they desire to do so and when they perceive that they are able to move easily. Consequently, employee eagerness to terminate employment is known as turnover intention (Jeswani and Dave, 2012:254).

### **2.2.2 OVERVIEW OF TURNOVER INTENTION**

In contrast to actual turnover, turnover intention is ambiguous because it reflects the attitude that an employee has towards the organisation. One will concur with Robbins and Judge (2015:98) that attitudes are very complex. Therefore, many factors must be considered in order to understand employee attitudes. Berndt (1981:636) as cited by Staffebach (2008:14) defines intentions as "statement about a specific behaviour of interest". For Alam and Mohammad (2009:125), intentions are indicators of subsequent behavior. Hence, Mobley (1979) as cited by Jha (2009:27) states that it is important to study intentions as they can give an indication on an individual's perception and judgement.



Turnover intention, turnover intent, intention to leave and intention to quit are used interchangeably in the literature to indicate the likelihood that an employee will quit his or her job in the near future. Thus, Tett and Meyer (1993:262) define turnover intention as “the conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation”. Sousa-Poza and Henneberger (2002:1) refer to turnover intention as “the (subjective) probability that an individual will change his or her job within a certain time period”. For Lacity, Lyer and Rudramuniyaiah (2008:228), turnover intention is “the extent to which an employee plans to leave the organisation”. According to Carmeli and Weisberg (2006) as cited by Rahman and Nas (2013:568), turnover intentions refer to three specific elements in the withdrawal cognition process. These include the thoughts of quitting the job, the intention to search for a different job and the intention to quit (Mobley, 1977 as cited by Rahman and Nas, 2013:568).

According to psychological research, there is a positive correlation between turnover intention and actual turnover (Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner, 2000:464). Many scholars concur that turnover intention is one of the main predictors and immediate precursor of actual turnover (Zhou and Volkwein, 2004:143; Xu, 2008:610; Hassan and Hashim, 2011:85; Park, 2015:8). Literature on turnover intentions claims that actual turnover increases as the intention increases (Staffelbach 2008:14 and Kaur *et al.*, 2013:1220). Consequently, gauging employees’ turnover intentions is important as it can provide an indication of the employees that think of leaving the organisation. Generally, employees go through a process before deciding to leave an organisation. Thus, Mobley (1977) as cited by Rahman and Nas (2013:568) states that the process of turnover intention follows three stages that starts with an employee’s thought of leaving the organisation, then the intention to look for another job and ends with the intention to leave.

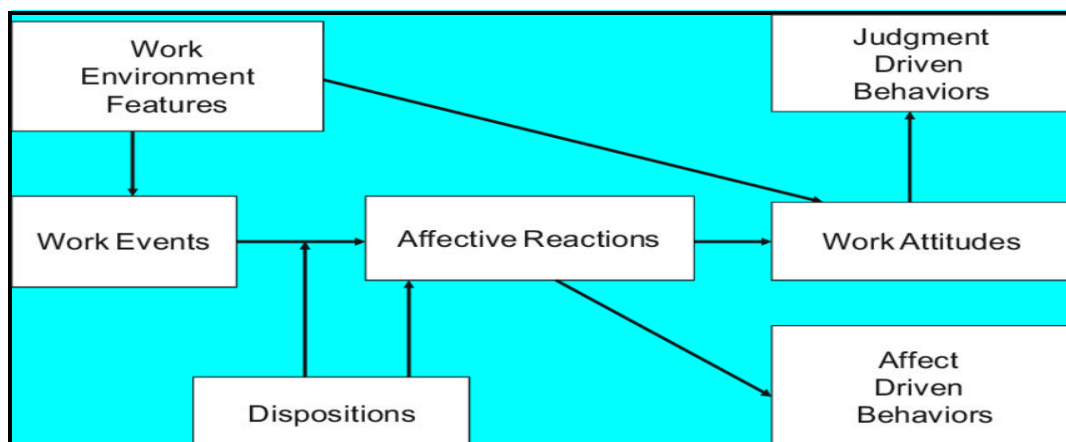
### 2.2.3 COMPONENTS OF TURNOVER INTENTION

Literature reviews on turnover intention reveal that turnover intention is a multi-stage process involving three components, namely psychological, cognitive and behavioural (Takase, 2009:4).

#### 2.2.3.1 PSYCHOLOGICAL COMPONENT

Kraut (1975) as cited by Lin and Ding (2005:304) describes turnover intention as a psychological response to specific organisational conditions. Chiu, Lin, Tsai and Hsiao (2005:492) concur by asserting that turnover intention is a psychological response to negative aspects of organisations. The Affective Event Theory (AET) developed by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) shown in Figure 2.1 below, advocates that workplace events can cause emotional reactions in employees, which can influence their attitudes and behaviours (Stephen and Judge, 2015:134). Moreover, psychological responses are likely to cause employees' emotional and attitudinal withdrawal reactions. Employees' emotions and attitudes can be triggered by various negative factors (e.g. stress, frustration and dissatisfaction) with different aspects of the organisation. Consequently, these negative factors can result in organisational withdrawal behaviours, ranging from presenteeism to actual turnover (Kraut, 1975 as cited by Lin and Ding, 2005:304). Therefore, Chang, Du and Huang (2006:173) contend that the psychological component is perceived as the beginning of turnover intention.

**FIGURE 2.1 AFFECTIVE EVENTS THEORY**



**Source:** Beatson, A., Russel Bennett, R. and Hartel (2011:169). Adapted.

### **2.2.3.2 COGNITIVE COMPONENT**

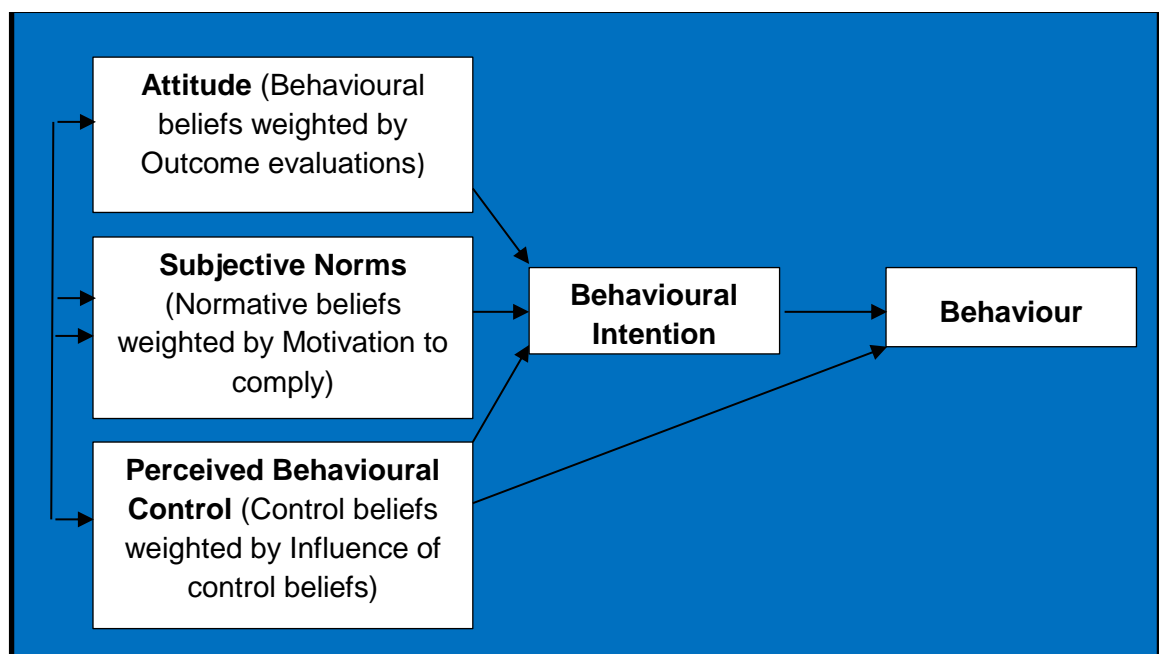
Various scholars have agreed that turnover intention is a conscious, planned and deliberate decision to leave the organisation (Tett and Meyer, 1993:262; Lacity *et al.*, 2008:228). Drawing from the literature, turnover intentions follow a process that includes three stages, namely thoughts of quitting; search and evaluation of alternative jobs; and actual quitting. Each stage involves careful thought (Mobley, 1977 quoted by Zahra *et al.*, 2013:85; Jeswani and Dave, 2012:254; Holtom *et al.*, 2016:7). Additionally, evidence from the literature contends that employees will make a conscious decision before actually leaving the job. This implies that an employee is cognisant of his intent to quit. Given that turnover intention is the final cognitive step in the decision-making process that leads to actual turnover (Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979; Bester, 2012 as cited by Bothma and Roodt, 2013:2), it is understandable that it is often used as proxies for studying actual employee turnover. In this perspective, scholars outline two sub-components encompassing the cognitive component of turnover intention (Chiu *et al.*, 2005:493). These sub-components include the term 'intention', which is defined as a desire or a thought and the adverb "to", which is used as a function word to indicate purpose or an intention (<https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary>).

### **2.2.3.3 BEHAVIOURAL COMPONENT**

Scholars also identified withdrawal behaviour as one of the main components of turnover intention. According to Robbins and Judge (2015:59), employee withdrawal is "the set of actions employees take to separate themselves from the organisation". Koslowsky and Krausz (2002:73) identify three types of withdrawal behaviour. The first type is portrayed by an employee's reduction of membership, which manifests through absenteeism, tardiness, etc. (Oluwafemi, 2013:44). The second type shows a reduction of performance, which is noticed through work restriction, social loafing and grievances (Koslowsky and Krausz, 2002:74). Unlike the first and the second type of withdrawal behaviour that pertain to the work content, in the third type, an employee exhibits his or her withdrawal behaviour by avoiding extra roles such as protecting the organisation's interest, helping co-workers or making constructive suggestions (Koslowsky and Krausz, 2002:74). Takase (2009:5) identifies two categories of withdrawal behaviour as withdrawal from the current job and behaviour

directed towards future opportunities. Takase (2009:5) explains that withdrawal from the job is either behavioural or verbal. Thus, absenteeism, daydreaming and tardiness are indicators of behavioural withdrawal (Oluwafemi, 2013:44). However, the verbal indication portrays intentions to leave the actual job search and the willingness to take on an alternative job (Takase, 2009:5). Thus, Naumann, Widmer and Jackson (2000:229) contend that intention to leave is a behavioural intention variable that acts as an intercessor between employee attitudes and actual turnover. Consequently, Oluwafemi (2013:48) postulates that turnover intention is “a latent attitude construct that may linger within an organisation with its attendant adverse consequences”. As a result, Ajzen (1991) quoted by Brasher (2016:22) proposed a Theory of Planned Behaviour Model pictured in Figure 2.2 below, which explains the influence of attitude, normative beliefs and control beliefs of behavioural intention. The model postulates that three mentioned factors determine the behavioural intention. However, the only factor that predicts actual behaviour is the intention to carry out the specific behaviour.

**FIGURE 2.2 THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR**



**Source:** Ajzen, I (1991:182). Adapted.

## **2.3 REVIEW OF TURNOVER INTENTIONS, TALENT MANAGEMENT AND RETENTION THEORIES**

The theories presented in this section were selected from Perez (2008:18) and Ahmad and Azumah (2012:13), based on the fact that they are all used by existing research on turnover intentions, talent management and employee retention. These theories include the Equity Theory, Expectancy Theory, Herzberg Two-Factor's Theory, Job Embeddedness Theory, Social Exchange Theory, Resource-Based View and the Human Capital Theory.

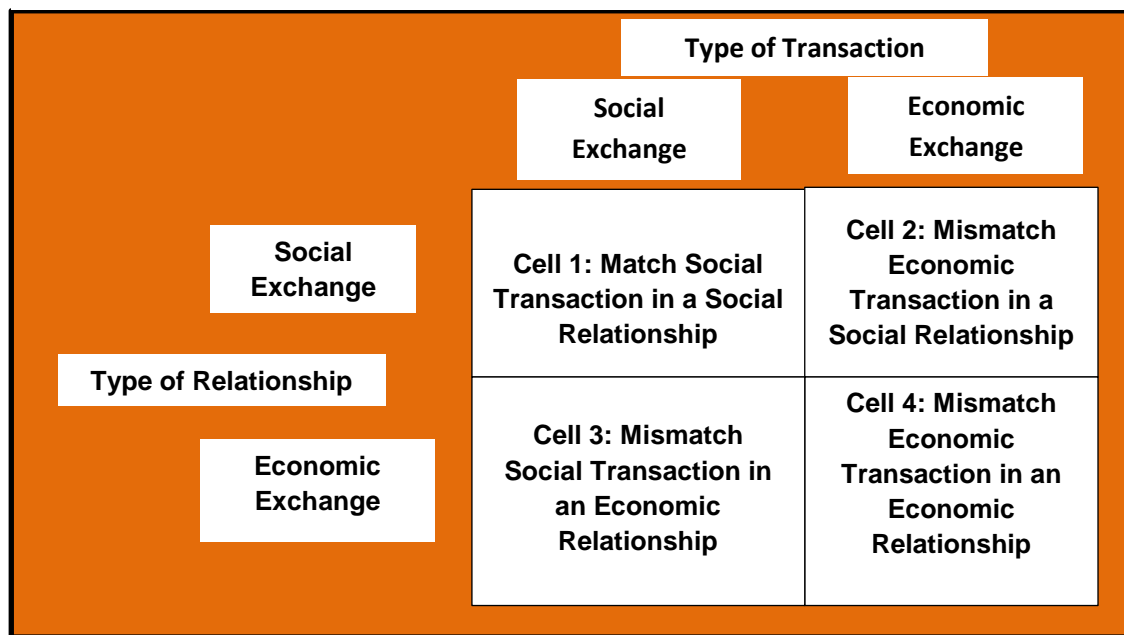
### **2.3.1 SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY**

The Social Exchange Theory (SET) portrayed in Figure 2.3 was initially proposed by Homans (1958), Blau (1964) and Emerson (1976). According to a review conducted by Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005:876), the main principle of the Social Exchange Theory is that the relationship between two social entities depends on the extent to which each of these entities respects social rules and norms of exchange implicitly and explicitly agreed upon between the two parties. Some examples of attributes defining the quality of such relationships include trust, loyalty and commitment. These attributes depend on factors such as love, status, information, money, goods and services that are generally invested by people into relationships.

The Social Exchange Theory contends that the social rules and norms of exchange encompass the rule of reciprocity and explicitly negotiated rules. According to Homans (1958), Blau (1964) and Emerson (1976) as cited by Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005:882), the rule of reciprocity advocates that one should be treated according to how he or she is treating others. Therefore, negotiated rules are clearly detailed and documented in terms of an agreed upon set of rules and obligations between the participating parties. Other examples of rules and norms of exchange include altruism, group gain, status consistency and competition. According to Holtom, Mitchell, Lee and Eberly (2008:257), The Social Exchange Theory claims that employees are connected by a network made of ties whose strength influences their intention to keep or leave their job. Hence, they state that it will be valuable to research the inferences from the social networks theory and job embeddedness for voluntary turnover.

Thus, in the perspective of the Social Exchange Theory, turnover intention can be seen as a consequence of the non-respect of implicitly or explicitly agreed upon rules by management or by colleagues. This means that an employee might voluntarily decide to quit the organization if there is a breach of any agreement. Consequently, management efforts to reinforce implicitly or explicitly agreed upon rules can be considered as a retention strategy, especially for talented employees.

**FIGURE 2.3 SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY**



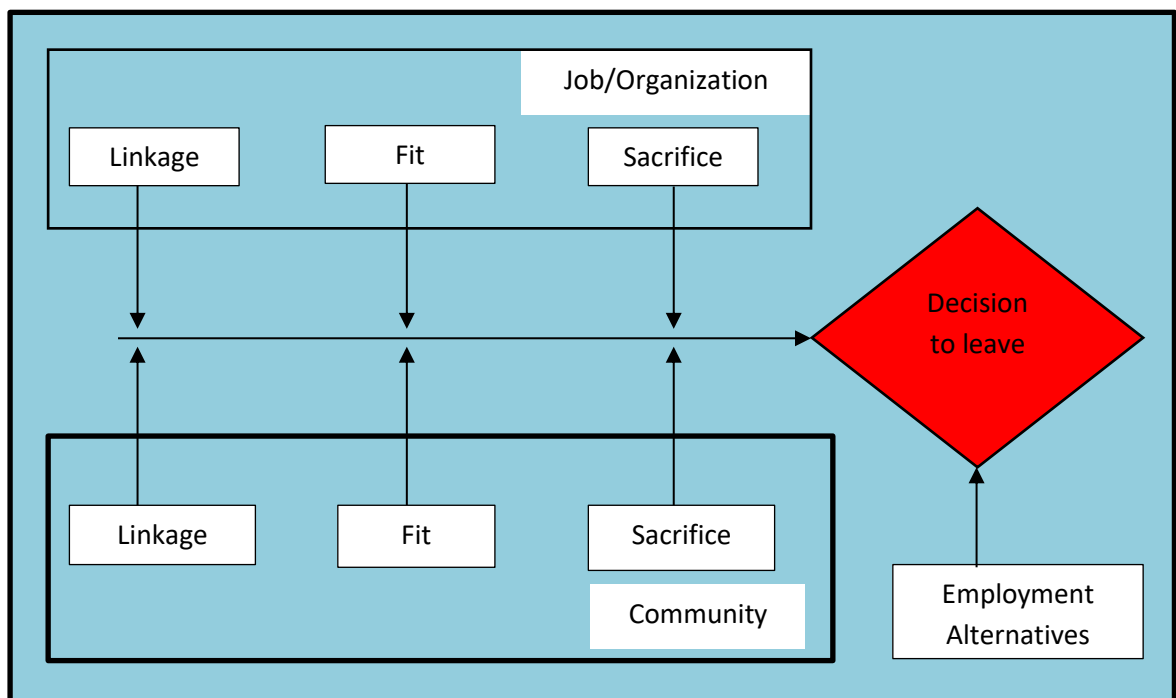
**Source:** Cropanzano, R. and Mitchell, M.S. (2005). Adapted

### 2.3.2 JOB EMBEDDEDNESS THEORY

According to Zhang, Fried and Griffeth (2012:221), the Job Embeddedness Theory (JET) presented in Figure 2.4 below was initially proposed by Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski and Erse (2001:7). The JET postulates that employees have many connections and links within their organisation and community. As a result, they feel fully integrated in their professional and social environment to the point where they do not want to lose or sacrifice those links and connections to an unknown new job or social and working environment (Zhang *et al.*, 2012:223). The Job Embeddedness Theory (Figure 2.4) outlines that such work and community links and connections are colleagues, relatives and friends. The organisational and community integration depends on parameters such as 'employee's personal values, career aspirations, knowledge, skills and ability', as well as the

organisational culture and the job requirements (Zhang, *et al.*, 2012:223). It also depends on general factors such as ‘climate, weather conditions, religious beliefs and entertainment activities. The sacrifices or losses identified by the Job Embeddedness Theory include “giving up familiar colleagues, interesting projects or desirable benefits”, and “giving up an easy commute, good day care or local club membership” (Zhang *et al.*, 2012:224). The Job Embeddedness Theory portrayed in Figure 2.4 below is adapted and modified from the job embeddedness and turnover model of Treuren (2009:30). The theory claims that employees stay in their current jobs as long as they are still feeling a sense of embeddedness towards their professional and social environment. Otherwise, they start becoming receptive to turnover intention appeals. Retention strategies should therefore seek to maintain this feeling of a sense of embeddedness towards the professional and social environment, especially for talented employees.

**FIGURE 2.4 JOB EMBEDDEDNESS THEORY**



**Source:** Treuren, G. (2009). Adapted

### **2.3.3 HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR MOTIVATION-HYGIENE THEORY**

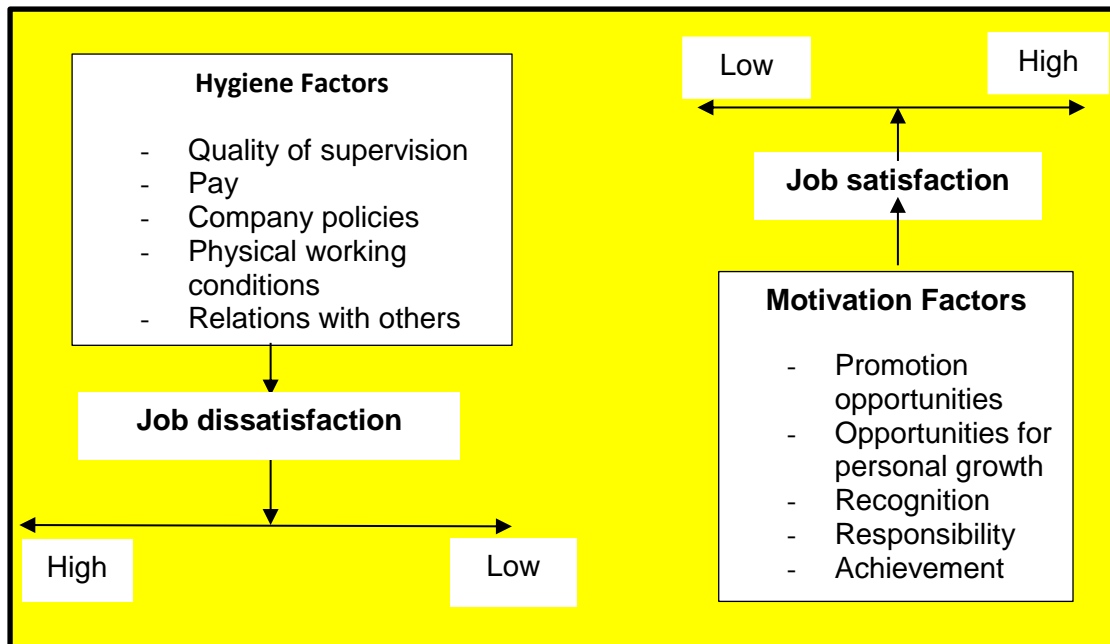
According to a review of this theory conducted by Chu and Kuo (2015:55), the Two-Factor Motivation-Hygiene Theory depicted in Figure 2.5 was proposed by Herzberg (1966). The Two-factor Theory assumes that there are two sets of factors in the organisation. Those that contribute to employee satisfaction with their job are called "Motivation factors or Motivators" and those that cause their dissatisfaction are called "Hygiene factors". According to Herzberg (1966) as cited by Chu and Kuo (2015:56), motivation factors include experience achievement, recognition, interesting work, increased responsibility, advancement and learning. The hygiene factors are unfair company policies; incompetent or unfair supervisors; unpleasant working conditions; unfair salary; threats to status and job insecurity, etc. (Herzberg, 1966 as cited by Chu and Kuo, 2015:56). Furthermore, the Two-factor Theory (Figure 2.5) postulates that motivators and hygiene factors are not simply opposites of each other. This implies that an employee who is dissatisfied because of unpleasant working conditions will not be satisfied if the working conditions become pleasant.

According to the two-factor theory, the issue of the unpleasant working conditions causes the dissatisfaction of the employee, but it does not affect his or her satisfaction with the job. In the context of turnover, an employee will stay or leave his or her job not because of hygiene factors that affect his or her dissatisfaction, but because of the motivation factors that contribute to his or her satisfaction with the job. Thus, an employee starts becoming receptive to turnover intentions when the factors that contribute to his satisfaction are affected.

With regard to this study, turnover intentions of expatriate academics might increase if they perceive that: the job is not stimulating in term of career growth and advancement; the job is not interesting; and they are not recognized in their job. Retention strategies should therefore seek to optimize motivation factors in order to inhibit expatriate academics' turnover intentions.



**FIGURE 2.5 TWO-FACTOR THEORY**



**Source:** Collins, K. (2008). Adapted.

#### **2.3.4. RESOURCE-BASED VIEW/THEORY**

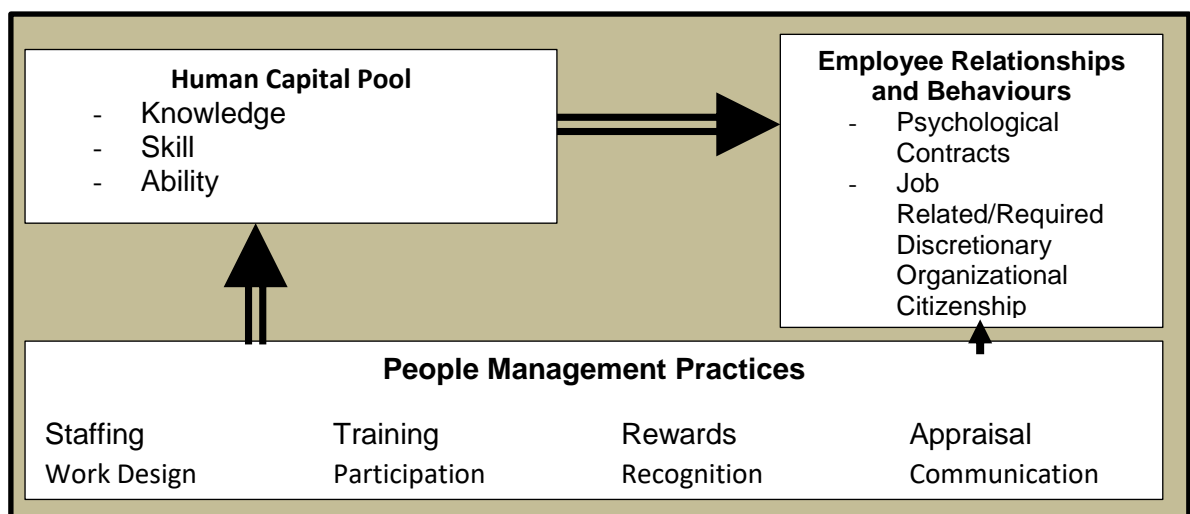
Initially proposed by Barney (1991) as cited by Armstrong and Shimizu (2007:961), The Resource-Based Theory or View (RBT or RBV) presented in Figure 2.6 posits that “resources contribute to the performance advantages of organisations when they are valuable, rare, costly to imitate and non-substitutable” (Armstrong and Shimizu, 2007:961). Barney (1991:101) as quoted by Armstrong and Shimizu (2007:962) therefore defines resources as “all assets, capabilities, organisational processes, firm attributes, information, knowledge, etc. controlled by a firm”. Thus, the Resource-Based Theory (Figure 2.6) aims to explain what makes an organisation gain a competitive advantage over others. The theory postulates that the factors contributing to the success of an organisation include the knowledge, skills and ability of the human capital pool; the behavior displayed by an employee with regard to the job, as well as to the organisation; and the human management practices such as training, rewards, appraisal, recognition, etc.

From Figure 2.6 below, it is apparent that employees are at the center of the Resource-Based Theory and therefore perceived as the main source of competitive advantage for an organisation. Armstrong and Shimizu (2007:962) claim that an

organisation is perceived as “having a competitive advantage when [it] can produce more economically and/or better satisfy customer needs, and thus enjoy superior performance relative to its competitors”.

Drawing from the work of Barney (1991), Armstrong and Shimizu (2007:962) outline that resources are deemed valuable when they can help to improve the firm’s output and efficiency. Additionally, Armstrong and Shimizu (2007:962) point out that “a valuable and rare resource can help sustain a firm’s competitive advantage to the extent that the resource is difficult to imitate”. In the perspective of the Resource-Based Theory or View, employees stay in their current jobs as long as they feel that they are still valued and regarded as special scarce resources that sustain the competitive advantage of their organisations. Otherwise, they start becoming receptive to turnover intention appeals. Retention strategies should therefore seek to maintain employees’ feelings of usefulness and value in order to counter turnover intentions.

**FIGURE 2.6 RESOURCE BASED THEORY**



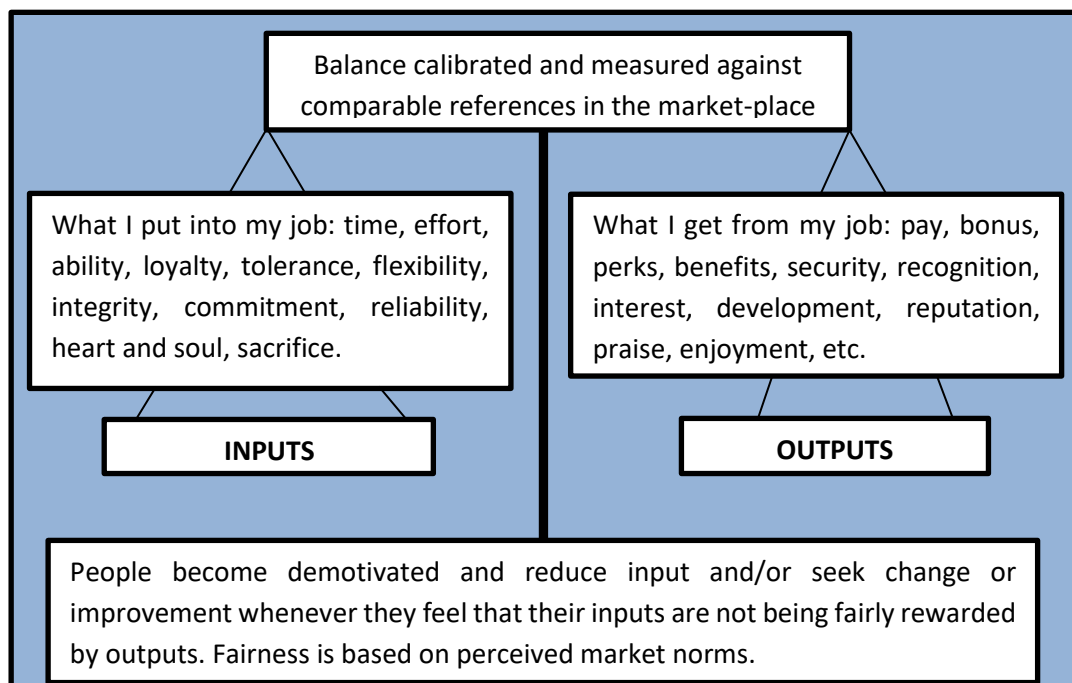
**Source:** Barney, J. (1991:103). Adapted.

### 2.3.5 EQUITY THEORY

The Equity Theory initially proposed by Adams (1965) presented in Figure 2.7 below assumes that people are motivated if they perceive fairness or equity in their job’s inputs as compared to the outputs they received. According to Al-Zawahreh and Al-Madi (2012:159), “the focus of this theory is on the exchange relationship where

individuals give something, their inputs; and expect something in return, the expected outcomes". This theory postulates that the assessment of the value of the outcomes against the value of the inputs reveals a sense of equitability or inequity when compared to a reference person or group. Reference groups include colleagues and relatives, or the individual himself in a different but comparable role (Al-Zawahreh and Al-Madi, 2012:159). While inputs encompass experience, skills and the effort of an individual as depicted in Figure 2.7, outcomes refer to pay, fringe benefits, praise, responsibility, etc. (Al-Zawahreh and Al-Madi, 2012:159). The Equity Theory also assumes that people tend to take action in order to restore equity whenever they feel a sense of inequity. Thus, the alteration of inputs and the alteration of outputs (Figure 2.7) are examples of equity restoration actions. According to Berry and Morris (2008:3), the Equity Theory is useful in labour turnover and retention research. In this perspective, turnover intention can therefore be stimulated if there is in-equitability. Consequently, management efforts to maintain an equitable work environment can be considered as a retention strategy, subsequently preventing turnover intentions.

**FIGURE 2.7 EQUITY THEORY**

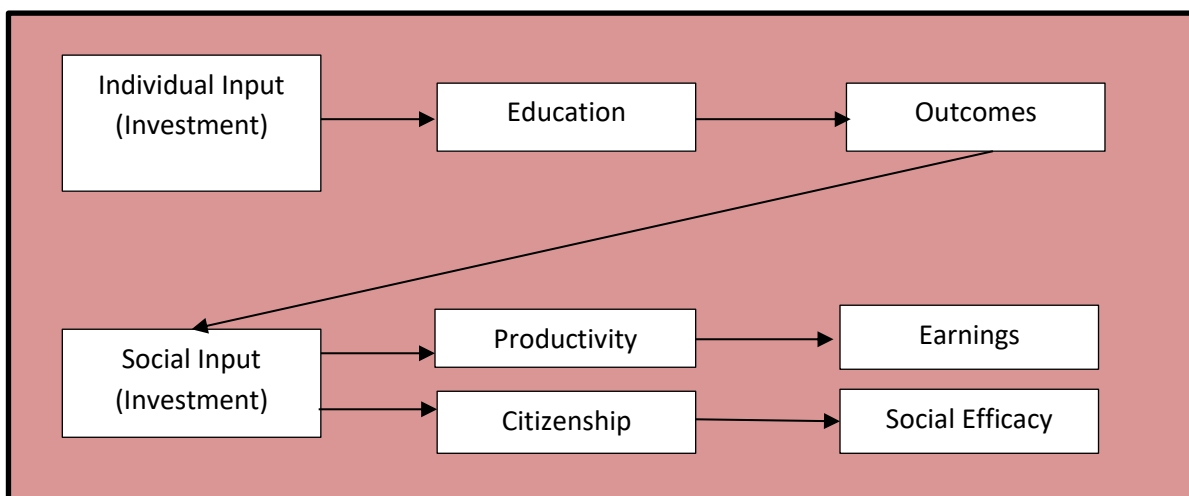


**Source:** Chapman, A. (2012). Adapted.

### 2.3.6 HUMAN CAPITAL THEORY

Developed by Becker (1993), the Human Capital Theory (HCT) portrayed in Figure 2.8 posits that “education, training and development, and other knowledge have a positive impact on productivity and wages” (Zula and Chermack, 2007:249). According to Rahman and Nas (2013:569), the Human Capital Theory assumes that education is crucial to increasing the production capacity of employees. Therefore, it is vital for organisations to invest in the development of employees in order to enhance their productivity level. However, Rahman and Nas (2013:569) also contend that enhancing employees’ employability in the job market may induce turnover for better jobs. The Human Capital Theory presented in Figure 2.8 emphasizes the need for organisations to invest in education, in schooling and in the training and development of their employees, in the perspective of being rewarded with substantial return on investment (ROI) outputs. Such return on investment (ROI) outputs mutually benefit both the organisation and employees. These benefits as pictured in Figure 2.8 include increased productivity and profits, as well as increased wages and income (Zula and Chermack (2007:249). In the perspective of the Human Capital Theory, management efforts to invest in the education, training and development of their employees can be considered a retention strategy, especially for talented employees, which can ultimately counter turnover intentions.

**FIGURE 2.8 HUMAN CAPITAL THEORY**

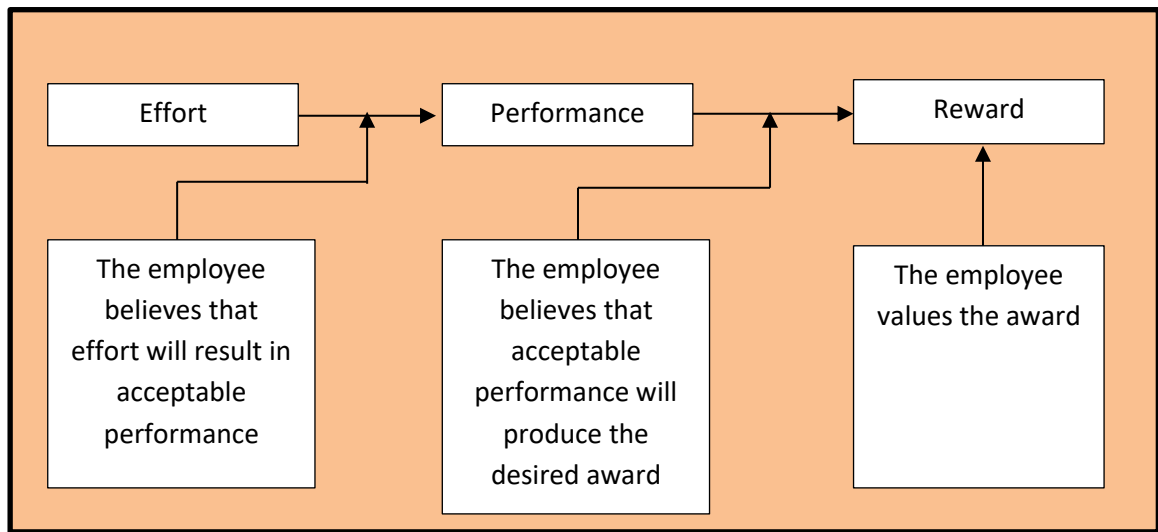


**Source:** Swanson, R.A. and Holton, E.F. (2001:110). Adapted.

### **2.3.7 EXPECTANCY-CONFIRMATION THEORY**

The Expectancy-Confirmation Theory (ECT) in Figure 2.9 below was initially proposed by Vroom (1964). According to the review of this theory conducted by Jiang and Klein (2009:384), the concept behind the Expectation Confirmation Theory (ECT) is that, prior to any event, one has an expectation. If that expectation is met in a positive manner, then one is satisfied. If that expectation is met in a negative manner, one is dissatisfied. The Expectancy Theory argues that “both the expectations prior to an event and the subsequent evaluation after the event combine to determine satisfaction with the event” (Vroom, 1964 as cited by Jiang and Klein, 2009:384). The Expectancy Theory claims that “people enter work organisations with expectations and values, and if these expectations and values are met [by the organisation], they will likely remain a member of the organisation” (Vroom, 1964 as cited by Jiang and Klein, 2009:385). Likewise, Rathakrishnan, Imm and Kok (2016:131) contend that employees join the organisation with some expectations, thus negative behaviours such as absenteeism or turnover intention will occur if those expectations are not met. Daly and Dee (2006:778) identify the Expectancy Theory as one of the fundamental theories at the heart of turnover and retention research, including for the higher education sector. In fact, Daly and Dee (2006:778) provide “additional evidence to support the expectancy theory-based frameworks that have guided much of the research on turnover intent in general (Mobley, 1977; Steers and Mowday, 1981 as cited by Daly and Dee, 2006:778) and on higher education faculties in particular (Zhou and Volkwein, 2004:5)”. In this regard, Rathakrishnan, Imm and KoK (2016:131) affirm that turnover intention can be associated with the expectation of lecturers on issues such as reward, training, working conditions and recognition (Figure 2.9). With regard to the Expectancy-Confirmation Theory, management efforts to evaluate and satisfy the expectations of their employees can be considered as a retention strategy especially for talented employees, which can ultimately counter turnover intentions.

**FIGURE 2.9 VROOM' S EXPECTANCY THEORY**



**Source:** Collins, K. (2008). Adapted.

## **2.4 TURNOVER INTENTION MODELS**

The purpose of this section is to briefly review existing turnover intention models of employees because of their usefulness for the design of the theoretical model of this study. Given that employee turnover theory and research is more than one hundred years old, as pointed out by Hom, *et al.* (2016:3), the current review is a synthesis of existing studies previously conducted by Ramdass (2005), Long (2012), Brasher (2016) and Hom, *et al.* (2016). The present review groups and highlights the most cited turnover intention models according to decennial time-periods, starting with March and Simon's (1958) Theory of Organizational Equilibrium.

### **2.4.1 MARCH AND SIMON'S (1958) THEORY OF ORGANIZATIONAL EQUILIBRIUM (TOE)**

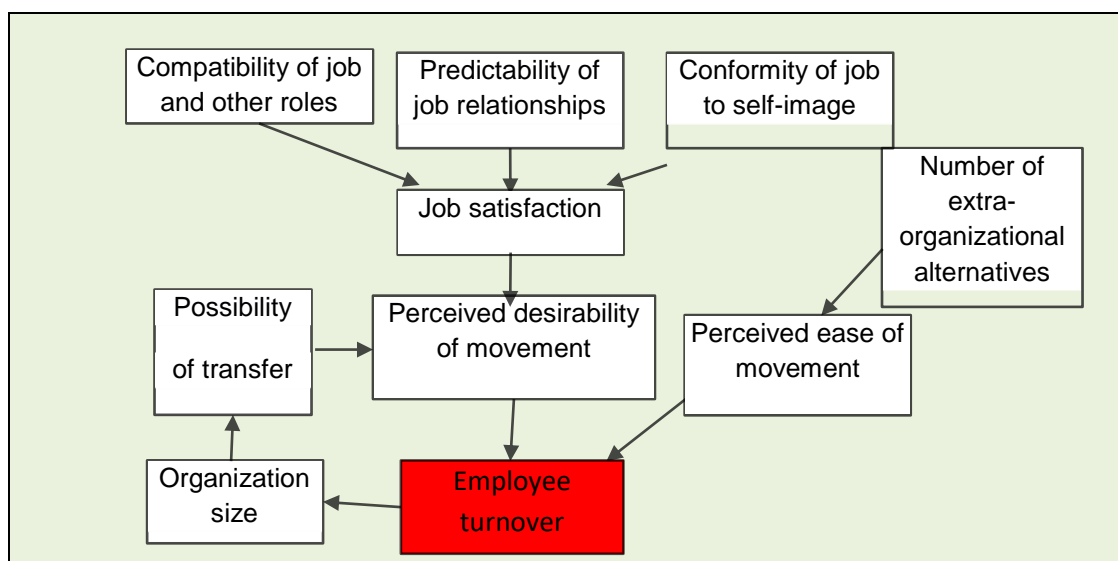
March and Simon's (1958) Theory of Organizational Equilibrium (TOE) portrayed in Figure 2.10 hypothesizes on the need for balancing employees' and organisations' contributions and inducements (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee and Eberly, 2008:237). Pertaining to turnover, the Theory of Organizational Equilibrium in Figure 2.10 is commonly considered as the first formal turnover intention model (Holtom *et al.*, 2008:237). This model is named the Theory of Organizational Equilibrium because it hypothesizes that turnover is a decision that is taken after weighing one's perception of one's contribution to the organisation against one's perception of the

contribution of the organisation to one's life (March and Simon as cited by Thomson, 2003:11; Basher, 2016:29). The theory assumes that perceived desirability and perceived ease of movement are the two main factors that determine an employee's equilibrium. These two main factors also determine an employee's satisfaction with the job (Holtom *et al.*, 2008:237).

Additionally, the theory claims that turnover intention is mainly affected by job satisfaction, which itself mainly depends on an employee's compatibility with his or her job and other roles; on the predictability of his or her relationships at work; and on the conformity of his or her job with his or her self-image (Holtom *et al.*, 2008:237; Basher, 2016:29). It is worth pointing out that this model contains a loop between turnover, organisation size, possibility of transfer and perceived desirability of movement. In other words, turnover affects the size of the organisation, the size of the organisation affects the possibility of transfer, the possibility of transfer affects the perceived desirability of movement, the perceived desirability of movement affects turnover and the loop starts again with the effect of turnover on the size of the organisation (Long, Ajagbe, Nor and Suleiman, 2012:283).

Given that the perceived desirability and the perceived ease of movement influence employee turnover (Holtom *et al.*, 2008:237), management initiatives to maintain the equilibrium between employees' contributions and organisations' inducements can counter turnover intentions and promote the retention of employees.

**FIGURE 2.10 THEORY OF ORGANIZATIONAL EQUILIBRIUM**



**Source:** Thomson, S.B. (2003:10). Adapted

## **2.4.2 TURNOVER INTENTION MODELS OF THE 1970'S**

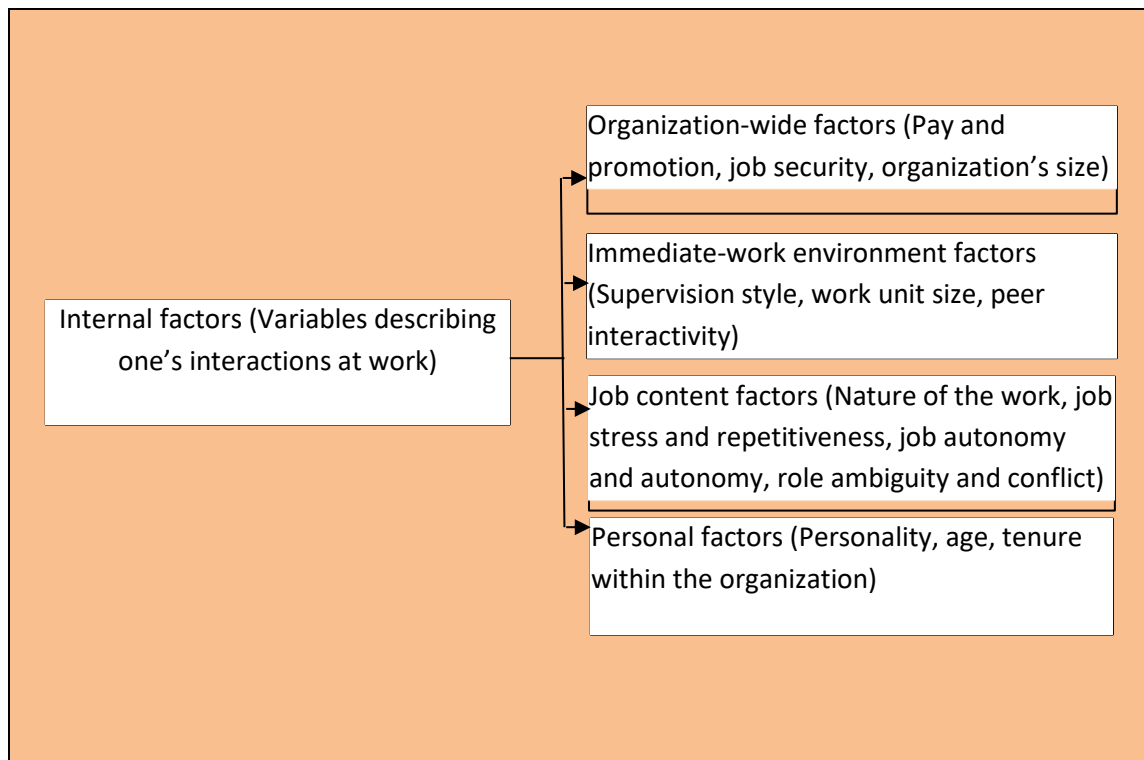
Existing literature appears to indicate that Porter and Steers' (1973) Met-Expectation Model; Mobley's (1977) Intermediate Linkages Model; Price's (1977) Structural Model; and Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino's (1979) Expanded Model are the four most cited turnover intention models from the decennial period between 1970 and 1980.

### **2.4.2.1 PORTER AND STEERS' (1973) MET-EXPECTATION MODEL (MEM)**

The Met-Expectation Model (MEM) presented in Figure 2.11 claims that Job satisfaction is the main factor influencing turnover. However, Porter and Steers (1973) as cited by Long, *et al.* (2012:284) contend that dissatisfaction obviously leads to turnover, but, it does not address the issue on how to prevent or to reduce turnover. Hence, the model of Met-Expectation. According to the model (Figure 2.11), employees bring some expectations when they join an organisation. If these expectations are not met, this may affect their satisfaction with the job and consequently lead to turnover (Long *et al.*, 2012:284). The Met-Expectation Model (Figure 2.11) postulates that turnover intention is mainly affected by an employee's level of satisfaction with the extent to which his or her expectations are met or not met in the workplace. Porter and Steers (1973) as cited by Long, *et al.* (2012:284) explain that the factors affecting employees' expectations are sub-divided into four categories. As portrayed in the Met-Expectation Model in Figure 2.11, these categories include organization-wide factors, immediate-work environment factors, job content factors and personal factors. *Organization-wide* factors are perceived as variables which are determined outside the 'immediate work group' and encompass pay and promotion, job security and the organisation's size. *Immediate-work environment* factors include supervision, work unit size and peer interactivity. *Job content* factors involve the nature of the work; job stress and repetitiveness; job autonomy and autonomy; role ambiguity; and conflict. *Personal* factors comprise personality, age and tenure within the organisation. The Met-Expectation Model is relevant to this study as institutions should take into cognisance that employees need to be matched with the job. Moreover, their expectations need to be met in order to deter potential turnover intentions.



**FIGURE 2.11 MET-EXPECTATION MODEL**



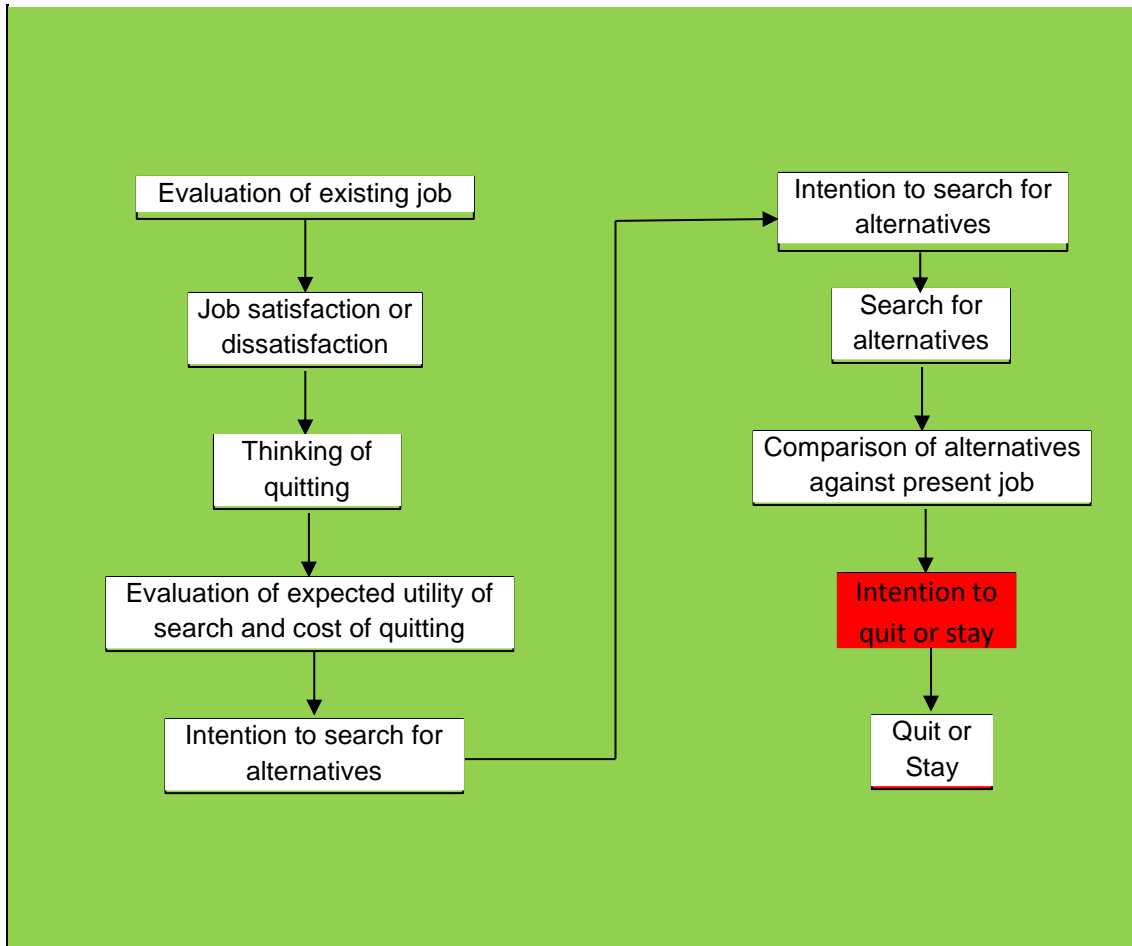
**Source:** Long, C. S, Ajagbe, A.M., Nor, K.M. and Suleiman, E.S. (2012:284). Adapted.

#### **2.4.2.2 MOBLEY'S (1977) INTERMEDIATE LINKAGES MODEL (ILM)**

The Intermediate Linkages Model depicted in Figure 2.12 claims that turnover intention results from the comparison of possible job alternatives against the current job and this comparison happens after these alternatives have been searched and evaluated (Holtom *et al.*, 2016:7). The Intermediate Linkages Model (Figure 2.12) also posits that the idea of quitting or staying in the current job develops from the evaluation of the current job in terms of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. This idea then materialises itself through the evaluation of the balance between the cost of quitting the current job and the expected utility of searching for a new job. A decision is then taken to search or not to search for possible job alternatives (Thomson, 2003:13). In other words, Mobley (1977) as cited by Holtom, *et al.* (2016:7) explains how employee dissatisfaction develops into turnover. Mobley (1977) further claims that an employee who is dissatisfied will firstly develop thoughts of quitting the job. Then he or she will appraise the subjective expected utility of searching for a new job and the costs of quitting. After the appraisal, the employee will intensify his or her

intentions to search for a job while evaluating alternatives. After the evaluation of alternatives, the employee will assess these alternatives and compare them with his or her present job. Thereafter, the employee will strengthen his or her intention to quit and ultimately quit the job.

**FIGURE 2.12 INTERMEDIATE LINKAGES MODEL**

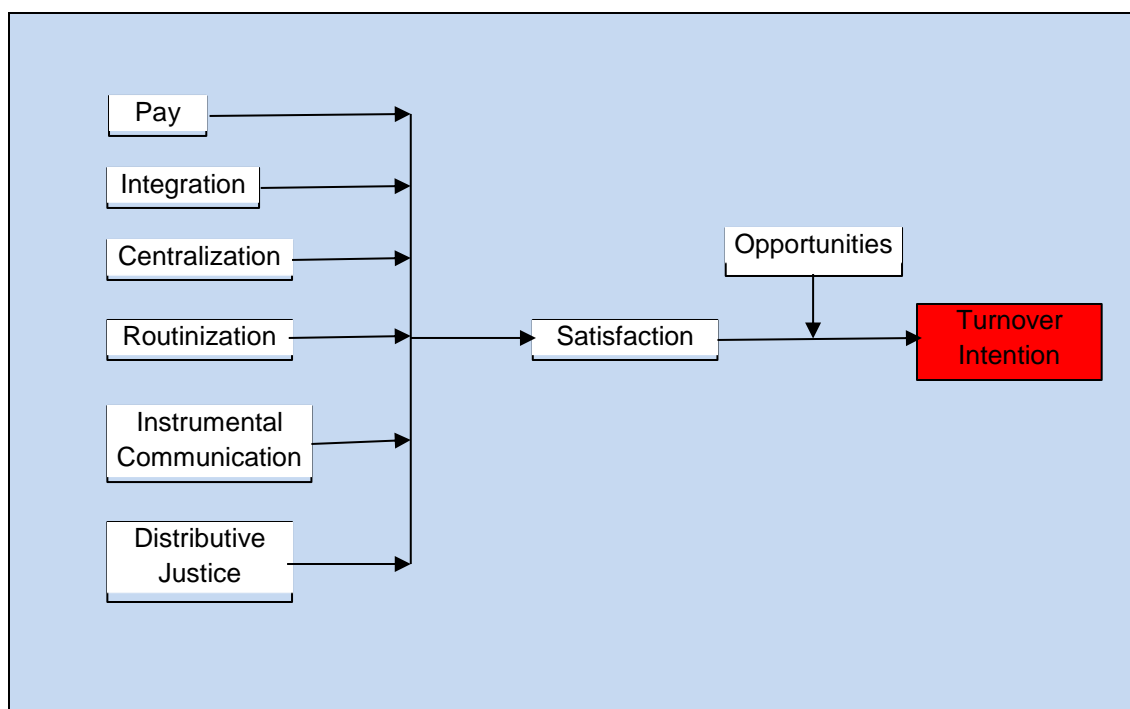


**Source:** Thomson, S.B. (2003:13). Adapted.

#### 2.4.2.3 PRICE'S (1977) CAUSAL MODEL (CM)

Price's (1977) Causal Model portrayed in Figure 2.13 was developed based on the Expectancy Theory. The model assumes that turnover intention and perceived job opportunities determine turnover. The model further postulates that the influence of job satisfaction on turnover intention is moderated by the presence or absence of new job opportunities (Al Omari and Qablan, 2008:28; Singh and Sharma 2015:2496). Additionally, this model claims that the various factors influencing employee turnover as depicted in Figure 2.13 include pay, integration, centralisation, routinization, Instrumental Communication and distributive justice. However, high salaries and high levels of integration, communication, and distributive justice improve employee satisfaction. On the other hand, centralization and routinization increase their dissatisfaction (Singh and Sharma, 2015:2496).

**FIGURE 2.13 CAUSAL MODEL**

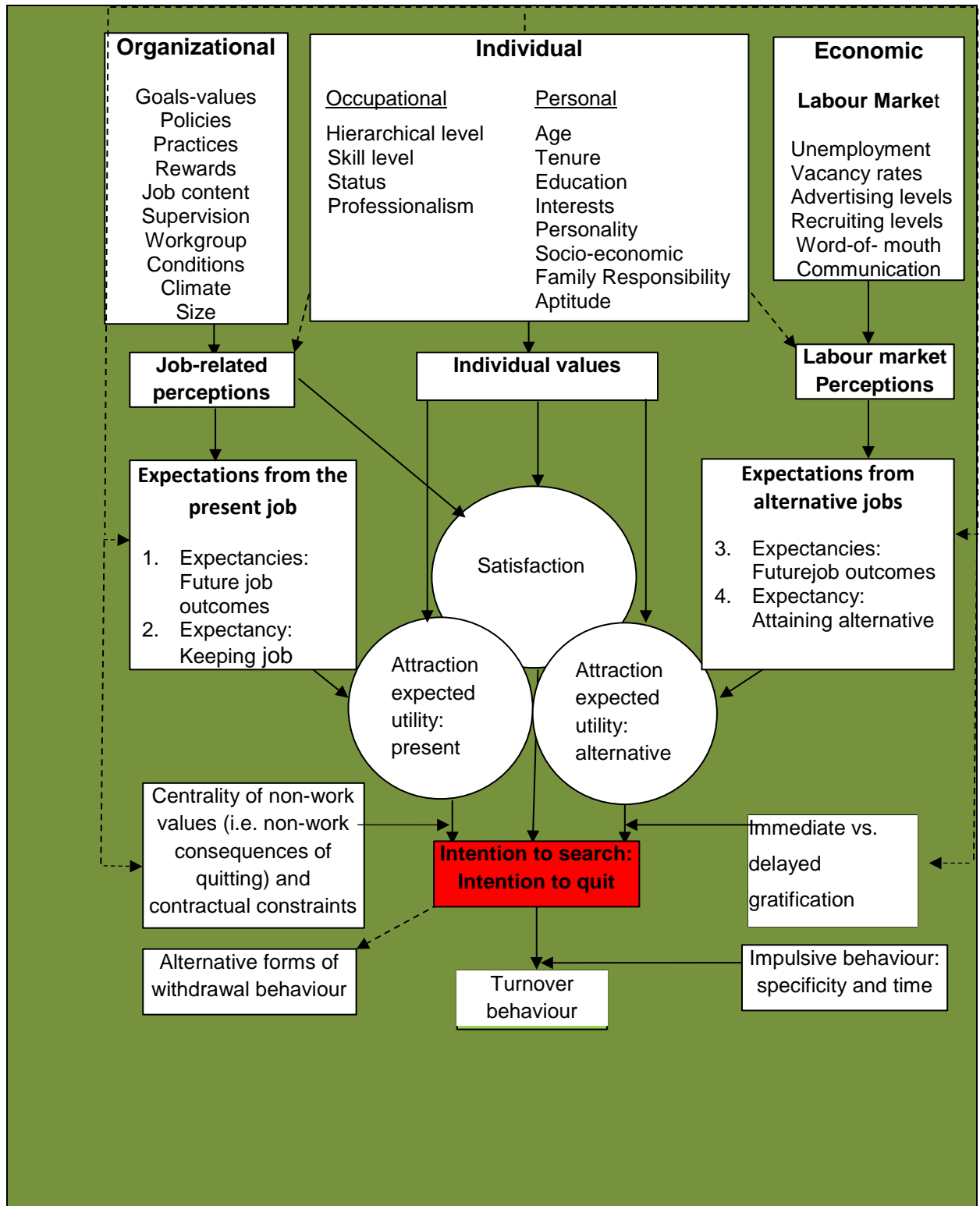


**Source:** Al Omari, A.A and Qablan, A.M. (2008:29). Adapted.

#### **2.4.2.4 MOBLEY, *ET AL.*'S (1979) EXPANDED MODEL (EM)**

The Expanded Model presented in Figure 2.14 below posits that even though job satisfaction is a significant determinant of intention to quit, it is not the only factor influencing turnover intention as hypothesized by previous theories (March and Simon, 1958; Mobley, 1977). Many variables, such as present job expectations and future job expectations, are also antecedents of turnover intention (Kim, 2013:19). The Expanded Model (Figure 2.14) assumes that individual values, job-related expectations (expectations from the present job) and labour market expectations (expectations from alternative jobs) are combined to affect turnover intentions through the linkages (Mobley *et al.*, 1979 as cited by Holtom *et al.*, 2008:237). Hence the model hypothesized on the moderating effects on intention to quit. The Expanded Model presented in Figure 2.14 below posits that the centrality of non-work values (non-work consequences of quitting) and immediate gratification moderate the effects of job satisfaction, the expected utility of the present job (present job attraction) and expected utility of alternatives (attraction of alternatives) on turnover (Mobley *et al.*, 1979 as cited by Holtom *et al.*, 2008:237). In sum, this model assumes that turnover intention results from the evaluation of the current job in terms of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, as well as from the evaluation of one's expectations both from the current job and from alternative jobs. According to this model, job satisfaction results from the interaction of individual values with one's perceptions on his or her work conditions. These work condition perceptions have an influence on the expectations from the current job, but it is the economic labour market conditions that ultimately determine the expectations from possible jobs alternatives (Thomson, 2003:15). The Expanded Model (Figure 2.14) provides a platform for other theories to consider the presence and influence of moderating factors on turnover. Regarding this study, retaining talented expatriate academics in the perspective of the Expanded Model implies that the management of institutions should ensure that the attraction of the present job related-factors that appear to influence turnover intentions outweigh the attraction provided by alternatives.

**FIGURE 2.14 EXPANDED MODEL**



**Source:** Karikatis, G. and Cooper, G.L (2016:47). Adapted.

### 2.4.3 TURNOVER INTENTION MODELS OF THE 1980'S

A review of existing literature on turnover intention seems to indicate that the following turnover intention models are the most cited as the turnover intention models from the decennial period between 1980 and 1990. These models include Muchinsky and Morrow's (1980) Multi-disciplinary Model of Turnover; Steers and Mowday's (1981) Multi-Route Model of Turnover; Bluedorn's (1982) Unified Model of Turnover; Jackofsky's (1984) Performance-based Turnover Model; Hulin, Roznowski and Hachiya's (1985) Labour Economic Model (LEM); and Price and Mueller's (1986) Causal Model of Turnover.

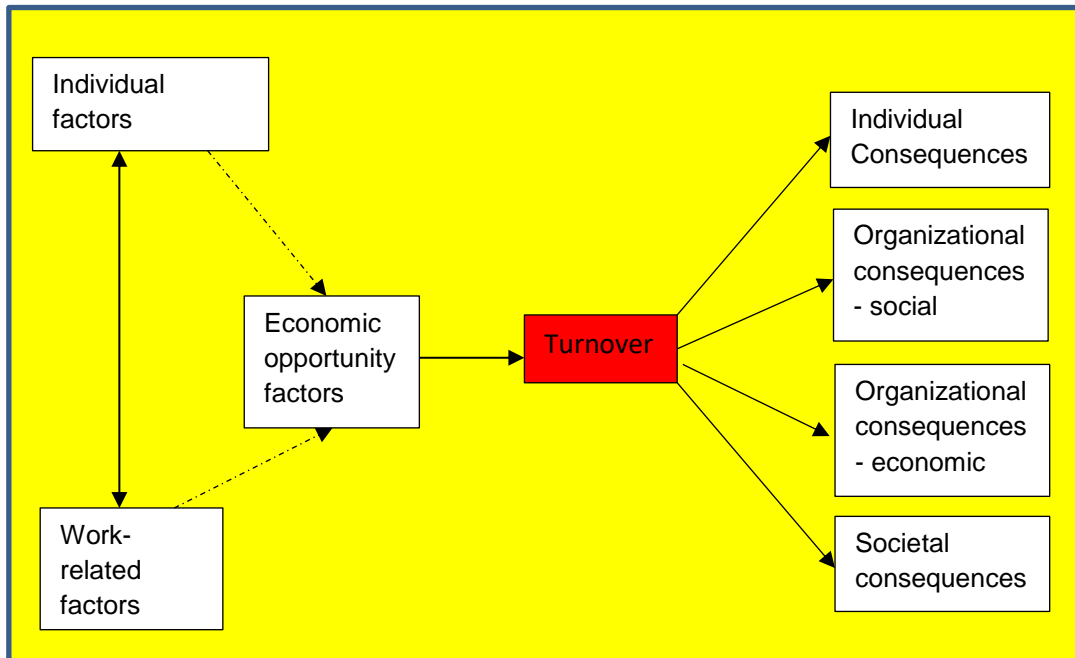
#### 2.4.3.1 MUCHINSKY AND MORROW'S (1980) MULTI-DISCIPLINARY MODEL OF TURNOVER (MMT)

In the Multi-disciplinary Model of Turnover portrayed in Figure 2.15 below, Muchinsky and Morrow (1980:267) identified three main factors influencing turnover, namely, individual, work-related and economic opportunity. According Muchinsky and Morrow (1980:268), *individual factors* as depicted in Figure 2.15 include the age and the personality of the individual; the size his or her family; the length of employment etc. *Work-related factors* encompass, *inter alia*, recognition and feedback; job autonomy and responsibility; commitment to the organisation, role clarity etc. *Economic opportunity* comprises the state of national economy (e.g. GNP, employment levels), the state of local economy employment levels and the type of industry (Muchinsky and Morrow, 1980:268).

The Multi-disciplinary Model of Turnover (Figure 2.15) claims that the three determinants of turnover result in the following consequences: individual, organizational-social, organizational-economic and societal (Muchinsky and Morrow, 1980:267 as cited by Chon, 2014:108). This model (Figure 2.15) further postulates that economic factors are the prime determinant of turnover. However, individual and work-related factors also influence turnover (Muchinsky and Morrow, 1980:267 in Chon, 2014:108). In order words, this model assumes that turnover mainly results from the evaluation of economic opportunities and such evaluations take into account individual factors that are specific to each employee, as well as the assessment of their work conditions. Drawing from The Multi-disciplinary Model of Turnover, the management of institutions should be aware of the impact that the

state of the national and local economy can have on expatriate academic turnover intentions.

**FIGURE 2.15 MULTI-DISCIPLINARY MODEL OF TURNOVER**



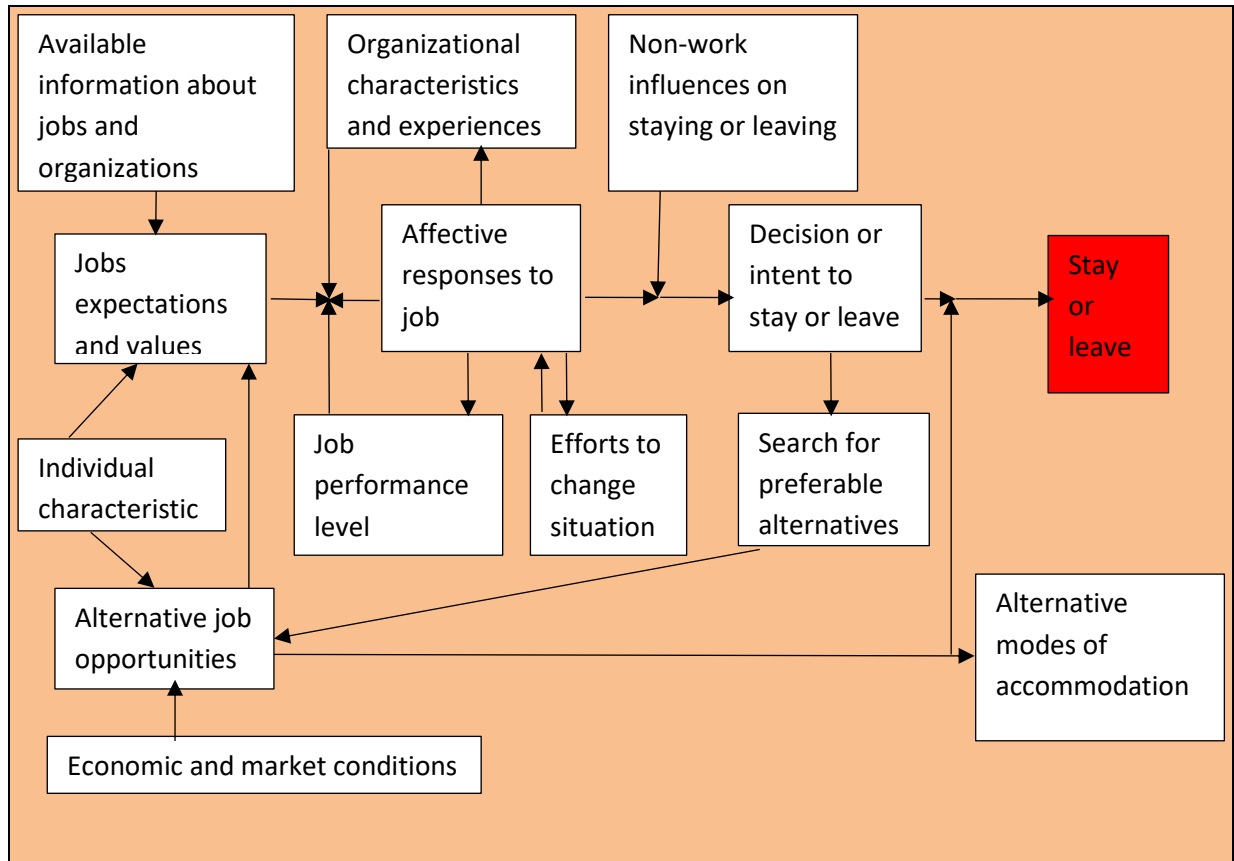
**Source:** Thomson, S. B. (2003:17). Adapted

#### **2.4.3.2 STEERS AND MOWDAY'S (1981) MULTI-ROUTE MODEL OF TURNOVER (MRMT)**

In their complete model on the processes that lead to turnover, Steers and Mowday (1981) postulate that turnover intention mainly depends on an individual's affective responses to his or her work conditions, with the moderation of some non-work-related factors. Thus, the Multi-Route Model of Turnover depicted in Figure 2.16 hypothesize that turnover intentions may lead to turnover or may trigger a search for alternatives (Singh and Sharma, 2015:2495). The Multi-Route Model of Turnover (Figure 2.16) also claims that affective job responses have an influence on employees' work experiences, on their work performance and on their motivation to change their lives. Thus, turnover intention is usually translated into the search of alternative jobs whose outcomes depend on employees' individual characteristics, their expectation and values and on the availability of information on the job market. Also, work conditions perceptions have an influence on one's expectations from one's current job. However, according to Steers and Mowday (1981), it is the

economic labour market conditions as depicted in Figure 2.16 that ultimately determine one's expectations from possible job alternatives.

**FIGURE 2.16 MULTI-ROUTE MODEL OF TURNOVER**



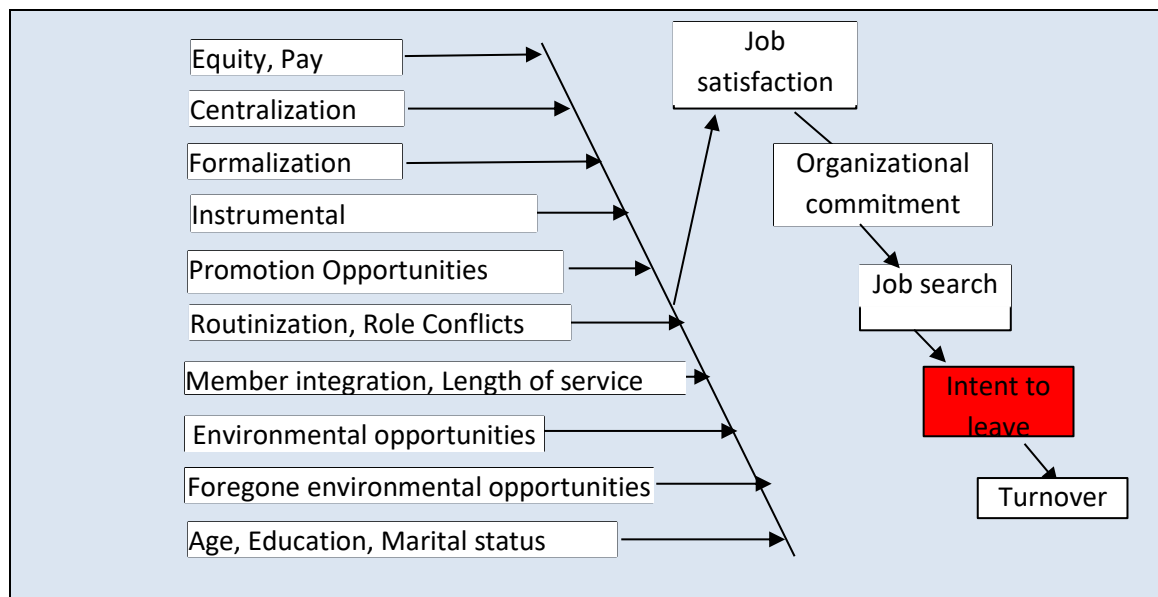
**Source:** Thomson, S.B. (2003:18). Adapted.

#### 2.4.3.3 BLUEDORN'S (1982) UNIFIED MODEL OF TURNOVER (UMT)

The Unified Model of Turnover represented in Figure 2.17 basically encompasses three models which include the Mobley (1977) Intermediate Linkages Model and two job attitude antecedents, namely job satisfaction and organizational commitment, which consistently predict voluntary employee turnover. This Unified Model of Turnover found in Figure 2.17 hypothesizes that job dissatisfaction affects organizational commitment and leads to job searches with an intention to leave the current job. The Unified Model of Turnover also highlights several factors that affect job satisfaction. These factors as depicted in Figure 2.17 include pay, equity, centralization, promotions and marital status (Bluedorn, 1982:137).



**FIGURE 2.17 UNIFIED MODEL OF TURNOVER**

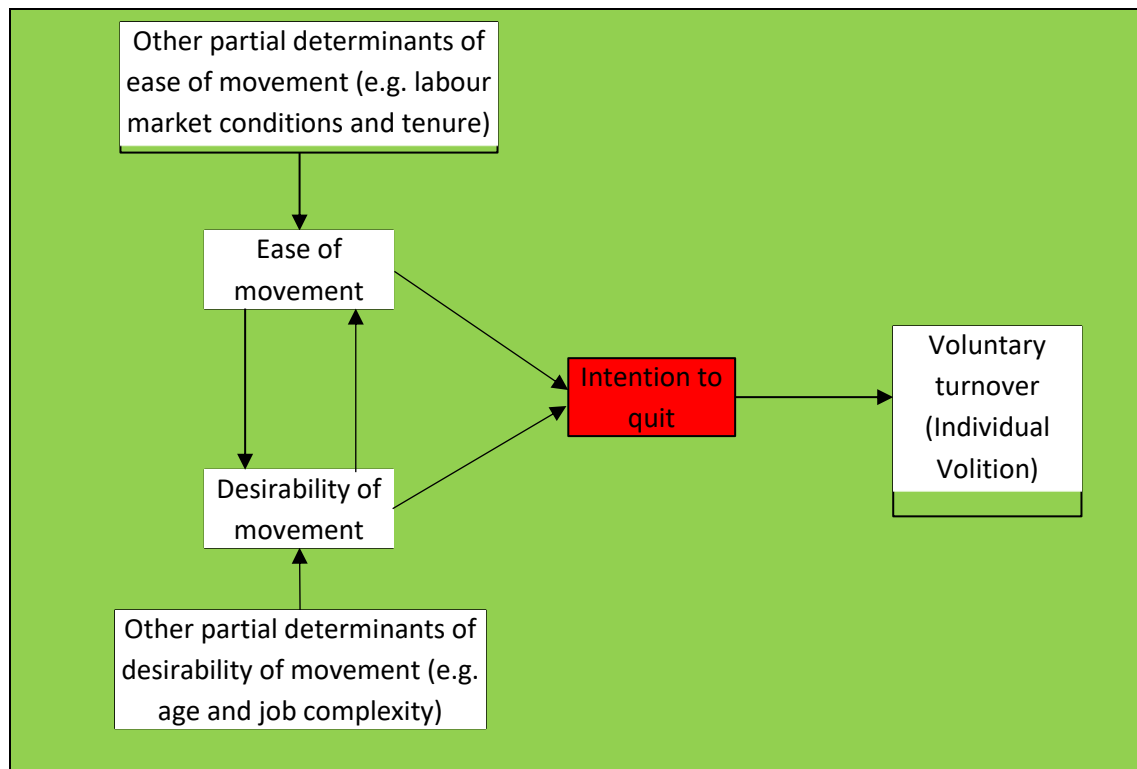


**Source:** Bluedorn, A.C. (1982:138). Adapted.

#### **2.4.3.4 JACKOFSKY'S (1984) INTEGRATED PROCESS MODEL (IPM)**

Laschober and De Tormes Eby (2013:2) state that the Integrated Process Model shown in Figure 2.18 below is among the models that help explain the relationship between an employee's job performance and turnover. The Model (Figure 2.18) posits that job performance may be directly associated with several forms of turnover, as well as being precursors of turnover. Additionally, the model illustrated in Figure 2.17 below claims that turnover intention mainly depends and is motivated by employees' desirability of movement and by their perceived ease of movement or both (Laschober and De Tormes Eby, 2013:3). The Integrated Process Model further postulates that tenure status and labour market conditions as depicted in Figure 2.18 are examples of factors that affect employees' perceived ease of movement. In addition, the Integrated Process Model (Figure 2.18) claims that age and job complexity are amongst the factors that affect employees' desirability of movement (Long *et al.*, 2012:288).

**FIGURE 2.18 INTEGRATED PROCESS MODEL**



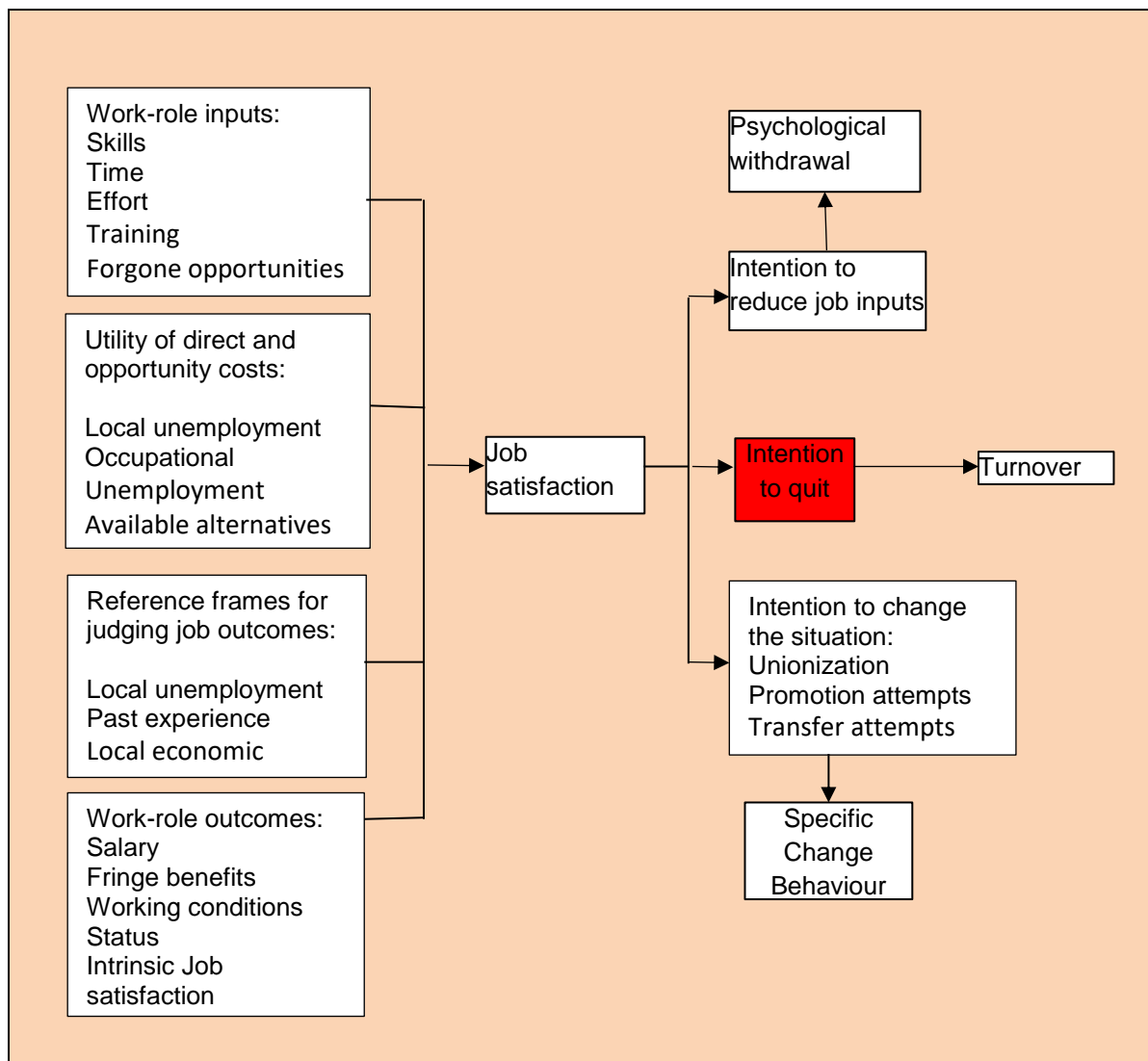
**Source:** Long, C.S, Ajagbe, A.M., Nor, K.M. and Suleiman, E.S (2012:288)  
Adapted.

#### **2.4.3.5 HULIN, *ET AL.*'S (1985) LABOUR ECONOMIC MODEL (LEM)**

The Labour Economic Model in Figure 2.19 postulates that the labour market perceptions and labour market conditions have an impact on turnover. Thus, Hulin, *et al.* (1985:244) state that individuals "do not quit on the basis of probabilities estimated from alternatives available, they quit on the basis of certainties represented by jobs already offered". This model also postulates that the availability of alternative jobs affects job satisfaction. Thus, the model classifies job satisfaction factors into four groups, namely work-role input related factors (skills, time, effort, training, etc.); work-role outcome related factors (salary, status, working conditions, etc.); utility of direct and opportunity cost; and reference frames for judging job outcomes. According to this model (Figure 2.19), dissatisfaction is the main trigger of turnover intention, in addition to other consequences such as staff unionization and the reduction of work commitment. The Labour Market Model further explains that job satisfaction as portrayed in Figure 2.19 depends on the assessment of opportunity costs and job outcomes in relation to local unemployment and to past

experiences. Therefore, a rise in unemployment decreases voluntary turnover as job opportunities lessen (Hulin *et al.*, 1985:245). This implies that when job opportunities are reduced, people become reluctant to leave their jobs. As a result, Hulin, *et al.* (1985:245) conclude that high unemployment leads to job satisfaction and possibly deters turnover intentions. While low unemployment leads to dissatisfaction and may trigger turnover intentions.

**FIGURE 2.19 LABOUR ECONOMIC MODEL**

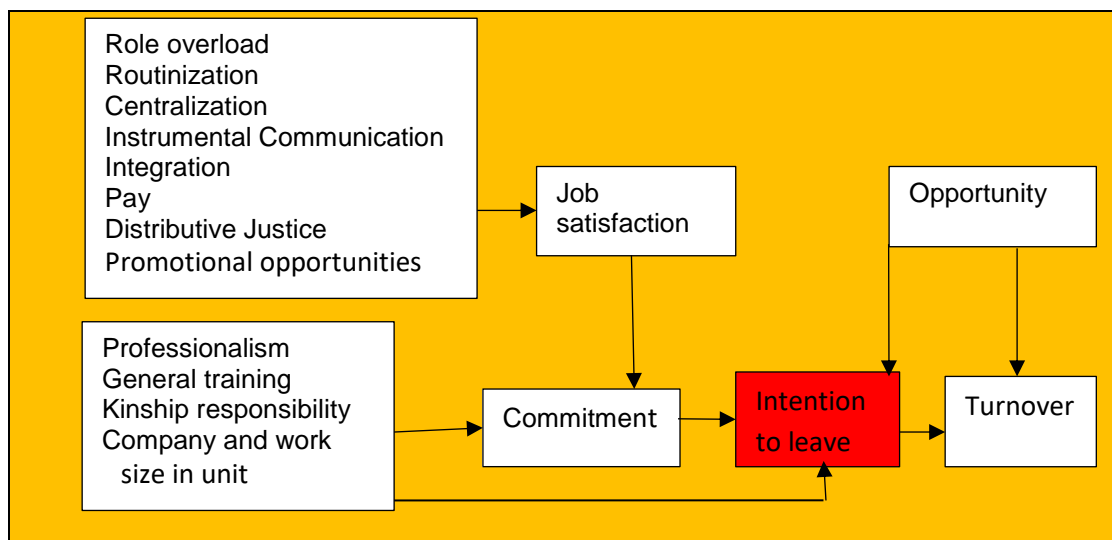


**Source:** Thomson, S.B. (2003:23). Adapted.

#### 2.4.3.6 PRICE AND MUELLER'S (1986) CAUSAL MODEL OF TURNOVER (CMT)

Price and Mueller's (1986) Causal Turnover Model illustrated in Figure 2.20 is a revised model which derives from Price's (1977) and Price and Mueller's (1981) Causal Model. Previous Casual Models claimed that job satisfaction factors such as pay, integration, formal communication, instrumental communication and centralization determine turnover intention, while the influence of job satisfaction on turnover intention is moderated by the perceived job opportunity (Price, 1977; Price and Mueller, 1981). Thus, drawing from the previous models, this Causal Model of Price and Mueller (1986) in Figure 2.20 has revised determinants of job satisfaction and has also included intent to stay as a mediator between satisfaction and turnover intention. In addition, Price and Mueller (1986) have included commitment in the new model. As depicted in Figure 2.20, commitment is portrayed as a mediator between satisfaction and turnover intent. Thus, the Model (Figure 2.20) postulates that turnover intention can be perceived by assessing employees' levels of commitment. However, it depends on the availability of external job offers, as well as on organizational and personal factors such as professionalism and kinship responsibilities. Furthermore, the Causal Model of Turnover (Figure 2.20) shows that employees' levels of commitment are affected by their job satisfaction levels which depend on employees' perceptions on their work conditions such as pay, decentralization and distributive justice.

**FIGURE 2.20 CAUSAL MODEL OF TURNOVER**



**Source:** Thomson, S.B. (2003:21). Adapted.

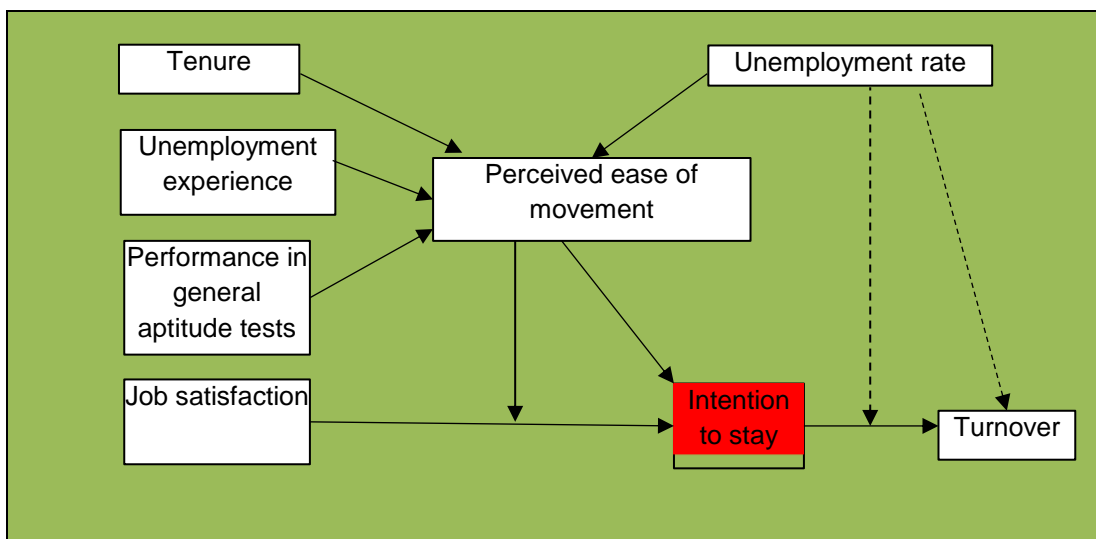
#### 2.4.4 TURNOVER INTENTION MODELS OF THE 1990'S

Gerhart's (1990) Alternative Job Opportunities Model and Hom and Griffeth's (1995) revised alternative linkages model are the most cited turnover intention models in the decennial period between 1990 and 2000.

##### 2.4.4.1 GERHART'S (1990) ALTERNATIVE JOB OPPORTUNITIES MODEL (AJOP)

The Alternative Job Opportunities Model in Figure 2.21 postulates that turnover intention mainly results from job dissatisfaction and from one's assessment of one's chances of success outside of the current job, in other words, the perceived ease of movement. As portrayed in Figure 2.21, this model shows that employees' perceived ease of movement depends on three factors, namely employees' tenure status, the unemployment experience and their performance in general aptitude tests. The Model further claims that the 'perceived ease of movement' in turn leads to intention to stay and subsequently to turnover. The Alternative Job Opportunities Model (Figure 2.21) portrays that the 'perceived ease of movement' mediates between job satisfaction and intention to stay. The employment rate as depicted in the model, below is portrayed to also influence the 'perceived ease of movement'.

**FIGURE 2.21 ALTERNATIVE JOB OPPORTUNITIES MODEL**

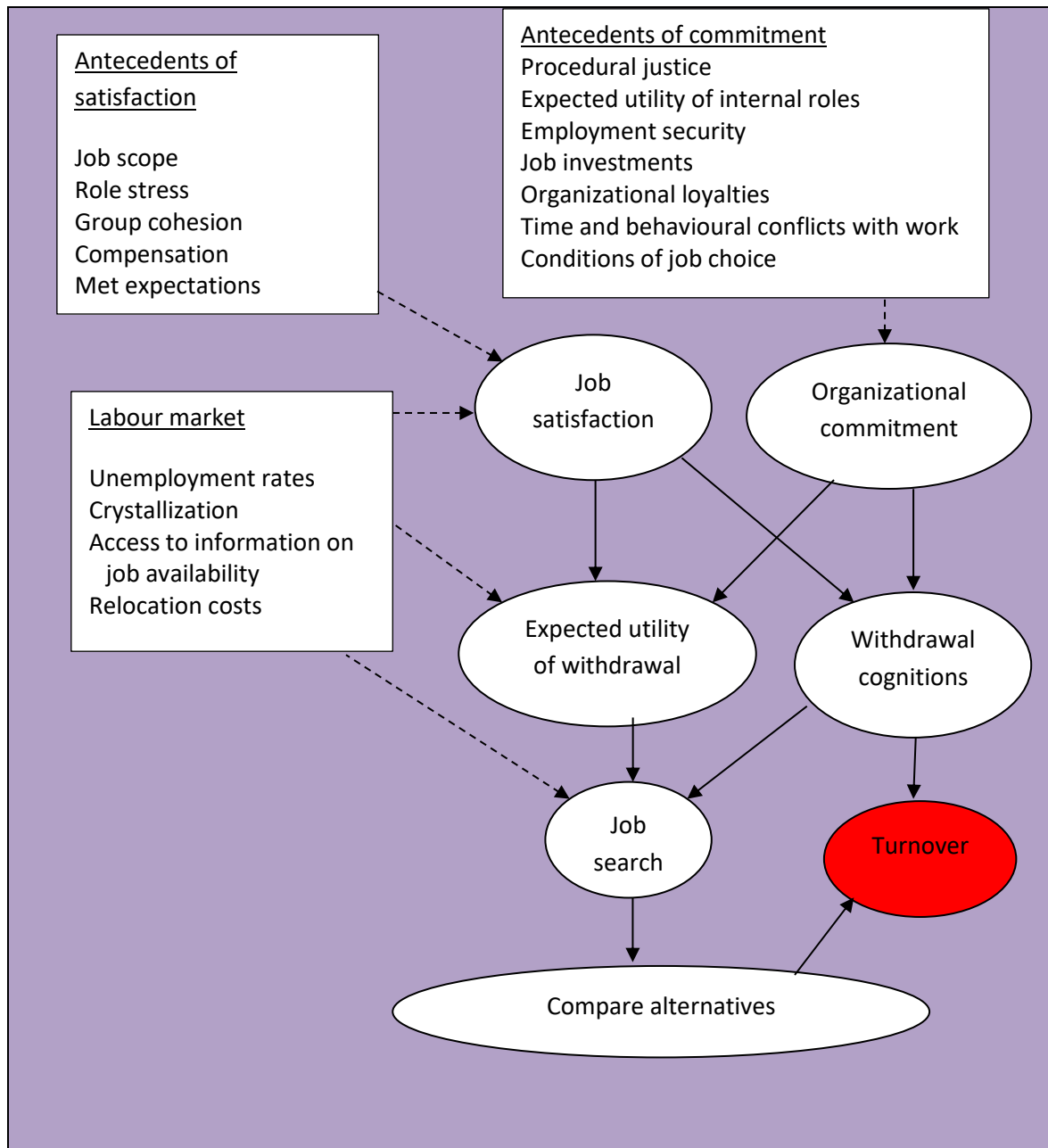


**Source:** Gerhart, B. (1990:36). Adapted.

#### **2.4.4.2 HOM AND GRIFFETH'S (1995) REVISED ALTERNATIVE LINKAGES MODEL OF TURNOVER (RALM)**

In the review of turnover literature, Hom and Griffeth (1995) emphasize that very little is known about turnover phenomena despite of a century of research on turnover. Thus, in the meta-analysis, Hom and Griffeth (1995) as cited by Thomson (2003:24) indicate that the proportion of the variance shared by satisfaction is 3.6% and the proportion shared by intention to leave and actual leaving is 12%. Thus, the Revised Alternative Linkages Model of Turnover illustrated in Figure 2.22 claims that turnover intention mainly results from the interaction of three groups of factors. These factors as presented in Figure 2.22 include antecedents of satisfaction factors, labour market factors and work antecedents of commitment. According to the model in Figure 2.22 below, antecedents of satisfaction encompass role stress and group cohesion, while procedural justice and organizational loyalties are examples of antecedents of commitment. Current unemployment rates and relocation costs are labour market factor examples. The model (Figure 2.22) assumes that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between labour market determinants, withdrawal cognitions and the expected utility of withdrawal, as well as the relationship between antecedents of job satisfaction and withdrawal cognitions (Hom and Griffeth, 1995 as cited by Thomson, 2003:26). As depicted in Figure 2.22, the Model also portrays that organisational commitment is a mediator between antecedents of commitment, withdrawal cognitions and the expected utility of withdrawal. Furthermore, Hom and Griffeth (1995) postulate in their model (Figure 2.22) that both 'expected utility of withdrawal' and 'withdrawal cognitions' firstly lead to a job search, then to the weighing of alternatives and finally, result in turnover. However, withdrawal cognitions also directly lead to turnover (Hom and Griffeth, 1995 as cited by Thomson, 2003:26).

**FIGURE 2.22 REVISED ALTERNATIVE LINKAGES MODEL OF TURNOVER**



**Source:** Thomson, S.B. (2003:25). Adapted.

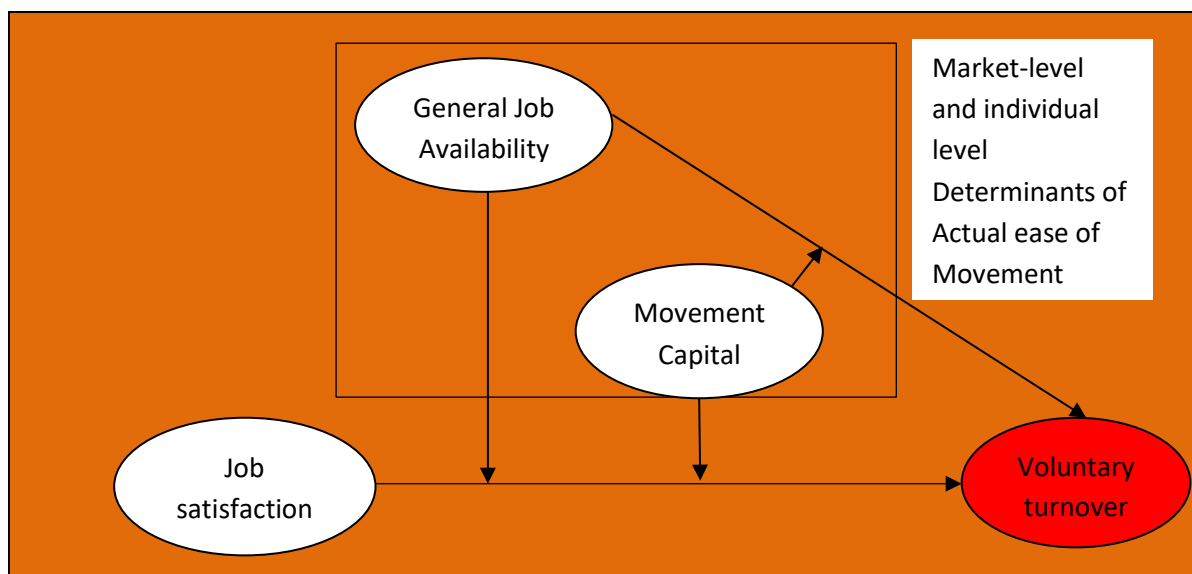
## 2.4.5 TURNOVER INTENTION MODELS AFTER THE YEAR 2000

A review of existing literature on turnover intention reveals that Trevor's (2001) Capital Model of Turnover and Hom, Mitchell, Lee and Griffeth's (2012) Proximal Withdrawal States Destination Model of Turnover are the most cited turnover intention models for the period after the year 2000.

### 2.4.5.1 TREVOR'S (2001) CAPITAL MODEL OF TURNOVER (CMT)

Drawing from the turnover model of March and Simon (1958), the Capital Model of Turnover illustrated in Figure 2.23 hypothesizes that turnover intention mainly results from job dissatisfaction and from an employee's assessment of his or her chances of success outside of the current job in other words, from the perceived ease of movement. Moreover, the Model in Figure 2.23 below assumes that employees' perceived ease of movement simultaneously depends on individual mobility characteristics such as their skills and education (Movement Capital), as well as on the current availability of jobs in the labour market (Trevor, 2001:621; Holtom *et al.*, 2008:255). According to the Capital Model of Turnover (Figure 2.23), job dissatisfaction will result in the turnover of skilled and high performing employees as they have more employment opportunities in the job market (Trevor, 2001:634; Holtom *et al.*, 2008:235).

**FIGURE 2.23 CAPITAL MODEL OF TURNOVER**



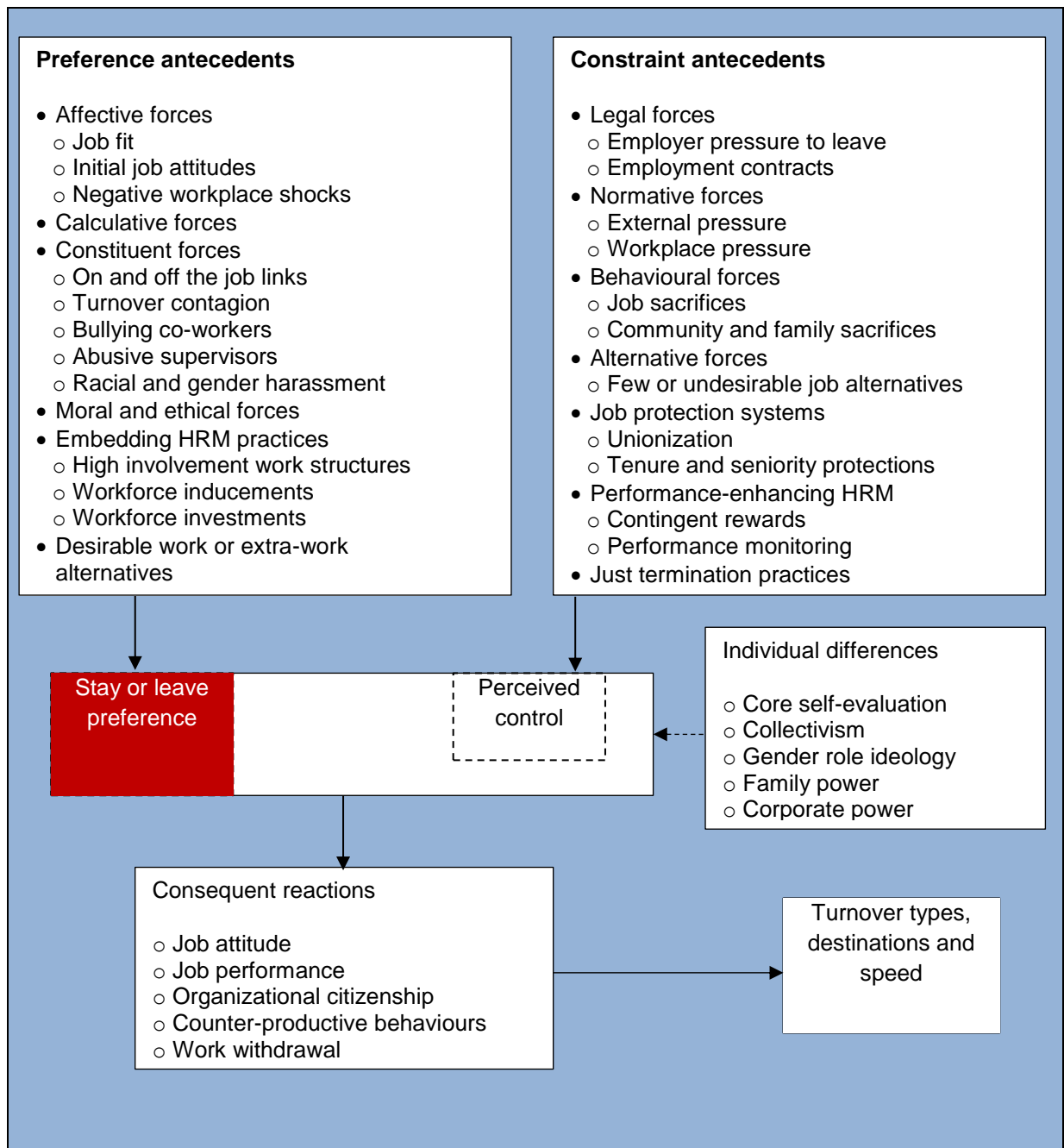
**Source:** Trevor, C.O. (2001:623). Adapted.



#### **2.4.5.2 HOM, *ET AL.*'S (2012) PROXIMAL WITHDRAWAL STATES AND DESTINATIONS MODEL OF TURNOVER**

Drawing from the previous turnover models, the Proximal Withdrawal States and Destinations (PWSD) model illustrated in Figure 2.24 expands the conceptual model of employee turnover to broaden the understanding of organizational participation and withdrawal. Hence, the Proximal Withdrawal States and Destinations model portrayed in Figure 2.24 below includes various types of turnover and destinations. Noting that everyone eventually leaves their organization at some point for one reason or another, Hom, *et al.* (2012:832) point out that individuals differ in their motives, speed and in their destinations when leaving the organisation. The Proximal Withdrawal States and Destinations Model (Figure 2.24) hypothesizes that employees' intention to stay or to leave mainly depends on their assessment of their preferences, as well their individual characteristics in comparison to a given set of constraints (Hom *et al.*, 2012:837). Thus, Figure 2.24 provides a list of preference antecedents that stimulate an employee's intention to leave or to stay. Likewise, different factors that constraint and control the withdrawal state of an employee are shown in Figure 2.24. Hom, *et al.* (2012:837) argue that factors for which employees have the option to decide according to their preferences are spontaneous job offers and abusive supervisors. Additionally, as depicted in the model in Figure 2.24, employment practices and fair termination practices are factors for which employee turnover is highly constrained. The Proximal Withdrawal States and Destinations Model of Turnover (Figure 2.24) also identifies many examples of individual differences that affect employees' intention to stay or to leave. The model (Figure 2.24) concludes that both preference and constraint antecedents lead to proximal withdrawal states, which in turn influence work attitude variables such as work withdrawal, job performance, job search, etc. and subsequently result in turnover.

**FIGURE 2.24 PROXIMAL WITHDRAWAL STATES AND DESTINATIONS MODEL**



**Source:** Brasher, E.E. (2016:38). Adapted.

## **2.5 SUMMARY OF THE REVIEW OF EMPLOYEES' TURNOVER INTENTION MODELS**

The review of the above employees' turnover and turnover intentions models respectively depicts two main categories of theorists: those that develop content models and hypothesize on the reasons or the causes for people deciding to leave their organisation and, in contrast, those that attempt to explain how employees decide to leave their job and propose process models. Even though all these models draw from each other, they differ in the research traditions they represent, in their underlying themes and in their philosophical approaches. According to the literature, early studies on turnover models emphasized the content, but much attention was given later to the process models of Singh and Sharma (2015:2495).

A review of the turnover process models developed by Steel and Lounsbury (2009:271) outline that most turnover models illustrated in the literature tend to follow one of three conceptual approaches: to develop a universal turnover theory, to provide a more limited modal or to specify the unique turnover paths of various sub-populations (Steel and Lounsbury 2009:272). Steel and Lounsbury (2009:272) explain that a universal turnover framework (i.e. Mobley, 1977) provides guidelines that apply to most turnover decisions of all employees, regardless of their unique circumstances or situations. A modal-theory approach, on the other hand, acknowledges the diversity amongst individuals and attempts to describe a "most typical" or "most frequently-occurring" turnover process. Finally, sub-populational turnover frameworks show that turnover processes are different across people in different kinds of situations. Hence, these models avoid generalisation. Thus, the turnover and turnover intention models reviewed in this section are either classified as content or process models of turnover. Furthermore, these conceptual models are drawn from either universal, limited modal or sub-populational approaches.

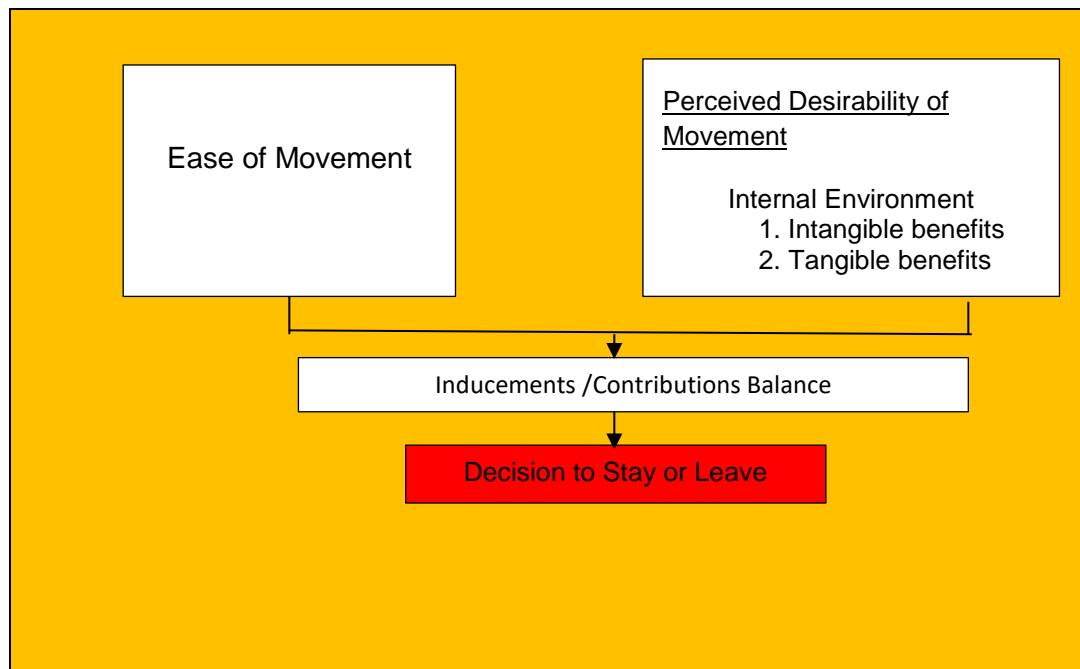
## **2.6 FACULTY TURNOVER INTENTION MODELS**

This section briefly provides a review of existing faculty turnover intention models because of their usefulness for the design of the theoretical model of this study. It is worth noting that there is a paucity of research assessing turnover intentions of expatriate academics (Park, 2015:10). Therefore, the following models may serve as a basis to conceptualise turnover intentions of expatriate academics. The current review presents the faculty turnover intention models proposed by Matier (1990), Smart (1990), Johnsrud and Rosser (2002), Zhou and Volkwein (2004), Rosser and Townsend (2006) and Daly and Dee (2006).

### **2.6.1 MATIER'S (1990) FACULTY TURNOVER INTENTION MODEL**

In the Faculty Turnover Intention Model (Figure 2.25), Matier (1990) portrays the influence that both internal and external environmental factors, as well as the ease of movement, have on employees' turnover decisions. Thus, using a case study of 239 tenure-track faculties at two universities, Matier (1990:41) examined how the Ease of movement; the tangible benefits encompassing variables such as institutional reputation, autonomy, etc; and intangible benefits comprising wages, facilities, work rules and benefits influenced academics' turnover decisions (Matier, 1990 as cited by Park, 2015:18). Therefore, drawing upon previous studies, Matier (1990) claims and portrays in the Faculty Turnover Intention Model (Figure 2.25) that academics decide to stay or to leave their current jobs after having weighed their contributions against available incentives, both in their current jobs and in possible new jobs. The model shown in Figure 2.25 further presents that the assessment of current and alternative jobs depends on employees' perceptions of their ability to easily move from their current job, as well as on the tangible and intangible benefits expected from their internal and external environments.

**FIGURE 2.25 FACULTY TURNOVER INTENTION MODEL**

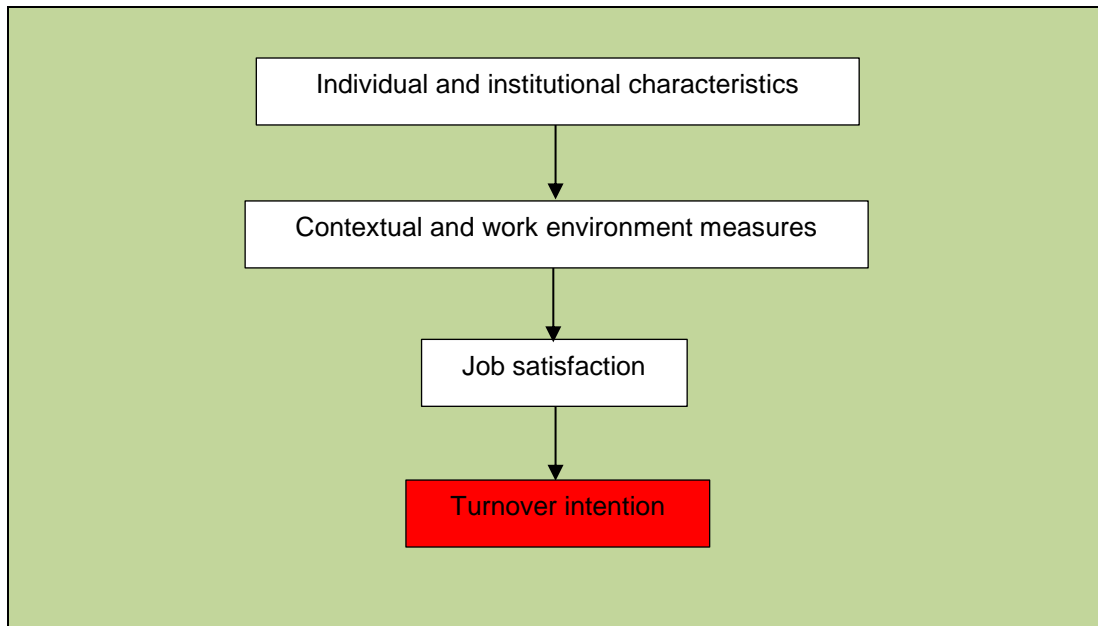


**Source:** Matier, M. (1990:41). Adapted.

### **2.6.2 SMART'S (1990) CAUSAL MODEL OF FACULTY TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Smart's (1990) Causal Model of Faculty Turnover intentions illustrated in Figure 2.26 stems from the model of Mobley, *et al.* (1979) and the model of Porter and Steers (1979). The Causal Model of Faculty Turnover Intentions (Figure 2.26) hypothesizes that academics decide to stay or to leave their current jobs based on their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their current jobs. Thus, in the attempt to explain academic turnover intentions, Smart (1990) claims that there are at least three sets of variables that mediate through satisfaction to explain turnover intentions amongst academics (Daly and Dee, 2006:779; Al-Omari and Qablan, 2008:27). As depicted in Figure 2.26, these factors include individual characteristics such as demographics and institutional factors; contextual factors referring to individual stature and work adjustment; and external condition that influence individual job satisfaction (Smart, 1990 as cited by Zhou, 2003:37; Al-Omari and Qablan, 2008:27).

**FIGURE 2.26 CAUSAL MODEL OF FACULTY TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

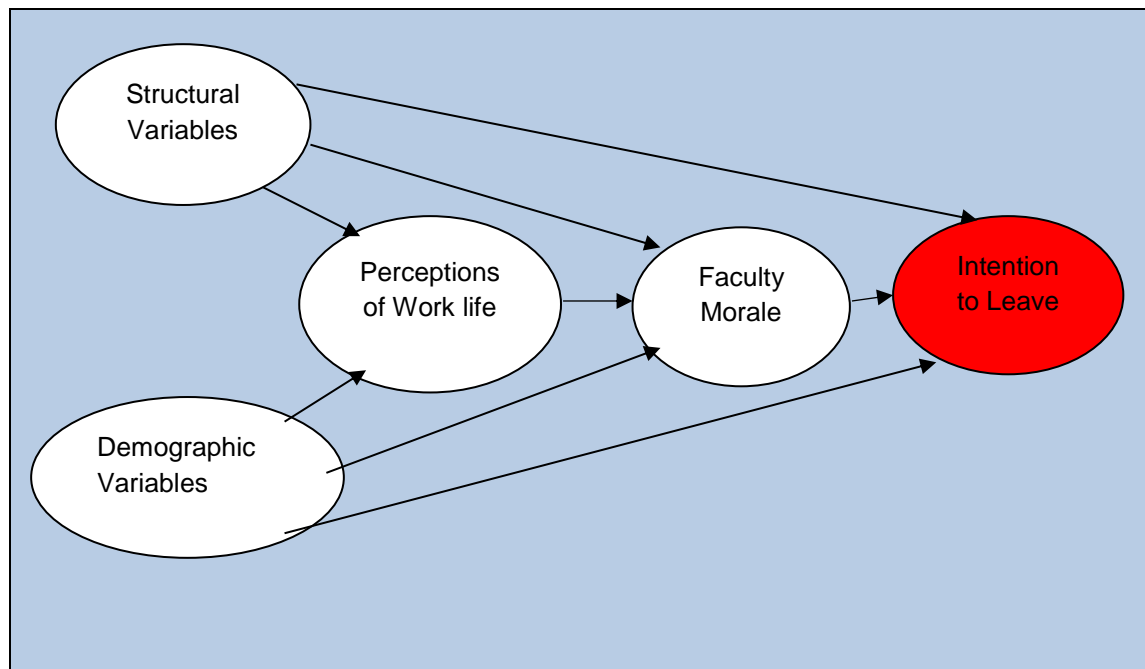


**Source:** Smart, J.C. (1990:410). Adapted.

### **2.6.3 JOHNSRUD AND ROSSER'S (2002) MULTILEVEL STRUCTURAL MODEL**

The Multilevel Structural Model proposed by Johnsrud and Rosser (2002:528) in Figure 2.27 examines the effect of workplace variables and morale on turnover intent (Johnsrud and Rosser, 2002:527; Zhou, 2003:35; Daly and Dee, 2006:779). Thus, The Multilevel Structural Model illustrated in Figure 2.27 hypothesizes that academics decide to stay or to leave their current jobs after having taken into account demographic factors; structural factors such as institutional type and discipline; and perception of work life (i.e. professional priorities, rewards, administrative relations, support, etc). As depicted in Figure 2.27, Johnsrud and Rosser (2002:528) also portray that structural variables and demographics influence academics' perceptions of work life, then their morale and consequently result in intentions to leave.

**FIGURE 2.27 MULTILEVEL STRUCTURAL MODEL**

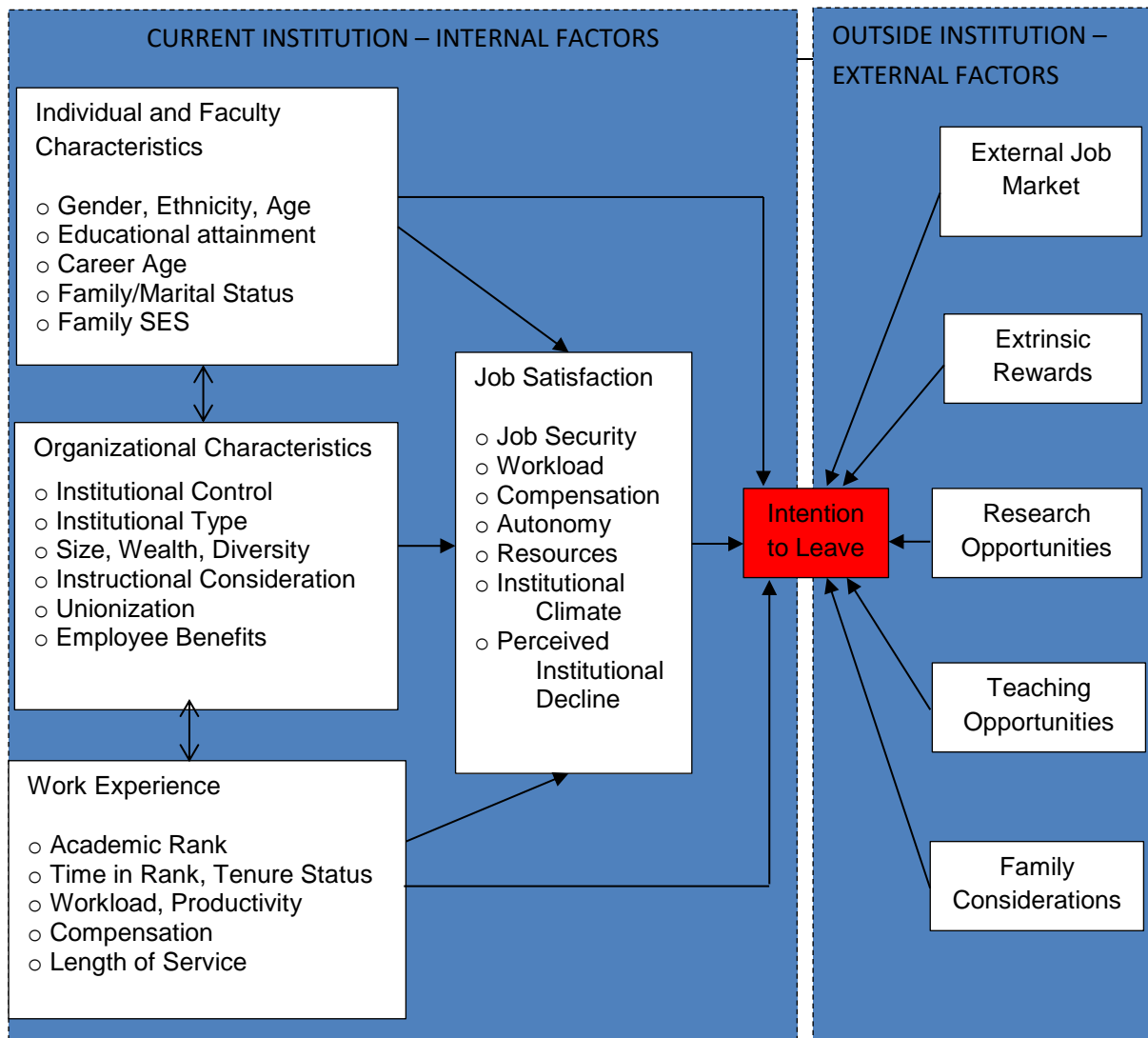


**Source:** Johnsrud, L.K. and Rosser, V.J. (2002:528). Adapted.

#### **2.6.4 ZHOU AND VOLKWEIN'S (2004) FACULTY TURNOVER INTENTION MODEL**

Drawing on the framework of Price (1977), Zhou and Volkwein (2004) extended Smart's (1990) Causal Model by using data from the National Survey of Post-secondary Faculty (abbreviated NSOPF-99) (Daly and Dee, 2006:780; Al-Omari and Qablan, 2008:29). The Faculty Turnover Intention Model presented in Figure 2.28 hypothesizes that academics decide to stay or to leave their current jobs after having taken into account their demographic characteristics, i.e. gender, age, marital status etc.; the characteristics of their organization, including their work experience, their levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their current jobs; and the availability of opportunities on the job market. As presented in Figure 2.28, Zhou and Volkwein (2004:14) further explain that external factors also influence academics' intentions to leave their current institution. These external factors include the state of the market, extrinsic rewards, teaching opportunities and family considerations.

**FIGURE 2.28 FACULTY TURNOVER INTENTION MODEL**



**Source:** Zhou, Y. and Volkwein, J.F. (2004:146). Adapted.

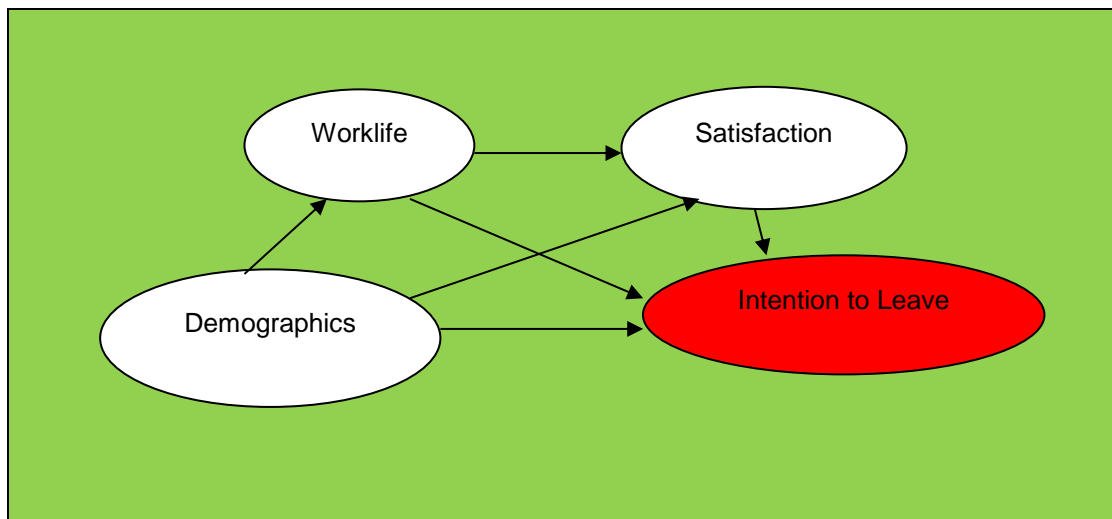
### 2.6.5 ROSSER AND TOWNSEND'S (2006) EMPIRICAL MODEL OF FACULTY'S INTENT TO LEAVE

Rosser and Townsend's (2006) Empirical Model of Faculty's Intent to Leave depicted in Figure 2.29 drew upon Herzberg's (1966) work to create its multidimensional constructs. The model (Figure 2.29) assesses the effect of worklife and demographics on academics' job satisfaction and turnover intent. The Empirical Model of Faculty's Intent to Leave also examines the impact of faculty members' job satisfaction on turnover intentions. This model (Figure 2.29) therefore assumes that academics decide to stay or to leave their current jobs after having considered their



demographic characteristics, their perceptions on the quality of their work life, as well as their levels or satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their current jobs.

**FIGURE 2.29 EMPIRICAL MODEL OF FACULTY'S INTENT TO LEAVE**



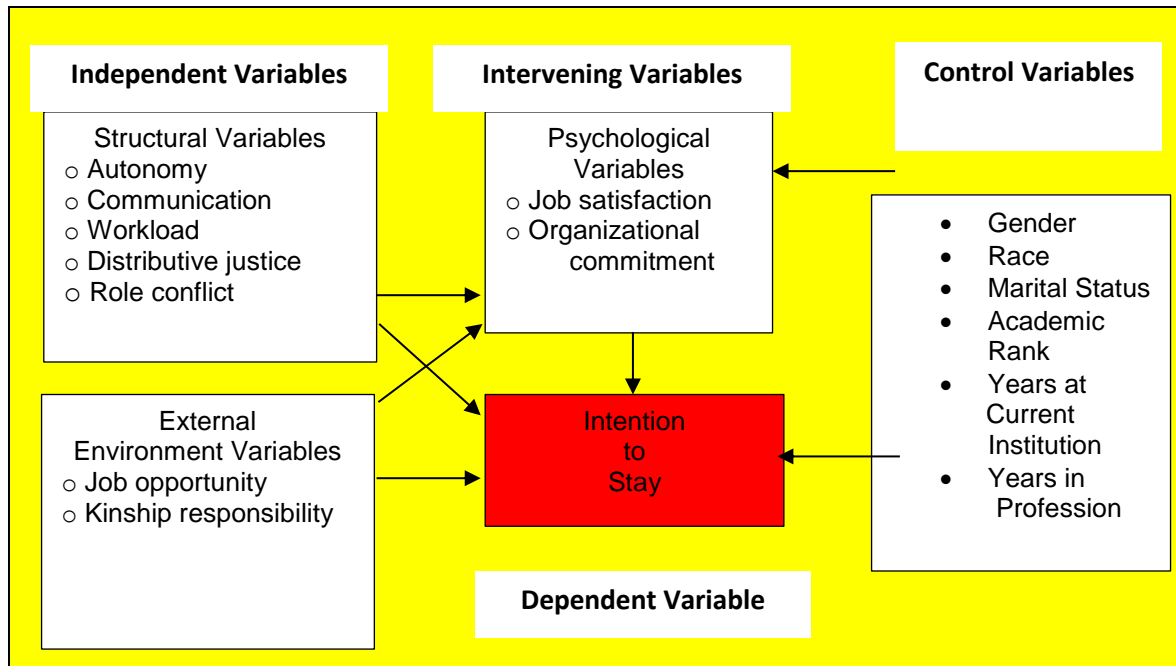
**Source:** Rosser, V.J. and Townsend, B.K. (2006:129). Adapted.

#### **2.6.6 DALY AND DEE'S (2006) CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR INTENT TO STAY**

Daly and Dee's (2006) Conceptual Model for Intent to Stay is conceptualised based on the previous model, using variables and measures from Price's (1977) Causal Model. Daly and Dee (2006:780) examine the relationship between academics' work environment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions. Thus, the Conceptual Model for Intent to Stay (Figure 2.30) presents three sets of variables which influence academics' intentions to stay. As shown in Figure 2.30, these variables include independent variables (structural and external environment variables); intervening variables comprising psychological variables such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment; and control variables such as gender, academic rank and professional experience (Daly and Dee, 2006:780). In sum, Daly and Dee (2006:780) explain that academics decide to stay or to leave their current jobs after having taken into account their demographic characteristics; their internal and external work environments, for example in terms of distributive justice and job opportunities; their work commitment levels; and their levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their current jobs. Daly and Dee (2006:780) further contend that academics may also decide to remain in their current institutions although they are not satisfied provided that there are alternative job opportunities or because of family

responsibilities constraining mobility (Daly and Dee, 2006:780). Conversely, Daly and Dee (2006:780) also postulate that academics may decide to depart even though they are satisfied and highly committed to their institutions if they have better job opportunities.

**FIGURE 2.30 CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR INTENT TO STAY**



**Source:** Daly, C.J. and Dee, J.R. (2006:781). Adapted.

## 2.7 CONCEPTUALISATION OF TALENT RETENTION

Retaining high-skilled and potential employees is one of the challenges facing many competitive organisations. Kusnin and Rasdi (2014:341) point out that retaining talent is not an easy task as it requires effective human resource management strategies and practices. Thus, the purpose of this section is to briefly delineate the concepts of talent retention and present some existing talent retention models that appear useful for the design of the conceptual framework of this study. Bearing in mind that expatriate academics are amongst talented individuals, the literature contends that the inadequate management of talent may influence intentions to leave the organisation (Zahra *et al.*, 2013:85; Akhtar *et al.*, 2016:655).

### **2.7.1 DELINEATION AND IMPORTANCE OF EMPLOYEE RETENTION**

Scholars provide different denotations on the concept of retention. Sohail, Muneer, Tanveer and Tariq (2011:897) define retention as “an important ongoing process in which the organisation retains the employee for the maximum period of time until the completion of the project”. For Abduljlil AL Damoe, Yazam and Ahmid (2012:76), it is a voluntary process in which an organisation avails an environment that stimulates and promotes people to remain with the organisation for a longer period. Cascio (2003) as cited by Mahal (2012:38) refers to retention as "initiatives taken by management to keep employees from leaving the organization, such as rewarding employees for performing their jobs effectively, ensuring harmonious working relations between employees and managers, and maintaining a safe and healthy work environment". However, the importance of employee retention is emphasized in the literature, particularly in terms of turnover-related costs. Various scholars postulate that turnover is costly in term of social and financial loss, recruitment and training costs and it affects the morale of remaining employees (Zahra *et al.*, 2013:85; Akhtar *et al.*, 2016:655). Finding strategies to retain key employees seems to be vital to counter turnover intentions and turnover phenomena. Thus, Maertz and Campion (1998) as cited by Das and Baruah (2013:8) point out that “relatively less turnover research has focused specifically on how an employee decides to remain with an organization and what determines this attachment...retention processes should be studied along with quitting processes”. This implies that the study of employee retention is crucial to overcome turnover.

### **2.7.2 TALENT DEFINED**

There is no unanimity of what constitutes ‘talent’. Some organisations refer to talent as top performing employees. Other organisations classify them as employees with high potential. For others, they are those employees who possess skills (Bussin, 2014:46). Bussin (2014:46) defines talent as “those individuals who make a difference to organisational performance, either through their immediate contribution or, in the longer-term, by demonstrating the highest levels of potential”. Given that this research focusses on expatriate academics that are perceived as talented employees, this study delineates ‘talent’ as those high-performing employees with scarce and specialised skills.

## 2.8 TALENT RETENTION MODELS

Scholars have attributed many causes to the challenges of retaining talent. These include, *inter alia*, high competition, globalisation that has facilitated the mobility of people, the shrinkage of talent pools, and ineffective talent attraction and retention strategies (Ashraf and Joarder, 2010:165; Kusni and Rasdi, 2014:341). Therefore, talent retention models were developed by the above-mentioned scholars in their attempts to propose strategies for the retention of high-skilled employees. Thus, the talent retention models reviewed in this section are from Ready, Hill and Conger (2008), Ashraf and Joarder (2010); Botha, Bussin and de Swardt (2011); Kusnin and Rasdi (2014); and Kontoghiorghes (2016).

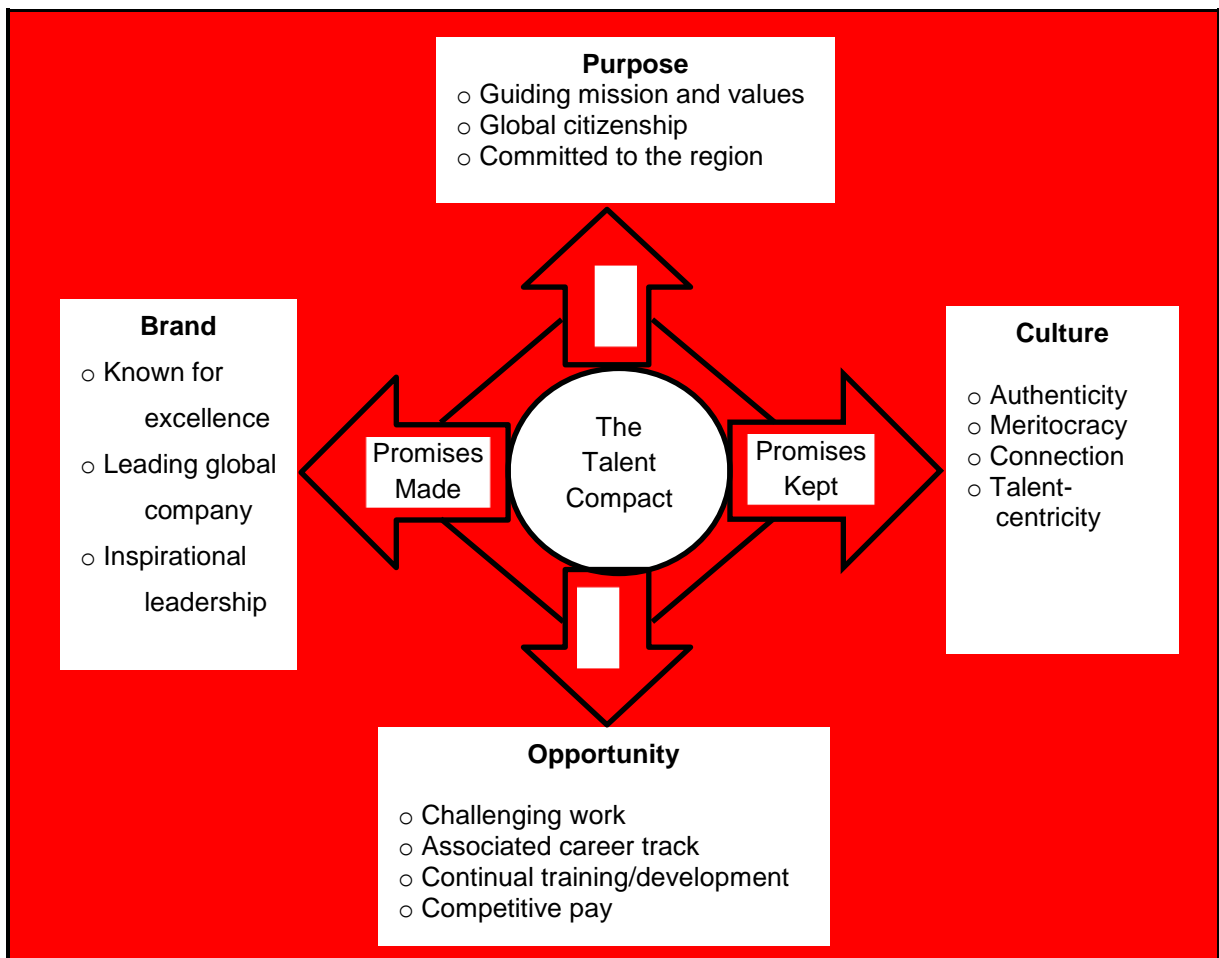
### 2.8.1 READY, *ET AL.*'S (2008) FRAMEWORK FOR ATTRACTING AND RETAINING TALENT

In "Winning the Race for Talent in Emerging Markets", Ready, *et al.* (2008:1) propose in their framework presented in Figure 2.31 ways in which organisations can acquire and retain talented employees in emerging markets. They firstly stress that in emerging markets, talented employees both in the developed and the developing world chase after opportunities and that high potential and talented employees "do not focus exclusively on climbing the ladder. However, they are willing to make lateral moves as long as their skills and experience accrue at a pace that matches the growth in their markets" (Ready *et al.*, 2008:3). Thus, as portrayed in Figure 2.31, Ready, *et al.* (2008:4) posit that in order to attract and retain talented employees, organisations must:

- clearly showcase their purpose, their mission, vision and values, both as a global organisation and as a key local player;
- strongly commit themselves to the culture of authenticity, meritocracy, connectivity and talent-centricity;
- extensively brand the excellence of products, services, staff and leadership, as well as be prime in the global race for excellence;
- consistently provide growth opportunities to staff in terms of competitive pay, challenging work and career development; and
- always keep their promises" (Ready *et al.*, 2008:4).

Ready, *et al.* (2008:3) further emphasize the impact of the culture of the organisation on attracting and retaining talent in emerging markets when advising that the story, or brand promise of the organisation, has to be perceived as authentic. According to Ready, *et al.* (2008:3), employees must also be rewarded accordingly, and they should feel a connection with their teams. Likewise, the culture of the organisation should be truly 'talent-centric' for employees to know that they are valued and important to the organisation's success.

**FIGURE 2.31 FRAMEWORK FOR ATTRACTING AND RETAINING TALENT**

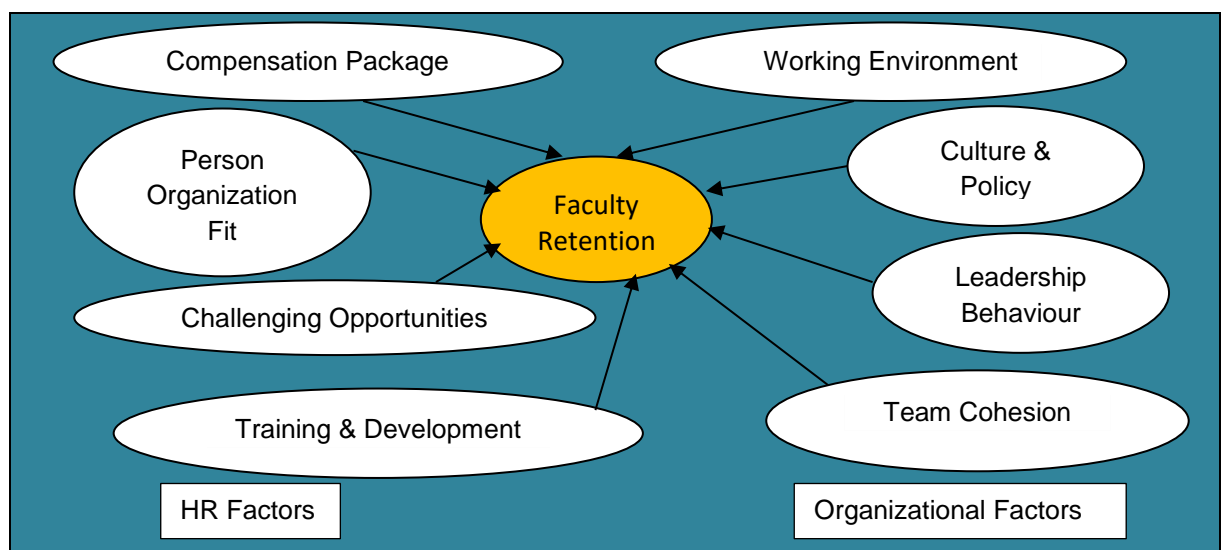


**Source:** Ready, D.A., Hill, L.A. and Conger, J.A. (2008:4). Adapted.

### 2.8.2 ASHRAF AND JOARDER'S (2010) TALENT RETENTION MODEL

In their assessment of current human capital retention practices from the academic point of view, Ashraf and Joarder (2010) emphasize the vital and strategic role that Human Resource Management must play in this era of the knowledge-based economy in order to retain key employees. Ashraf and Joarder (2010:165) therefore acknowledge, along with other scholars, that human capital is regarded as one of the key resources for the success of the organisation in today's competitive knowledge-based "flat world". Ashraf and Joarder (2010:166) point out that the scarcity and the switching of jobs are trends not only in private organisations, but also in Universities. Thus, Ashraf and Joarder's (2010) model as illustrated in Figure 2.32 below postulates that there are two sets of factors that can help organisations in their talent retention efforts. These factors include organisational factors and human resources (HR) related factors. According to Ashraf and Joarder (2010:171), *organisational factors* as portrayed in Figure 2.32 include leadership behaviour, team cohesion, working conditions and the organisation's culture and policies. Likewise, *human resources related factors* depicted in Figure 2.32 encompass training and development, the availability of challenging opportunities, attractive compensation packages and the reinforcement of staff fitness within the organization. Ashraf and Joarder (2010:172) further maintain that the above organisational and human factors influence employees' decisions to either leave or stay in the organisation.

**FIGURE 2.32 TALENT RETENTION MODEL**

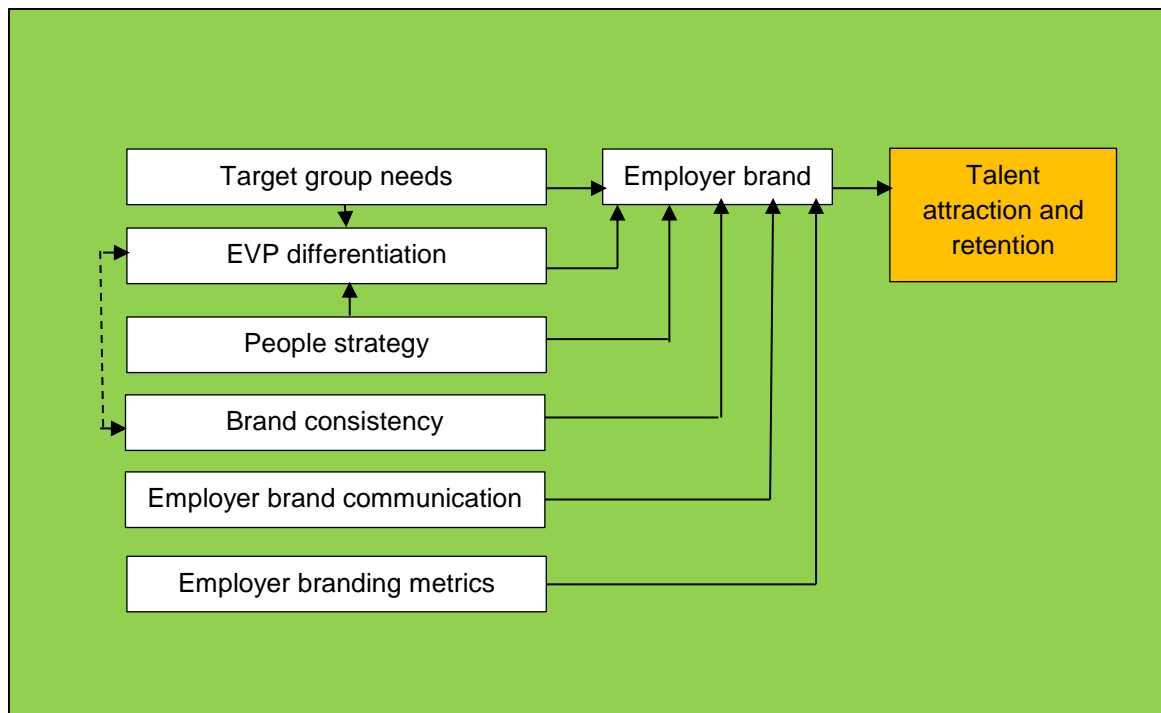


**Source:** Ashraf, M. and Joarder, M.H.R. (2010:171). Adapted.

### 2.8.3 BOTHA, *ET AL.*'S (2011) EMPLOYER BRAND PREDICTIVE MODEL

According to Botha, *et al.* (2011:2), high competition, the volatile talent-demand equation and a decrease in the talent pool are some of the challenges facing today's organisations. Therefore, the Employer Brand Predictive Model presented in Figure 2.33 is perceived as the core mechanism that can predict and sustain the talent attraction and retention efforts of organizations (Botha, *et al.* (2011:4). Botha, *et al.* (2011:4) contend that branding should start with the identification of a target group of talented employees to formulate a people strategy, as well as a value proposition for that group. As illustrated in Figure 2.33, Botha, *et al.* (2011:4) further argue that effective branding should be consistent and should contain a clear communication strategy, as well as relevant branding metrics that will enable the attraction and retention of talented employees.

**FIGURE 2.33 EMPLOYER BRAND PREDICTIVE MODEL**

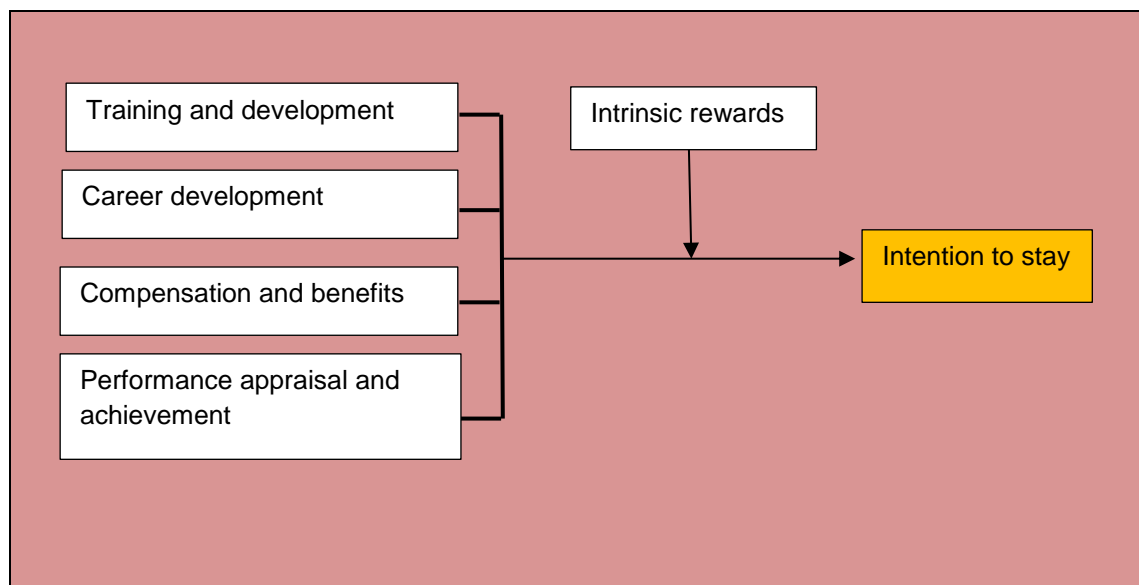


**Source:** Botha, A., Bussin, M. and de Swardt, L. (2011:10). Adapted.

#### 2.8.4 KUSNIN AND RASDI'S (2014) PROPOSED MODEL OF TALENT RETENTION

Drawing on the previous studies on talent retention and on the Social Exchange Theory proposed by Blau (1964) which promotes the idea of social interaction between employers and employees, Kusnin and Rasdi (2014:342) proposed a Talent Retention Model (Figure 2.34) for highly skilled employees, especially from developing countries. In doing so, they identified four factors that can help retain highly skilled employees in organisations as depicted in Figure 2.34 below. These factors include training and development; career development opportunities; the availability of attractive compensation and benefits; and fair performance appraisal and achievement systems (Kusnin and Rasdi, 2014:343). Furthermore, they claim that the availability of intrinsic rewards is an important moderator on the impact of the above identified four factors on talent retention (Kusnin and Rasdi, 2014:343). In other words, the intrinsic rewards arising within an employee moderate the influence of the four factors shown in Figure 2.34 on intention to stay.

**FIGURE 2.34 THE PROPOSED MODEL OF TALENT RETENTION**



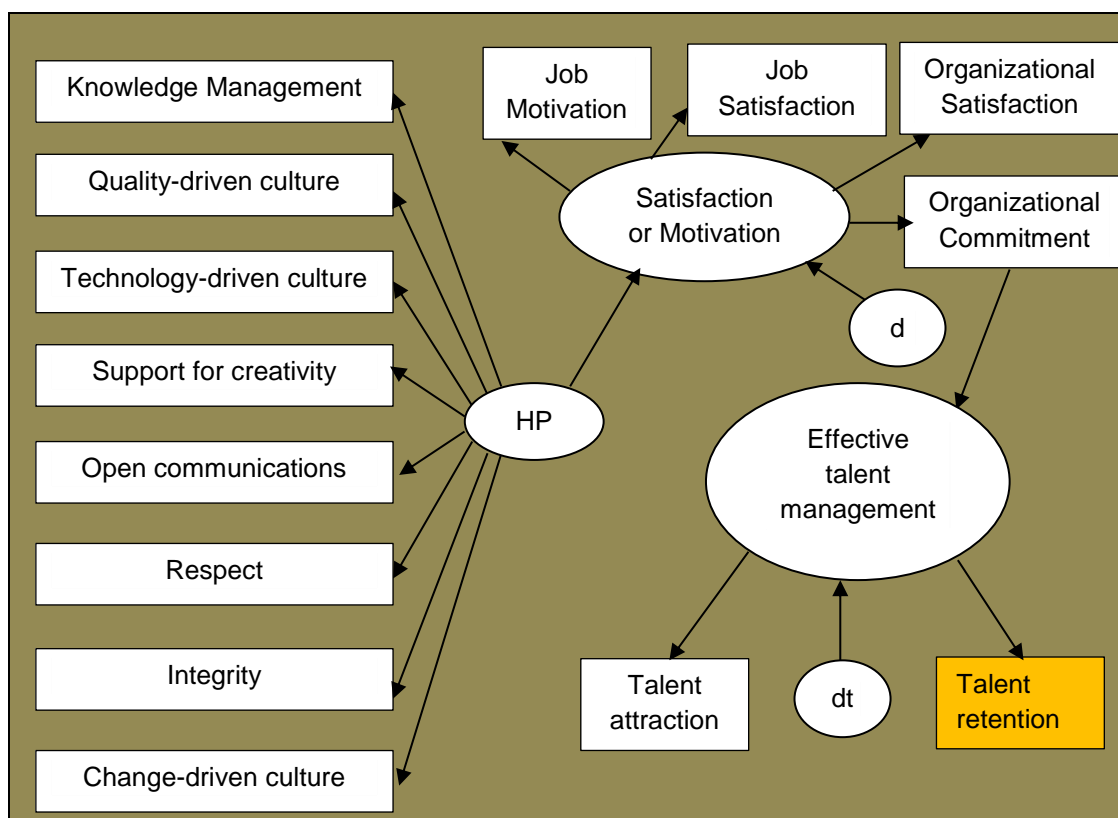
**Source:** Kusnin, N. and Rasdi, R.M. (2014:345). Adapted.



## 2.8.5 KONTOGHIORGHES' (2016) TALENT ATTRACTION AND RETENTION MODEL

In his study that aims at advancing talent management theory by testing the effects of organizational culture and employee attitudes on talent attraction and retention, Kontoghiorghes (2016:1836) assumes that effective talent management is the main strategy that can sustain the talent attraction and retention efforts of organizations. Thus, in this Talent Attraction and Retention Model presented in Figure 2.35, Kontoghiorghes (2016:1836) identifies eight characteristics determining highly performing organizations. These characteristics as illustrated in Figure 2.35 include a knowledge-driven culture; a quality-driven culture; a technology-driven culture; open lines of communication; a change-driven culture; a culture that promotes creativity; and a culture of respect and integrity (Kontoghiorghes, 2016:1838). Kontoghiorghes (2016:1836) postulates that the above eight characteristics have more potential to attract and retain talented employees. The model (Figure 2.35) further portrays that commitment derives from employees' satisfaction and motivation with their jobs and with their organisations (Kontoghiorghes, 2016:1838).

**FIGURE 2.35 TALENT ATTRACTION AND RETENTION MODEL**



**Source:** Kontoghiorghes, C. (2016:1839). Adapted.

## **2.9 CONCLUSION**

This chapter provided an exhaustive presentation of the main theories and models developed and used by existing research on turnover intention and on talent retention. These models are general turnover intention models, although some of them impact on the turnover intention of academics at universities. However, most of the general turnover intention models are quite classical, as indicated by the dates of their initial evolution of these paradigms. Most academic turnover intention models are more recent, but not as recent as the talent attraction and retention models that are currently applied in most organisations. The next chapter highlights how these theories and models are used as best-fit by existing empirical studies on turnover intention and talent retention, with a focus on expatriate employees, on academics and on expatriate academics.

## **CHAPTER 3**

# **EMPIRICAL REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ON THE PREDICTORS OF TURNOVER INTENTIONS OF ACADEMICS AND EXPATRIATES**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

Due to the nature of expatriate academics, the work context, the dearth of research on turnover intention and the limited literature on expatriate academics, this chapter intends to present empirical studies from existing literature on the determinants of turnover intentions for two different categories of employees, namely faculty members or academics and expatriates. Given that expatriate academics fall into the category of two different types of employees, it is assumed that studies of these two types of employees will provide a platform in the design of a conceptual framework of the predictors of expatriate academics' turnover intentions. It is however worth noting that each of these categories of employees has its own dedicated section in this chapter, which firstly presents the existing literature on turnover intentions, and ends with the design of a composite conceptual framework of turnover intention factors. In addition, the years of the publication of the studies are presented, followed by the countries in which these studies were conducted. The research theories, instruments and models backing up these studies are highlighted, followed by a summary of the major findings of the literature review on the predictors of turnover intentions. The chapter ends with a brief conclusion highlighting the key points.

### **3.2 ACADEMICS' CONTEXT**

The 21st century is driven by a knowledge-based economy which is influenced by globalisation, an ever-changing technological and economic environment. In order to meet these challenges, organisations need a competent and reliable workforce. Hence, higher education institutions have a crucial role to play in a modern world driven by economic development. Higher education institutions are considered as the centre where technical and intellectual knowledge are imparted, acquired and

transferred to society (Mubarak, Wahab and Khan, 2012:66). Academics add value in transferring this knowledge to the successful future of students, institutions and the economy as a whole. Consequently, any contributing factors that can impede expatriate academics' well-being and spark their intention to leave must be prevented.

### **3.2.1 GENERAL ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTION**

Several scholars have reported the detrimental effects of voluntary turnover on organizations (Zahra *et al.*, 2013:85; Akhtar *et al.*, 2016:655) and on Academic Institutions (Kim, 2015:139). However, despite a plethora of research on voluntary turnover, preventing people from leaving their organization is still a huge challenge for many organizations. Studying turnover seems to be a more reactive approach to addressing the problem as it concerns those employees who have already left the organization. Scholars have attributed countless causes with suggested solutions to counter voluntary turnover, hence the focus on turnover intention as one of the strategies related to retention. Scholars assume that conducting research on the turnover intentions phenomenon is a proactive approach to counter voluntary turnover as it can yield more accurate results on why people leave their organisations (Kaur *et al.*, 2013:1221; Rizwan *et al.*, 2014:4).

### **3.2.2 FACTORS AFFECTING GENERAL ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Contemporary studies on turnover intention have highlighted concurring views by Smart (1990:408), Matier (1990:41), Johnsrud and Rosser (2002:528), Zhou and Volkwein (2004:14), Rosser and Townsend (2006:129), and Daly and Dee (2006:781) that academics' turnover intentions are influenced by various factors including demographics (Awong, Ibrahim, Nor, Razah, Arof and Rahman, 2015:24; Regassa and John, 2016:89); working conditions (Ibrahim and Perez, 2014:46; Ahmed, 2015:14); perceived organizational support (Regassa and John, 2016:90); academics' level of satisfaction with their jobs and institutions (Robyn and Du Preez, 2013:13; Jalees and Ghauri, 2016:17); academics' level of commitment towards their institutions (Joarder and Sharif, 2012:62; Ahmed, 2015:19); and the perceived job opportunities in the labour market (Nyamubarwa, 2013:87). The empirical studies of some of these factors are discussed below.

### **3.2.2.1 DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND GENERAL ACADEMICS TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

The term 'demographics' usually refers to specific characteristics of a population under study. For Kaur (2013:37), demographics are characteristics or attributes of subjects that are gathered to describe the sample. Demographics generally include factors such as age, gender, occupation, ethnicity, seniority, position, tenure, health status, salary levels, marital and family status, etc. The review of the literature on academics reveals that demographics may also include variables pertaining to academics such as Academic rank, Discipline type and generation (Tourangeau *et al.*, 2013:5). The following characteristics are discussed in clusters, i.e. personal demographics and professional demographics.

#### **3.2.2.1.1 EFFECT OF PERSONAL DEMOGRAPHICS ON ACADEMIC EMPLOYEES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Personal demographics encompass those characteristics pertaining to an individual. These characteristics include, *inter alia*, age, gender, nationality, ethnicity, marital and family status, health status and generation. The influences of the above personal demographics on academic employees' turnover intentions are presented in the empirical studies below.

- **AGE, NATIONALITY AND ETHNICITY**

Many scholars found no correlation between demographics such as age, nationality and ethnicity with academics' turnover intentions (Xu, 2008:607; Popoli, Krupat, Ash and Brennan, 2012:859; Awong *et al.*, 2015:24; Regassa and John, 2016:89). By contrast, some scholars found that age has an influence on academics' turnover intentions (Chunghtai and Zafar, 2006:41). In fact, in their assessment on the effects of personal characteristics, job satisfaction and organizational commitment on the turnover intentions of 125 faculty members from 33 Universities in Pakistan, Chunghtai and Zafar (2006:41) found a negative correlation between age and turnover intentions. The negative correlation suggested that as academics grew older, the less they intended to leave their organization. Likewise, Hsieh, Lee and Lo (2009:53) reported a negative correlation between age group and academics' turnover intentions in a study conducted on 333 Science, Technology, Engineering

and Mathematics (STEM) staff in both private and public institutions in Taiwan. The influence of age group was also revealed in a study conducted by Dhanapal, Hwa, Manickam, Vashu and Alwie (2013:69) in their investigation of the trends and reasons for job-hopping amongst 100 Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y academicians in private institution in Malaysia. Dhanapal, *et al.*'s (2013:69) study concluded that all three age groups significantly related to academics' turnover intentions. However, a positive correlation was recorded for Baby Boomers, a moderate correlation for Generation X and a weak correlation for Generation Y and academics' turnover intentions.

- **MARITAL STATUS AND GENERAL ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Various scholars indicated that demographics such as marital and family status and having dependents seem to have no effect on faculty members' turnover intention (Zhou and Volkwein, 2004:147; Chughtai and Zafar, 2006:4; Xu, 2008:607; Ryan, Healy and Sullivan, 2009:4). However, a study conducted amongst 650 faculty nurses in Ontario by Tourangeau, Saari, Patterson, Ferron, Thomson, Widger and Macmillan (2013:2) found that having family dependents negatively affected faculty nurses' intentions to remain in their institutions. Tourangeau, *et al.*'s (2013:2) findings revealed that faculty nurses who had dependent family members were inclined to remain at their institutions. In other words, having dependents deterred faculty nurses' intent to quit. In addition, Tourangeau, *et al.* (2013:2) found that the health status of the faculty nurses did not correlate with their intention to remain in their institutions.

- **GENDER AND GENERAL ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

The predictive effect of gender on academics' intentions to leave was reviewed in the literature. Scholars found that gender had a strong relationship with academics' turnover intentions. Moreover, studies revealed that female academics had higher turnover intentions as compared to male academics (Xu, 2008:616; Noor, 2011:243; Hundera, 2014:57). Thus, despite the under-representation of women in the Faculty of Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM), Xu's (2008:616) study indicated that male and female academics both had intentions to leave their institution, but turnover intentions were more significant for female academics. Similarly, a study by Noor (2011:243) found a positive correlation between gender and turnover when investigating the perceived work-life balance satisfaction amongst 1078 academics working in three public universities in Malaysia. Furthermore, Noor's (2011:243) study also revealed that female academics had a higher propensity to leave than male academics (Noor, 2011:243). Likewise, when examining the determinants of turnover intentions and the moderating effect of gender amongst 112 academic staff at Hamaraya University in Ethiopia, Hundera (2014:57) recorded not only a strong correlation between gender and turnover intentions, but also the fact that female academics had a stronger desire to leave than their male counterparts.

### **3.2.2.1.2 THE IMPACT OF PROFESSIONAL DEMOGRAPHICS ON GENERAL ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Professional demographics are characteristics pertaining to the skills, abilities and competencies of individuals in the work context. Popoli, *et al.* (2012:853) describe professional demographics as the qualification obtained, the tenure position, the position or the rank and the status that one holds in the work context, as well as the years of experience acquired in one's profession. A review of the literature presents contrasting findings regarding the professional demographics of academics. Some scholars hold the view that individual characteristics predict academics' turnover intentions, whilst others posit that individual characteristics had no influence on the decision to leave (Ryan *et al.*, 2009:15).

- **ACADEMIC RANK AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Concerning the relationship between position and rank in the institution with academic turnover intentions, a study by Ryan, *et al.* (2009:15) revealed no correlation between the rank and position of academics with turnover intention when assessing the predictors of faculty intent to leave at a Public Research University in the Midwestern United States. On the contrary, various scholars cited the influence of position or academic rank on turnover intentions. Thus, Xu's (2008:617) study conducted on 'Gender Disparity in STEM Disciplines' found that the higher the academic rank, the lower the turnover intention of academics. In other words, higher academic rank decreases turnover intentions amongst academics in STEM discipline. Likewise, Awang, *et al.* (2015:30) found a positive correlation between academics who held junior positions or ranks and turnover intention in a study investigating the impact of academic and organization factors on turnover intentions. A positive correlation suggested that academics holding the rank of junior lecturer had a high intent to leave. Similarly, Popoli, *et al.*'s (2012:863) study revealed that academics who held the position of educators were less likely to leave than those who held the role of researchers. However, Zhou and Volkwein (2004:16) found contrasting results when examining the influence of faculty departure intentions between tenured and non-tenured academics. Their study concluded that non-tenured academics with high rank or position were likely to leave their institution, while high academic rank did not influence the turnover intention of tenured academics (Zhou and Volkwein, 2004:16).

- **ACADEMIC EMPLOYEES' QUALIFICATIONS AND INTENTION TO LEAVE**

With regard to the influence of academics' qualifications on their intention to leave, many scholars found no relationship between academics' level of qualification and turnover intentions (Chughtai and Zafar, 2006:52; Noor, 2011:243; Popoli *et al.*, 2012:864; Tourangeau *et al.*, 2013:6; Regassa and John, 2016:89). On the contrary, the study by Zhou and Volkwein (2004:28) found that tenured academics with Doctoral degrees had high turnover intentions; and high intention to leave was also associated with non-tenured academics with Masters degrees or less.



- **ACADEMICS' EXPERIENCE AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

The seniority, experience or the number of years in the institution was found to have a great influence on academics' turnover intentions (Chughtai and Zafar, 2006:52; Xu, 2008:617; Ryan *et al.*, 2009:15). Likewise, Zhou and Volkwein (2004:28) emphasized that seniority was a stronger predictor of turnover intention for both tenured and non-tenured academics. However, for non-tenured academics, seniority negated their intention to leave, while it increased turnover intentions for tenured academics (Zhou and Volkwein, 2004:28).

- **TENURE STATUS AND ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Tenure status usually refers to the term of employment (permanent, contract or temporary) that academics hold in a particular institution. According to Zhou and Volkwein (2004:5), The Commission on Academic Tenure in Higher Education (1973:256) defined academic tenure as "an arrangement under which faculty appointments in an institution of higher education are continued until retirement for age or physical disability, subject to dismissal for adequate cause, for unavoidable termination on account of financial exigency or change of institutional program". A review of the literature reveals that tenure status does not predict academics' turnover intentions. The different empirical studies conducted by Noor (2011:243) and by Chughtai and Zafar (2006:51) respectively found no relationship between tenure status and academics' turnover intentions. In contrast, Tourangeau, *et al.*'s (2013:7) study assessing the factors influencing faculty nurses' intentions to remain employed indicated that faculty nurses that were employed full-time had high intentions to remain with their institutions. In other words, having a permanent position lowered faculty nurses' turnover intention. Zhou and Volkwein (2004:4) also reported that non-tenured academics had higher mobility and even a higher expectations tendency than tenured academics.

### **3.2.2.2 GENERAL ACADEMICS' WORK ENVIRONMENT, WORKING CONDITIONS AND WORK-LIFE BALANCE**

The physical environment in which an employee is tasked to work, the conditions in which he or she is subjected to work and their desire to balance work and personal life are important factors predicting academics' intention to leave (Xu, 2008:614;

Joarder and Sharif, 2012:65). Hence, Shapira-Lishchinsky (2012:311) posits that the working conditions of lecturers play a crucial role in the quality of lecturers' attitudes towards their institutions.

According to Nyamubarwa (2013:82), "working environment refers to the physical space surrounding the employee during his day-to-day duties, as well as the psychological space associated with the work". The physical working environment of an employee encompasses facets, *inter alia*, the geographical location of the institution and the ergonomic work setting. Nyamubarwa (2013:82) states that the psychological work environment pertains to issues related to the psychological contract. Additionally, the psychological work environment of an employee can also include Daly and Dee's (2006:781) structural work environment variables such as workload, autonomy and distributive justice, as well as some of the immediate work environment variables like leadership style and peer interaction (Porter and Steers, 1973 as cited by Long *et al.*, 2012:284). Moreover, Al-Omari, *et al.* (2008:29) state that the psychological working environment comprises work environmental variables that affect employees' job satisfaction and that, as a consequence, stimulate their intentions to leave. Therefore, work environment variables include, *inter alia*, workload, work autonomy, stress, perceived fairness, collegiality, job security and leadership style (Al-Omari *et al.*, 2008:30; Ibrahim and Perez, 2014:46; Ahmed, 2015:14). In addition, the literature on academics' turnover intentions reveals that characteristics such as the type, the size and the wealth of the institution are some of the work environment characteristics that can influence academics' turnover intentions (Zhou and Volkwein, 2004:10; Tourangeau *et al.*, 2013:4). Therefore, the review of the perceived influence of the physical and psychological work environment of academics and the influence of the characteristics of institutions on academics' turnover intentions are presented below.

### **3.2.2.2.1 PHYSICAL WORKING ENVIRONMENT AND ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

The physical work environment refers to the geographical location of an organization and the physical working conditions comprising factors prone to impact on the physical or psychological well-being of employees in the workplace.

- **GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION AND ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

With regard to geographical location, scholars emphasize that academics usually compare and assess the accessibility of their institutions with such things like transportation, distance, traffic and time taken commuting (Nair, Mee and Cheik, 2016:114). Depending on the aspirations and preferences of academics, the assessment can sometimes be extended to the region or the city in which the institution is located (Yan, Yue and Niu, 2015:530). Thus, Ingersoll (2001) as cited by Nair, *et al.* (2016:114) claims that the geographical location of an institution plays a crucial role in academics' turnover decisions. Similarly, a study conducted by Holland and Arrington (1987) on 463 accounting academics postulated that geographical location was the determining factor of academics' decisions to relocate (Nair *et al.*, 2016:11). Likewise, Mahony, Mondello, Hums and Judd (2006:422) in their empirical study conducted on 172 Sport Management lecturers in North America indicated that the working location of academics influences their turnover intentions. Equally, Nair, *et al.* (2016:119) attested that working location predicted lecturers' turnover intentions in a study conducted on 401 lecturers of private universities in Malaysia. Additionally, the predictive effect of the location of the region on academics' turnover intentions has also been addressed. Scholars revealed in their studies that the location of the region strongly predicts academics' turnover intentions (Yan *et al.*, 2015:541). Inversely, Tourangeau, *et al.* (2013:6) found that the location of the institutions does not influence academics turnover intentions.

- **ERGONOMIC WORK SETTING AND ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

A poorly ergonomically set work environment is identified as a major factor affecting employees' health and safety in the workplace. Employees will usually prefer a work environment conducive to their mental and physical well-being. Working environments prone to noise, poor lightning and poor air quality can be detrimental for employees. Consequently, various scholars found that unfavourable and poor working conditions have various impacts on academics' outcomes, and in turn, directly influence academics' turnover intentions (Kramer and Schmalenberg, 2008 cited by Joarder and Sharif, 2012:60; Nyamubarwa, 2013:82; Arnoux, Sovet, Lhotellier). Thus, Pejtersen and Kristensen (2009) as cited by Joarder and Sharif (2012:60) stated that positive working conditions reduce employees' physical and emotional strain and contribute to a more motivated workforce resulting in lower employee turnover. An empirical study conducted by Joarder and Sharif (2012:65) in their investigation of the impact of HRM practices on 317 faculty members' turnover intentions in private institutions in Bangladesh indicated that faculty members' working conditions were highly significant and negatively related to turnover intention. In other words, faculty members with better working conditions were less likely to leave their institutions (Joarder and Sharif, 2012:65). In tandem with the findings of Joarder and Sharif (2012:65), Nyamubarwa (2013:87) also found a predictive causal effect of poor working conditions on turnover intention in his study conducted amongst 65 academic librarians in 10 public and 3 private universities in Zimbabwe.

#### **3.2.2.2.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL WORK ENVIRONMENT VARIABLES AND ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Various studies emphasized on the impact that work environmental variables have on academics' psychological well-being and behavior. Scholars claimed that heavy workload, the perception of unfairness in the organization, work stress, unfavorable relationships with colleagues and having unsupportive leaders influenced academics' turnover intentions (Erat, Kitapçı and Çömez, 2017:227; Hassan and Hashim, 2011:84; Ahmed, 2015:20; Razzaghian and Ghani, 2014:40; Robyn and Du Preez, 2013:9).

- **ACADEMICS' WORKLOAD AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Work overload is a common concern for many employees in organizations. It refers to the amount of work assigned to an employee (Siddiqui and Jamil, 2015:160). As such, workload is identified as one of the most stressful and detrimental factors in the academic's career (Daly and Dee, 2006:785; Ramli, Salahudin, Zainol and Suandi, 2014:324). According to various studies, not having enough time to keep abreast with contemporary developments in their disciplines, having a heavy teaching load, teaching large classes, spending too much time on research and committee work contribute to the work overload of academics (Daly and Dee, 2006:784; Al-Omari *et al.*, 2008:30; Xu, 2008:614; Ramli *et al.*, 2014:324; Erat *et al.*, 2017:227).

Scholars have emphasized the effect that heavy workload can have on academics' turnover intentions. For instance, Zhou and Volkwein (2004:16) found that heavy workload had a strong direct effect on faculty members' intention to leave in their study assessing the influences of faculty departure intentions amongst tenured and non-tenured academics in different public and private colleges and universities in the USA. Furthermore, Zhou and Volkwein's (2004:16) study revealed that workload indirectly increased faculty members' intention to leave through the mediating effect of satisfaction with compensation. Similarly, Xu (2008:614) concluded in his study that heavy workload was associated with intent to leave. Equally, Erat, *et al.* (2017:227) reported a positive relationship between workload and turnover intentions amongst a sample of 1043 academics working in state universities in Turkey. Inversely, the study conducted by Daly and Dee (2006:785) on the relationship between work environment variables, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intentions in urban public universities in the USA revealed a negative correlation between workload and intention to stay. Likewise, Al-Omari, *et al.* (2008:30) found a negative correlation between high workload and academics' intention to stay when investigating the relationship between work environment variables (i.e. autonomy, workload, communication and distributive justice) and academics' intention to stay. The findings suggested that the more academics had heavy workloads, the less they wanted to stay with their institutions (Daly and Dee, 2006:785; Al-Omari *et al.*, 2008:30).

- **ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE AND ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

In broad terms, organizational justice refers to the perception of fairness. In the organizational context, organizational justice denotes the fair manner in which organisations treat their employees. Individuals usually claim fairness in the way outcomes are distributed, on the method or the procedure used to distribute those outcomes and in the manner in which they are treated when interacting with others. According to Ibrahim and Perez (2014:46), organizational justice originates from different fields, including the field of Law with procedural justice; the work of Adams (1963) on Equity Theory which claims fairness in the 'input-output' ratio; and the field of political philosophy and ethics reflecting distributive justice in the perspective of the social contract. Nevertheless, Greenberg (1987) as cited by Ibrahim and Perez (2014:46) firstly coined the term 'organizational justice' to describe "the behavior of the organization and the corresponding behavior of employees to the feeling of justice or injustice". Additionally, Cropanzano and Greenberg (1997) as cited by Phayoonpun and Mat (2014:6) define organizational justice as "the level of fairness, the behavioral justice and the cautiousness of individual personnel in the distribution of employee rewards in the organizational system".

Thus, there are three main approaches of organizational justice, namely procedural justice, distributive justice and interpersonal or interactional justice (Kaur *et al.*, 2013:1221). According to scholars, *distributive justice* pertains to the perception of fairness of outcomes, *procedural justice* refers to the perception of fairness of processes that lead to the outcomes and *interactional justice* reflects the perception of fairness of treatment an individual receives during interpersonal interactions (Kaur *et al.*, 2013:1221; Ibrahim and Perez, 2014:46).

Concerning academic employees' turnover intentions, scholars acknowledge that organizational justice is one of the key organizational factors which affect employees' attitude and behavior such as turnover intentions. A study conducted by Chunghtai and Zafar (2006:52) on the influence of organizational commitment on job performance and turnover intentions amongst a sample of 125 academics employed in 33 different Pakistani universities, found a negative relationship between distributive and procedural justice with intention to leave. A negative relationship meant that a perception of fairness reduced academics turnover intent.

The study by Al-Omari, *et al.* (2008:37) also revealed a negative correlation between distributive justice and intention to leave amongst 139 faculty members in eleven Jordanian universities. Similarly, Park (2015:78) purported that higher levels of distributive justice lowered the level of academics' intention to leave in his study on faculty members working in the urban public research University in the USA. Likewise, the study conducted by Hassan and Hashim (2011:84) on the analysis of the differences between national and expatriate academic staff perceptions of organizational justice in Malaysian institutions of higher learning revealed that the three types of organizational justice significantly correlated with turnover intentions. Furthermore, Hassan and Hashim's (2011:84) findings revealed that turnover intentions negatively related with perceived distributive justice amongst Malaysian academics, while both distributive and procedural justice were found to influence international academics' turnover intentions. Daly and Dee (2006:795) also reported an indirect positive effect of distributive justice with intent to stay, mediated by job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

#### • **WORK STRESS AND ACADEMIC EMPLOYEES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Stress refers to demands caused by the physical, mental or emotional factors that affect the well-being of individuals and requires coping strategies (Warnich, Carell, Elbert and Hatfield, 2015:445). Work stress occurs when employees feel that they are no longer able to give themselves as they should at a physical and psychological level (Maslach and Jackson, 1981 as cited by Ahmed, 2015:14). The literature outlines that most sources of stress derive from work-related factors (Robbins, Judge, Odendaal and Roodt, 2016:701). Factors identified as causing stress in the organization include work demands, role conflict, role ambiguity, organizational leadership, etc. (Warnich *et al.*, 2015:446; Robbins *et al.*, 2016:703). Various scholars claim that excessive levels of stress can lead to emotional exhaustion and burnout, stimulating thoughts of quitting (Mangi and Jalbani, 2013:50; Ahmed, 2015:14 and El-Sakka, 2016:57).

With regard to turnover intentions, Barnes, Agago and Coombs (1998) as cited by Smart (2010:463) state that high levels of work-related stress increase academics' intent to leave. The study conducted by Ryan, *et al.* (2009:20) on 587 faculty members from a Public Research University in the USA found a positive correlation

between emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions. These findings are congruent with the results of Leiter and Maslach's (2009:337) study findings which reported that burnout predicted turnover intentions among 667 Canadian nurses working in the Atlantic Provinces institutions. Likewise, Panatik, Rajab and Badri (2012:39) revealed that high levels of stress increased turnover intentions in a study conducted on a sample of 267 academic staff employed in three research universities in Malaysia. Mangi and Jalbani (2013:50) equally indicated that burnout positively related to turnover intentions in their investigation on the mediating role of emotional exhaustion and cynicism on turnover intentions amongst 886 academics working in Higher Education Institution in Pakistan. A positive correlation between emotional exhaustion and academics' turnover intentions was also revealed in a study conducted by Ahmed (2015:20) on a sample of 100 faculty members working in Higher Education Institutions in Saudi Arabia. Positive correlations suggest that academics who experienced a high level of stress also showed a high tendency to leave (Ahmed, 2015:20). Likewise, a study by El-Sakka (2016:60) revealed a positive relationship between emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions amongst academic staff at Canadian International College in Egypt. Surprisingly, Ramli, Salahudin, Zainol and Suandi (2014:327) found a negative correlation between job related stress and turnover intentions in their investigation of turnover intention in the perspective of job demands, job control and social support on a sample of 196 faculty members employed in private institutions in Selangor and Kuala Lumpur in Malaysia. Ramli, *et al.*'s (2014:327) study indicated that high levels of stress increased the performance of faculty members and as a result deterred any tendency to quit.



## • COLLEGIAL RELATIONSHIPS AND ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS

Employees spend most of their time at work. Therefore, the interaction, collaboration and relationships with colleagues are vital for their satisfaction and their adaptability (Shah, 2012:1243). Schoepp (2011:63) states that collegiality is a trademark of Higher Education as it is characterized by mutual respect amongst colleagues, a sense of responsibility and equality amongst peers. Macfarlane (2016:32) refers to collegiality as a shared responsibility in the governance of an institution in which all academics have a say in decision-making. Tourangeau, *et al.* (2013:3) claim that collegial relations in the academic context refer to the quality of the relationships between colleagues in an organization where there is mutual respect, equal treatment and trust. Shah (2012:1244) asserts that fostering a collegial culture is not only beneficial to the individual employee, but to the organization as a whole.

A review of the literature on co-workers' support revealed that academics are sometimes faced with challenges in the workplace such as bullying, mistrust, conflict, violence, mistreatment and rudeness in the workplace. Consequently, antagonistic relationships with colleagues were found to be related to an employee's intention to leave the organization (Razzaghian and Ghani, 2014:40). Matier (1990) as cited by Schoepp (2011:63) asserts that poor collegiality predicts turnover intentions. Zahra, *et al.* (2013:85) concur that collegial relations influence intentions to leave an institution.

Previous studies found that a culture of collegiality can promote a favourable working environment, connect employees with the organization and in turn deter turnover intentions (Chuntghtai and Zafar 2006:52; Tourangeau *et al.*, 2013:13). Moreover, the Job Embeddedness theory postulates that employees that are entrenched in their job and in the social work environment community (i.e. colleagues) are less likely to quit (Mitchell *et al.*, 2001 as cited by Zhang, *et al.*, 2012:223). Additionally, the empirical study by Awang, *et al.* (2012:30) conducted in five public higher learning institutions in Malaysia revealed that an academic organizational climate which promotes close relationships with peers negatively correlates with turnover intentions. In other words, collegial relations lessen academics' turnover intentions. Likewise, Chuntghtai and Zafar (2006:52) reported a negative correlation between a good working relationship with co-workers and

academics' turnover intentions. Similarly, the study conducted by Tourangeau, *et al.* (2013:13) on the factors influencing faculty nurses to remain with nursing colleges in Canada revealed a positive correlation between supportive collegial relationships with faculty members' intention to remain in their institution. The above findings confirm that unfavourable collegial relationships will likely stimulate faculty members' turnover intentions.

## • **LEADERSHIP AND ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

The influence leaders exert over employees toward goal achievement can impact on their attitude and behaviour. Leadership is about developing a vision, influencing followers, providing direction and motivating followers to achieve the vision. Robbins, *et al.* (2016:441) define leadership as the ability to influence a group of people toward the achievement of a vision or a set of goals. There are various leadership approaches in the literature. Scholars state that a leader will usually adopt a particular leadership approach based on his or her beliefs, the context in which he or she operates and on his or her assumptions. According to the literature, leadership styles include charismatic leadership, participative leadership, situational leadership, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, Quiet leadership, and servant leadership (Robbins *et al.*, 2009:326).

All these leadership approaches can influence the group to achieve goals. However, a review of the literature on academics' turnover intentions seems to focus on two leadership approaches, namely transactional and transformational leadership. This inclination may be due to the nature of the academics' work that requires some level of autonomy, trust and role clarity or to the aspirations of these two leadership approaches. Scholars contend that transactional leaders provide direction and motivate their followers to achieve goals by clarifying the role and task requirements (Robbins *et al.*, 2016:458). Transformational leaders on the other hand stimulate and inspire their followers to excel in their achievement of goals (Long *et al.*, 2012:576; Robbins *et al.*, 2016:458). Moreover, transformational leadership is accepted and preferred at various job levels and occupations such as schools, teachers, the army etc. (Robbins and Judge, 2015:380).

Various scholars have emphasized the influence of leadership style on academics' turnover intentions. Scholars have argued that transformational leadership lessens intentions to leave (Gwavuya, 2011:18; Robyn and du Preez, 2013:9). Thus, the empirical study conducted by Gwavuya (2011:18) on 100 lecturers in three universities in Zimbabwe claimed that transformational and transactional leadership negatively related to lecturers' turnover intentions. This result implies that a team or employees with a transformational leader are reluctant to leave the organization. Ng'ethe, Namusonge and Iravo (2012:301) also found a negative correlation between leadership styles and academics' turnover intentions in their investigation of the influence of leadership styles on academic staff retention in Public universities in Kenya. Likewise, Robyn and du Preez (2013:9) noted a negative relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intentions in their study conducted on generation Y academics working in six Public Institutions in South Africa. Similarly, Tariq, Ali, Jan and Ali (2014:51) concluded that both transactional and transformational leadership correlated with intention to leave in a study conducted on 224 faculty members working in Pakistani public universities. In contrast, Long, *et al.* (2012:579) found no significant correlation between leadership styles and turnover intentions in their empirical study on 27 faculty members at a non-profit community college in Malaysia. In brief, the review below reveals that many scholars agree on the positive effect of transformational and transactional leadership in deterring turnover intentions.

#### **• INSTITUTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF ACADEMIC EMPLOYEES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

The characteristics of an institution seem to be related with academics' turnover intention. These characteristics include, amongst others, unionization, type, size, wealth and policy of the institution (Matier, 1990:58; Smart, 1990:410; Zhou and Volkwein, 2004:10; Tourangeau *et al.*, 2013:7). According to Bretz, Boudreau and Judge (1994) as cited by Zhou and Volkwein (2004:10), financial situation or the wealth of the institution influence academics' turnover intentions. The Causal Model of Faculty Turnover Intentions of Smart (1990:410) hypothesized on the relationship between the financial status of the institutions and academics' turnover intent. Equally, the study by Zhou and Volkwein (2004:16) revealed an indirect effect of

institutional wealth on tenured faculty departure intent, mediated by satisfaction with compensation.

With regard to the policy of the institution, Bretz, *et al.* (1994) as cited by Zhou and Volkwein (2004:10) reported its direct effect on turnover intentions. Likewise, Zhou and Volkwein (2004:16) concluded that the policy of the institution had a direct impact on tenured faculty turnover intent when comparing the influence of academics' turnover intentions between tenured and non-tenured academics. Furthermore, some scholars affirm that academics are less likely to leave a unionized institution. Therefore, Tourangeau, *et al.* (2013:7) reported a negative correlation between an institution that is unionized and academics' turnover intentions. Similarly, Zhou and Volkwein (2004:16) found that institution unionization is negatively related with tenured faculty members' departure intentions.

The type and size of the institution were also found to indirectly affect tenured faculty members' departure intentions (Zhou and Volkwein, 2004:16). However, the institutional characteristics were found to have no significant direct effect on non-tenured faculty members' turnover intent (Zhou and Volkwein, 2004:16).

### **3.2.2.3 ACADEMIC EMPLOYEES' JOB SATISFACTION**

According to Robbins and Judge (2015:102), job satisfaction is one of the most extensively researched work-related attitudes given high priority in the field of organisational behaviour. Storm (2015:8) concurs by recalling that the concept of job satisfaction has been researched extensively since 1976 and it is still the focus of many studies. Thus, due to the large amount of research on the influence of job satisfaction on employee turnover and turnover intention, this section will emphasize some of the theories of job satisfaction.

#### **3.2.2.3.1 CONCEPTUALISATION OF JOB SATISFACTION FOR ACADEMICS**

Job satisfaction can be broadly defined as the feelings and the attitude that an employee has towards his job. It usually reflects how people perceive their work in comparison to their expectations. Egan, Yang and Bartlett (2004:5) define job satisfaction as "an employee's affective reactions to a job, based on comparing desired outcomes with actual outcomes". Likewise, Bonache (2005) cited by

AbedRahman, Elamin and Aboelmaged (2012:3) define job satisfaction in a psycho-sociological perspective by stating that “job satisfaction is an affective or emotional response towards various facets of one’s job, in which processes of social comparison take place”. Robbins and Judge (2015:102) concur when stating that job satisfaction is “a positive feeling about a job resulting from an examination of its characteristics”. Conversely, Mathis and Jackson (2004:91) define job satisfaction as “a positive emotional state resulting from evaluating one’s job experience”. From the above definitions, one can perceive that job satisfaction is delineated from the affective and emotional perspectives (Mathis and Jackson, 2004:91; Egan *et al.*, 2004:5) and from an economic perspective that tends to be explained in monetary terms (Bonache, 2005 cited by AbedRahman *et al.*, 2012:3). However, the widest and most comprehensive definition of job satisfaction was given by Locke (1976:1304) cited by Redmond and Lane (2016) who termed job satisfaction as the “pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values”.

### **3.2.2.3.2 COMPONENTS OF JOB SATISFACTION AND THEIR IMPACT ON ACADEMICS**

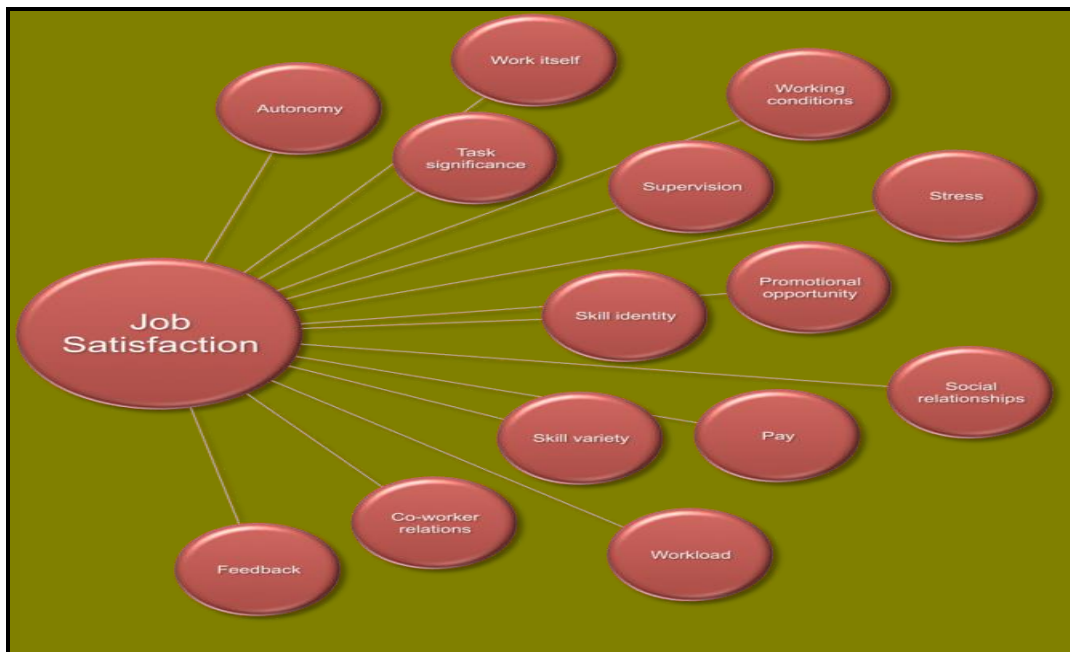
Milbourn and Francis (1980:70) identified three main aspects of job satisfaction. The first aspect perceives job satisfaction as an emotional response to a job situation. As a result, job satisfaction can neither be seen nor inferred. The second aspect presents job satisfaction as being determined by how well outcomes meet or exceed expectations. The third aspect relates job satisfaction to several related attitudes. In the same perspective, the study of Bernstein and Nash (2008) as cited by Ebuara and Coker (2012:26) identified three main components of job satisfaction. These include affective, cognitive and behavioural components. The affective component usually determines how employees feel about their jobs or their organisations. Bernstein and Nash (2008) as cited by Ebuara and Coker (2012:26) state that the affective or evaluative component of job satisfaction refers to feelings regarding the job, such as boredom, anxiety or excitement. The cognitive component of job satisfaction looks at the beliefs regarding one's job. It determines what employees believe to be true about their jobs or organisations (Bernstein and Nash, 2008 as cited by Ebuara and Coker, 2012:26). The behavioural component denotes the way employees behave towards their work. These behaviours usually include tardiness,

lateness or pretending to be ill in order to avoid work (Bernstein and Nash, 2008 as cited by Ebuara and Coker, 2012:26). In addition, Byars and Rue (2008:216) identified five major components of job satisfaction, including the attitude that employees have toward the work group, the perceived working conditions, the perceived monetary benefits, their attitude towards the organisation and their attitude towards management. Furthermore, employees' state of mind about work itself, their perception of life in general, their health, their aspirations and their social status contribute to job satisfaction (Byars and Rue, 2008:216).

### **3.2.2.3.3 FACETS OF JOB SATISFACTION**

Employees' satisfaction with their jobs can be attributed to many factors. Robyn and Du Preez (2013:5) state that Job satisfaction is a complex, multidimensional phenomenon comprising various factors. Scholars range these factors from the work itself, the pay, promotion, and supervisor and co-worker interaction (Smith, Kendall and Hulin, 1969 in Judge and Klinger, 2003:394; Robyn and du Preez, 2013:5). Furthermore, Smith, *et al.* (1969) as cited by Greenberg and Baron (2008:224) state that the facets of job satisfaction presented in Figure 3.1 below reflect factors such as the *work itself* which refers to the extent to which the job provides an individual with interesting tasks, opportunities for learning and the chance to accept responsibility. *Pay* refers to the amount of financial remuneration received and the degree to which this is viewed as equitable in comparison with others in the organisation. *Promotion opportunities* denote the chances for advancement in the hierarchy. *Supervision* refers to the ability of the supervisor to provide technical and behavioural support. *Co-worker interaction* is the extent to which fellow workers are technically proficient and socially supportive (Greenberg and Baron, 2008:224). Furthermore, *recognition*, *working conditions*, *organisational culture* and *management* are other facets that can affect job satisfaction (Locke, 1976 as cited by Judge and Klinger, 2003:394). In addition, Hackman and Oldham (1980) as cited by Robbins and Judge (2015:248) state that the five core job dimensions of the job characteristics model are: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback which were found to affect three critical psychological states of employees, namely affective (i.e. meaningfulness of work, knowledge of results, etc.) and behavioural responses (i.e. high job satisfaction, internal work motivation, etc.).

**FIGURE 3.1 FACETS OF JOB SATISFACTION**



**Source:** Redmond, B.F. and Lane, K.D. (2016:7). Adapted.

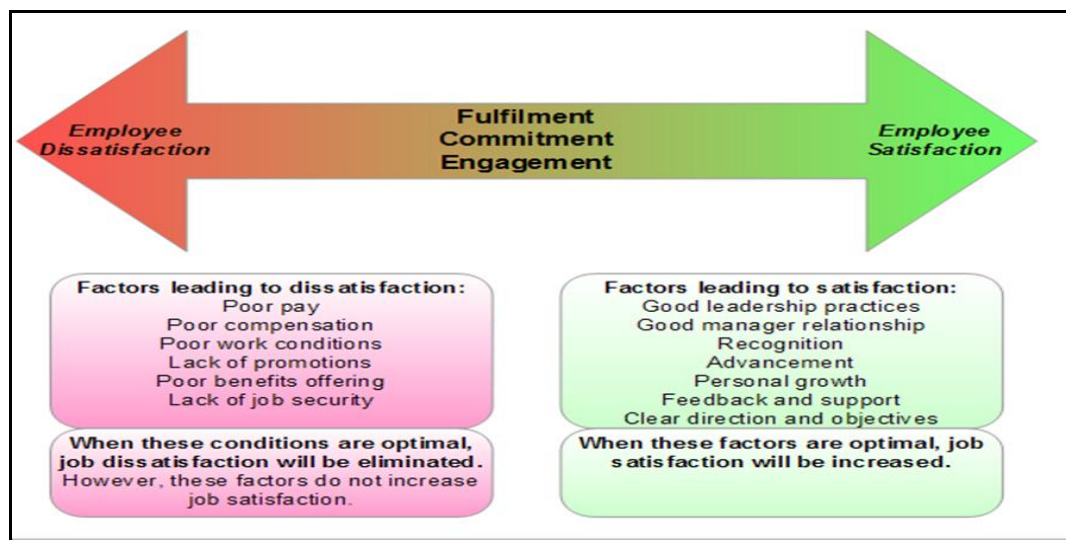
Concerning the level of employees' feelings about their jobs, Mueller and Kim (2008) as cited by Ebuara and Coker (2012:26) categorised two facets of job satisfaction. *Global job satisfaction* refers to how employees' feel overall about their jobs in general and *job facet satisfaction* looks at how employees feel about specific job aspects, such as salary, benefits and the quality of relationships with co-workers (Mueller and Kim 2008 cited by Ebuara and Coker, 2012:26). Likewise, Byars and Rue (2003) cited by Aziri (2011:81) outline that the influences of job satisfaction include working conditions, compensation, management style and perceived job opportunities. Additionally, Aziri (2011:81) claims that the above factors may also lead to job dissatisfaction with resultant turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, etc. if the expectations of an employee are not met.

With regard to the influences on job satisfaction, Field (2008:1) proposed a model (Figure 3.2) that portrays the factors that either increase employee job satisfaction or lead to job dissatisfaction of an employee. Field (2008:1) stated that push factors such as poor pay, poor compensation, poor work conditions, lack of promotion and a lack of job security can lead to job dissatisfaction amongst academics. However, if these push factors are favourable, job dissatisfaction will decrease (Field, 2008:1). Furthermore, Field (2008:1) argues that good leadership style, employee

recognition, opportunity for career advancement, employee growth and development, meaningful feedback and clear objectives increase job satisfaction.

With regard to turnover intention, the determinants of job satisfaction presented in Figure 3.2 below have been hypothesized in models as influencing employees' turnover intentions (Bluedorn, 1982:138; Zhou and Volkwein, 2006:781). Additionally, the same facets of job satisfaction were found to determine talent retention (Ashraf and Joarder, 2010:171; Kusnin and Rasdi, 2014:345)

**FIGURE 3.2 JOB SATISFACTION MODEL**



**Source:** Field, J. (2008:1). Adapted.

### 3.2.2.3.4 THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION

Several theories have been developed to explain what satisfies employees with their jobs. However, for this study, the two prominent theories highlighted in this section include Herzberg's Two-factor theory and Locke's Value or Affect theory.

#### • HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY

Herzberg's (1950) two-factor theory presented in Figure 2.5 of the previous chapter assumed that there are two sets of factors that determine satisfaction and dissatisfaction on the job. The first set of factors are called "motivators" and include achievement, recognition, responsibility, promotion opportunities and opportunities for personal growth. The second set of factors are called "hygiene factors" and



encompass supervision, pay, company policies, physical working conditions, co-worker relationship and job security. Herzberg (1950) as cited by Janachowski (2016:15) postulated that the hygiene factors listed above influence job dissatisfaction, hence improving these hygiene factors will decrease job dissatisfaction. Likewise, Herzberg (1950) in Janachowski (2016:15) hypothesized that the motivator factors influence job satisfaction. Therefore, improving motivators will certainly increase job satisfaction.

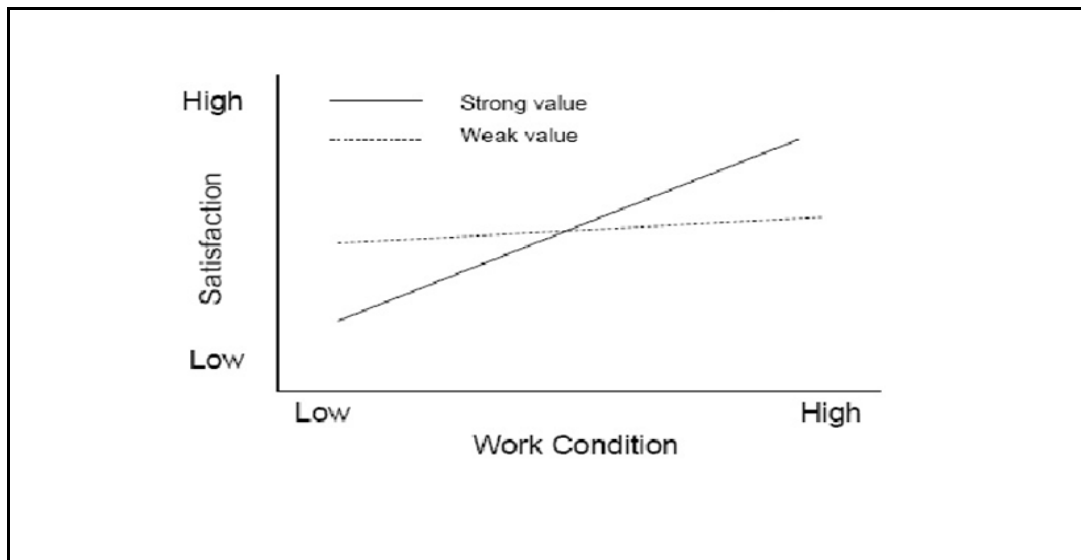
In the context of turnover intentions, hygiene factors and motivators are among the factors that predict turnover intentions in the Turnover Intention Model proposed by Hulin, *et al.* (1985), as well as in the Causal Turnover Intention Model of Price and Mueller (1986). Moreover, the Proposed Talent Retention model of Kusnin and Rasdi (2014:345) also highlights the effects of the hygiene factors and motivators on the retention of employees.

#### • **VALUE/AFFECT THEORY**

The Value Theory presented in Figure 3.3 below was developed by Locke (1976). The theory claims that job satisfaction exists when job outcomes such as rewards received by an individual employee correspond with the outcomes desired by that individual employee (Greenberg, 2011:223). This implies that employees will be satisfied if the job outcomes meet their expectations. The theory postulates that when an individual values a particular facet of a job, his or her satisfaction can be affected positively if his or her expectations are met or negatively if his or her expectations are not met (Greenberg, 2011:223). The Affect Theory postulates that the more people receive valued outcomes, the more satisfied they become. However, if the outcomes received decrease, their satisfaction also decreases. Thus, the Affect Theory assumes that the key to satisfaction is the difference between those aspects of the job that an individual *has* compared to those aspects that an individual *wants* (Greenberg, 2011:223).

With regard to turnover intentions, many scholars seem to have concurred with the Value theory when affirming that employees join organisations with expectations. However, their expectations not being met can alter their behaviour and stimulate their intention to leave the organisation (Daly and Dee, 2006:778; Kok, 2016:131).

**FIGURE 3.3 LOCKE'S VALUE THEORY**



**Source:** Wicaksana, S. (2010:10). Adapted.

#### **3.2.2.3.5 JOB SATISFACTION AND ACADEMIC EMPLOYEES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Over the past decades, many scholars have conducted empirical studies to assess the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Various studies therefore found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and academic employees' turnover intentions (Joarder and Sharif, 2012:64; Robyn and Du Preez, 2013:13; Wörnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield, 2015:403; Jalees and Ghauri, 2016:17). The most determinant factors found to have a great influence on academic employees' turnover intentions are discussed below.

- **SATISFACTION WITH COMPENSATION AND ACADEMIC EMPLOYEES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Compensation usually refers to monetary rewards in the form of pay and non-monetary reward such as promotion and recognition that an employee receives for the service provided. Robb (2007) as cited by Wörnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2015:403) defines compensation as the financial and non-financial returns and benefits that employees receive as part of an employment relationship. For Wörnich, *et al.* (2015:404), compensation denotes "Extrinsic rewards such as salary and benefits, intrinsic rewards like achieving personal goals, having autonomy on the job and having a challenging job". Thus, this present study focuses on compensation

relating to remuneration (i.e. salary and benefits) and rewards (i.e. promotion and recognition).

A review of the literature on job satisfaction reveals that most facets of job satisfaction significantly relate to academics' turnover intentions. However, the impact of satisfaction with compensation (i.e. pay, benefits) on academics' turnover intentions was over-emphasized (Mahony, Mondello, Hums and Judd, 2006:422; Joarder and Sharif, 2012:64; Robyn and Du Preez, 2013:13; Jalees and Ghauri, 2016:17). Moreover, the Social Exchange Theory claims that the perceived compensation is very important to employees. The empirical study conducted by Mahony, *et al.* (2006:422) on a sample of 172 academics teaching Sport Management in North America found that salary was a significant predictor of turnover intentions. Additionally, Mahony, *et al.*'s (2006:422) study revealed that academics who felt underpaid were likely to leave. Likewise, the studies of Joarder and Sharif (2012:64) and Joarder, Subhan, Ghani and Islam (2015:194) found a negative correlation between satisfaction with pay and academics' turnover intentions amongst academics in private universities in Bangladesh. Equally, the study by Robyn and Du Preez (2013:14) conducted amongst 189 academics working in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in South Africa indicated that remuneration and reward significantly negatively related with academics' intention to leave. The negative relationship implied that academics who felt satisfied with their jobs were less likely to leave. Similarly, other scholars found a negative relationship between satisfaction with salary and academics' intention to leave (Chunghtai and Zafar, 2006:52; Panatik, *et al.* (2014:39; Nawaz and Pangil, 2015:167). Surprisingly, Jalees and Ghauri (2016:17) found no correlation between all facets of job satisfaction and turnover intentions in their examination of the effect of organisational culture, job satisfaction and organisational commitment on academics' turnover intentions in a private university in Pakistan.

- **SATISFACTION WITH WORK AUTONOMY, WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND JOB SECURITY AND ACADEMIC EMPLOYEES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Satisfaction with work autonomy or the degree of freedom and responsibility that one has on the job (Daly and Dee, 2006:790; Al-Omari, 2008:39; Joarder and Sharif, 2012:66); job security or the feeling of having steady employment (Chunghtai and Zafar, 2006:52; Joarder *et al.*, 2015:194); and work-life balance or the ability to manage work and personal life (Noor, 2011:243; Popoli *et al.*, 2012:864; Tourangeau *et al.*, 2013:5) have also been found to significantly influence academics' intention to leave in the literature reviewed. Scholars unanimously concluded in their studies that academics value their autonomy, prefer secured employment and a job that allows them to juggle their work and personal life without compromising either one of them. As a result, a lack of autonomy on the job, a compromising job and job insecurity may trigger academics' turnover intentions (Joarder and Sharif, 2012:66; Joarder *et al.*, 2015:194; Tourangeau *et al.*, 2013:5). Other facets of job satisfaction, such as opportunities for promotion, recognition and rewards, were also found to negatively impact on academics' turnover intentions (Zhou and Volkwein, 2003:16; Al-Omari *et al.*, 2008:39; Tourangeau *et al.*, 2013:7 Hundera, 2014:60).

#### **3.2.2.4 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Like job satisfaction, organisational commitment is also amongst the major job attitudes that drew the attention of many scholars. Commitment refers to the unwavering devotion and loyalty to a target and involves a positive attitude and behaviour towards that target. The target in this context can either be a goal, a person or an organisation (Hunter, 2012:294). Organisational commitment reflects the extent to which an employee is dedicated to an organisation in such a way that he or she abides by its goals and aspires to remain with the organisation. Meyer and Allen (1991) as cited by Yahya, Mansor and Warokka (2012:15) define organisational commitment as a psychological state whereby an employee identifies with the organisation and shows a desire, a need or an obligation to maintain membership with the organisation. For Robbins, *et al.* (2016:104), organisational

commitment is “the degree to which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in the organisation”. From the above definitions, it can be assumed that organisational commitment involves both the psychological and emotional relationship that ties employees to the organisation.

- **COMPONENTS OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Meyer and Allen (1991) as cited by Yahya, *et al.* (2012:15) have identified three components of organisational commitment, namely affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment.

- *Affective commitment* refers to the emotional attachment that an employee has towards an organisation and its values. Meyer and Allen (1991) as cited by Yahya, *et al.* (2012:16) explain that affective commitment is a state in which an employee feels emotionally attached to an organisation and its values in such a way that he or she wants to remain a member of that organisation.
- Unlike affective commitment in which an employee wants to be part of the organisation, a *normative commitment* refers to the feeling of indebtedness, duty or obligation that an employee has towards remaining with an organisation. Robbins, Judge, Odendaal and Roodt (2009:74) describe normative commitment as the obligation that an employee feels to remain a member of a specific organisation for moral and ethical purposes.
- *Continuance commitment* reflects the beneficial motives or the economic value an employee perceives in remaining a member of a particular organisation. For Meyer and Allen (1991) as cited by Yahya, *et al.* (2012:16), continuance commitment reflects the extent to which an employee feels the need to remain with the organisation. in the context of continuance commitment, the motives to remain as a member of an organisation are usually compared with other alternatives.

In the context of turnover intentions, various scholars indicated a relationship between the three components of organisational commitment and academics' turnover intentions. However, amongst the three forms of commitment, scholars posit that affective commitment is likely to influence organisational outcomes such as job performance and turnover. As a result, it has a strong predictive effect on turnover intentions (Chughtai and Zafar, 2006:46; Daly and Dee, 2006:786; Robbins *et al.*, 2009:74). Furthermore, scholars explain that employees who are affectively and emotionally attached to the organisation identify themselves with that organisation, become more productive and efficient and deter any intention to leave. Thus, many studies found a significant negative correlation between affective commitment and turnover intentions (Lew, 2011:2559; Joarder and Sharif, 2012:62; Ahmed, 2015:19). In other words, studies indicated that the more employees are attached to their organisations, the less their intentions to leave. For instance, the study conducted by Lew (2011:2559) on a sample of 134 academics employed in Private Institutions in Pakistan reported a strong negative correlation between affective commitment and academics' turnover intentions. Similarly, the study by Joarder and Sharif (2012:62) on faculty members working in Bangladesh revealed a negative correlation between affective commitment and turnover intentions. Likewise, Ahmed (2015:19) confirmed the hypothesis of a significant negative correlation between affective commitment and turnover intentions in his study aimed at assessing the relationship amongst various dimensions of organizational commitment with emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions.

Nonetheless, some scholars also found the existence of influence of continuance commitment on turnover intentions (Noor, 2011:244; Joarder and Sharif, 2012:63; Ahmed, 2015:19). However, scholars assert that the correlation between continuance commitment and turnover intentions is negative but weak (Robbins *et al.*, 2009:74). The weak negative correlation stems from the fact that, in the context of continuance commitment, employees are not emotionally attached to the organisation. Therefore, they are still part of the organisation because they have not yet found a better alternative (i.e. better job, better position, etc.). Given an attractive alternative, employees may be inclined to leave (Robbins *et al.*, 2009:74; Meyer and Allen, 1991 as cited by Yahya *et al.*, 2012:23).

For normative commitment, the study by Bhatnagar (2013:60) on eighty faculty members in Northern Indian Universities and the study by Ahmed (2015:19) on academic staff in Saudi Arabia reported a negative correlation between normative commitment and turnover intentions. The negative correlation implied that academics with high levels of normative commitment had less turnover intent. Martin (2008) as cited by Yahya, *et al.* (2012:21) argues that job satisfaction can overshadow the feeling of obligation and indebtedness and perhaps ties an employee to the organisation. In other words, an employee who is satisfied with different aspects of his or her job will probably increase his or her level of commitment and lessen the feeling of indebtedness or obligation to remain with the organisation.

### **3.2.2.5 PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT AND ACADEMIC EMPLOYEES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Perceived Organisational Support (POS) or the extent to which employees perceive that the organisation values their contributions, acknowledges their inputs and cares for their well-being (Robbins and Judge, 2015:103; Robbins *et al.*, 2016:106) is also an important work-related attitude which can determine the positive or the negative perception that employees hold towards their jobs. Academics play a very crucial role in moulding, refining and shaping the capacity and intellectual ability of students. Thus, the knowledge and the value that academics share with and instil in students are crucial for their well-being and for the intellectual capital of the nation. Hence, it is important for the institution to support and value academics. Contrastingly, Humphreys and Hoque (2007:1200) stressed that academics have become voiceless in the decisions of institutions; their opinions are not valued; their expertise and their knowledge are ignored; and their workloads are unbearable. Consequently, they intend to quit their jobs.

Several scholars contend that having a voice in decision-making; the perceived feeling of fairness in compensation and reward; recognition; and the perceived feeling of support from supervisors are identified as antecedents of Perceived Organisational Support (Erat, Erdil, Kitapçı and Çömlek, 2012:8855; Robbins *et al.*, 2016:106).

Research suggests that the perceived organisational support influences employees' performance (Robbins *et al.*, 2015:103), commitment (Erat *et al.*, 2012:8854) and turnover intentions (Humphreys and Hoque, 2007:1200; Erat *et al.*, 2012:8856; Pololi *et al.*, 2012:864; Panatik *et al.*, 2014:39; Joarder *et al.*, 2015:191; Regassa and John, 2016:90). Referring to turnover intentions, research indicates that the relationship between high perceived organisational support and employees' turnover intentions is significant. The empirical study conducted by Pololi, *et al.* (2012:864) in 1994 on faculty members in both private and public medical schools in the USA revealed a negative correlation between perceived organisational support and turnover intentions.

Likewise, Erat, *et al.* (2012:8858) found that high organisational support had a significant negative effect on faculty members working in Turkish universities. In other words, the higher the perception of organisation support, the lower faculty members intended to quit their institutions. The study by Regassa and John (2016:90) on the Assessment of the relationship between HRM practices and turnover intentions amongst 358 academic staff in Ethiopian Public Universities found that the perceived supervisor support significantly and negatively correlated with academic staff's turnover intentions. Similarly, the study by Panatik, *et al.* (2014:39) aimed at assessing work-related stress the well-being amongst academics in three Malaysian Research Universities concluded that high perceived managerial support was significantly and negatively related with academics' turnover intentions. Likewise, the study of Joarder, *et al.* (2015:195) concluded that supervisory support negatively correlated with turnover intentions of academics working in private institutions in Bangladesh.

In sum, many researchers have supported the hypothesis of a significant relationship between perceived organisational support and academics' turnover intentions. In contrast, Billah (2009) as cited by Joarder, *et al.* (2015:195) found no significant correlation between perceived supervisory support and employees' intention to leave in a study conducted on employees of Commercial Banks in Bangladesh.



### **3.2.2.6 PERCEIVED JOB OPPORTUNITIES AND ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Job opportunity denotes the perceived availability of job alternatives in the business environment (Price and Mueller, 1981 as cited by Al-Omari *et al.*, 2008:33). Various theorists have hypothesized on the effect of external alternative job opportunities on employees' intentions to leave their present organisations (Price and Mueller, 1981 as cited by Al-Omari *et al.*, 2008:33; Matier, 1990:41). These theorists collectively claimed that employees' perceptions of availability of jobs in the labour market influence their intention to either stay or to leave the organisation. The empirical findings of different studies indicated that the availability of external job opportunities positively related to turnover intentions. For instance, the study of Lambert and Hogan (2009) as cited by Nyamubarwa (2013:87) and the empirical study conducted by Nyamubarwa (2013:87) on 65 academic librarians in private and public universities in Zimbabwe revealed that academics who perceived many external job opportunities had high level turnover intent. Conversely, Daly and Dee (2006:786) and Al-Omari, *et al.* (2008:33) examined perceived job opportunity and faculty members' intentions to stay. Both studies found that the availability of job opportunities had a direct negative correlation with faculty members' intention to stay. These findings implied that the higher academics perceived available job opportunities, the lower faculty members' intent to stay with their institutions (Daly and Dee, 2006:786; Al-Omari *et al.*, 2008:33). In contrast, Zhou and Volkwein (2004:17) found that external job opportunity had little effect on academics' turnover intentions.

Briefly, many studies found that the availability of job opportunities in the labour market predicts academics' turnover intentions. These findings are congruent with the Faculty Intention Model of Matier (1990:41) which hypothesized that the ease of movement or the visibility of job opportunities predicts faculty members' intention to leave.

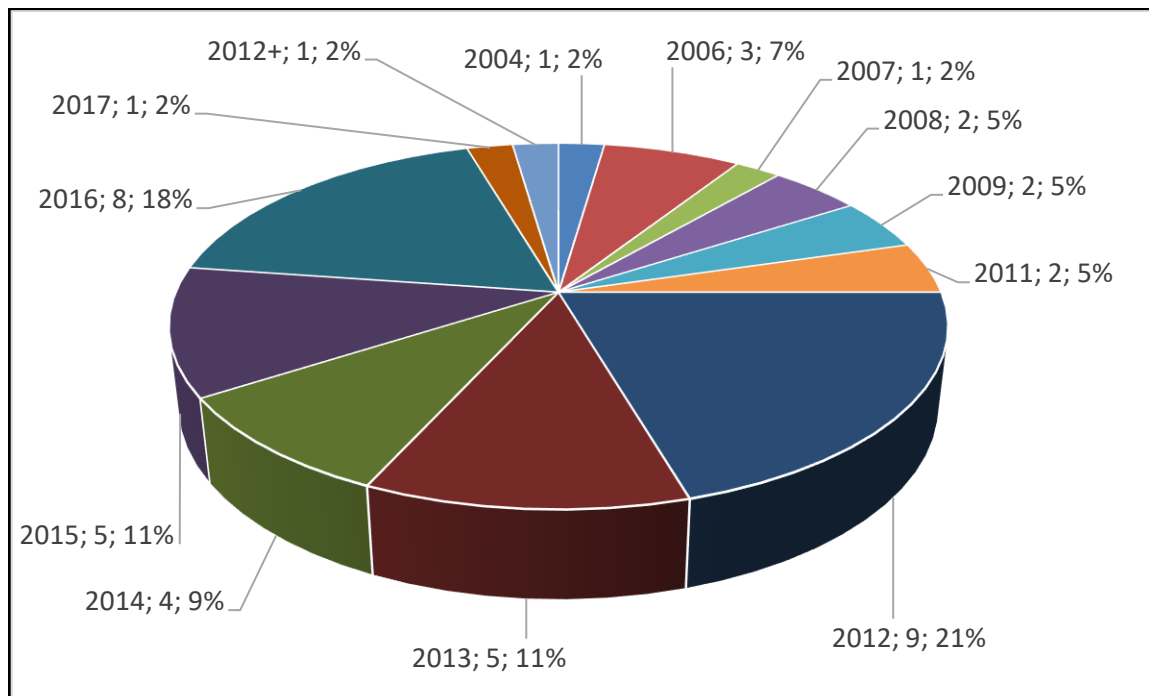
### 3.2.3 SUMMARY OF THE REVIEW OF ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS

The above section presents a review of forty-four (44) empirical studies selected from the existing literature on the factors predicting academic employees' turnover intentions. Of the forty-four (44) studies conducted by more than forty (40) different authors, only four (4) authors coincidentally had more than one publication each in this review. These authors are Jeswani, Dave, Joarder and Sharif (Jeswani and Dave 2012a; Jeswani and Dave 2012b; Jeswani and Dave 2012c; Joarder and Sharif 2012; Joarder *et al.*, 2015).

#### 3.2.3.1 PUBLICATION YEARS OF THE REVIEWED STUDIES

All reviewed studies were published in the time frame between 2004 and 2017. Thus, Figure 3.4 below presents the statistics on the number of publications per year in which it is portrayed that seventy percent (70%) of studies were published in the period between 2012 and 2016. As depicted in Figure 3.4 below, it can be noted that research on academic employees' turnover intention is quite recent.

**FIGURE 3.4 NUMBER OF PUBLICATIONS PER YEAR**

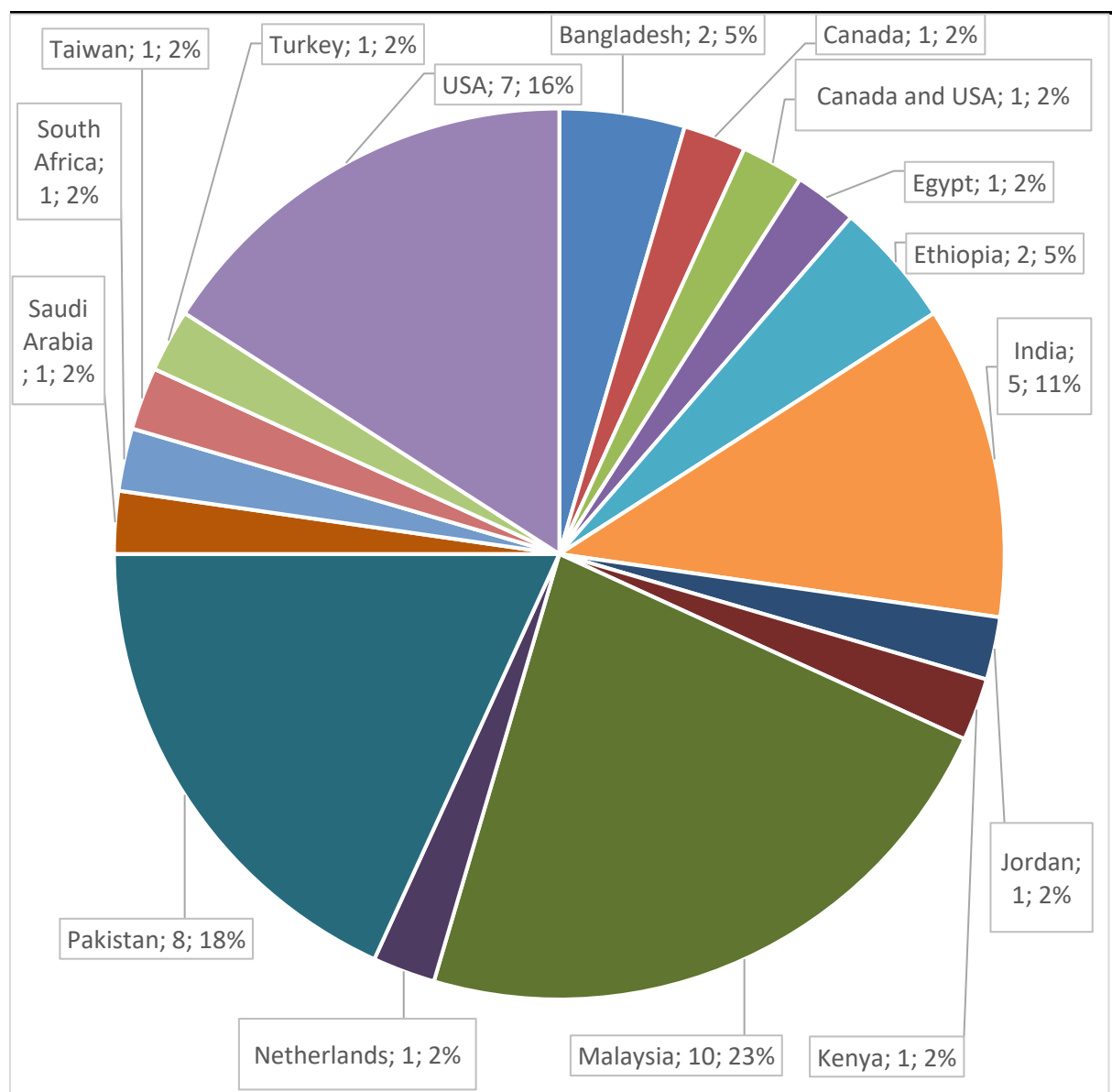


**Source:** Self-Generated. (2017).

### 3.2.3.2 LOCATION OF THE REVIEWED STUDIES

Moreover, the literature review reveals that, the forty-four empirical studies were conducted in sixteen different countries located on five continents, namely Asia, America, North America, Africa and Europe. The statistics in Figure 3.5 show that many of these studies were conducted in Asian and in American countries. However, as depicted in Figure 3.5 below, very few studies were conducted in African countries, which confirms the relevance of this present research study.

**FIGURE 3.5 NUMBER OF PUBLICATIONS PER COUNTRY**

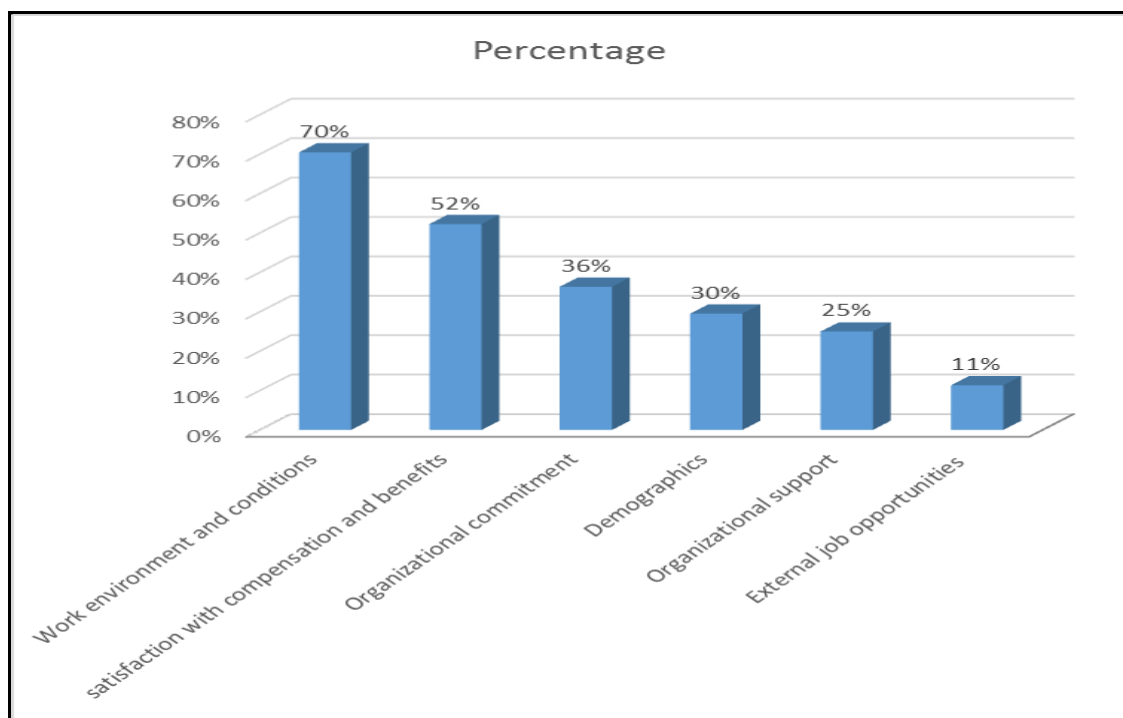


**Source:** Self-Generated. (2017).

### 3.2.3.3 RATIO OF THE REPRESENTATION OF ACADEMIC EMPLOYEES' TURNOVER INTENTION FACTORS

Figure 3.6 presents the ratio of the main predictors of turnover intentions identified in this review. These factors include Work environment, Organizational commitment, Demographics, Job satisfaction with Compensation and benefits, Organizational support and External job opportunities. As depicted in Figure 3.6 below, almost three-quarters (70%) of the studies have assessed the effect of the work environment or working conditions on academic employees' turnover intentions. Moreover, fifty-two percent (52%) examined the effect of satisfaction with compensation and benefits on academics' turnover intentions; thirty six percent (36%) investigated the predicting effect of commitment on academics' intention to leave; thirty percent (30%) and twenty-five percent (25%) respectively explored the effects of demographics and organizational support on academics' turnover intentions. However, only eleven percent (11%) of these studies have examined the effect of external job opportunities on academics' turnover intentions.

**FIGURE 3.6 RATIO OF THE PREDICTORS OF ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTION**

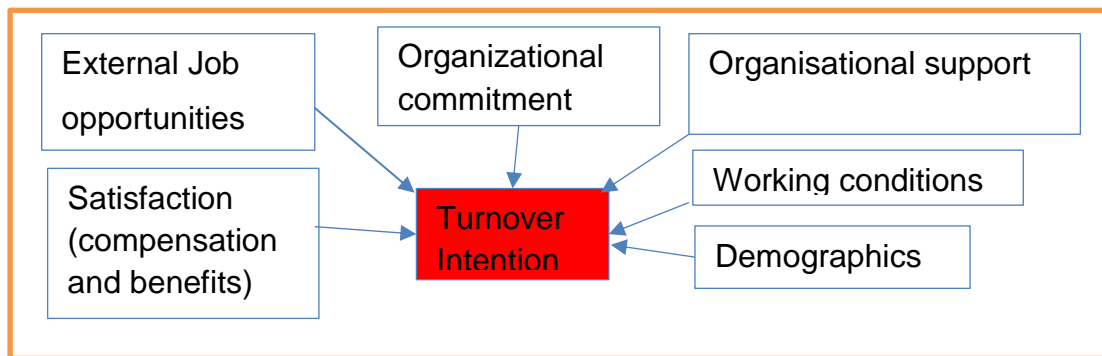


**Source:** Self-Adapted. (2017).

### 3.2.3.4 PRESENTATION OF THE FACTORS STIMULATING TURNOVER INTENTION AMONGST ACADEMICS

As shown in Figure 3.7 below, the review of the literature on academic employees indicates that the factors that mostly stimulate turnover intentions amongst academics include satisfaction with compensation and benefits; working conditions; organisational support; external job opportunities; organisational commitment and demographic variables such as age, marital status, gender, etc.

**FIGURE 3.7 PREDICTORS OF ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**



**Source:** Self-Generated. (2017).

### 3.3 EXPATRIATE EMPLOYEES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS

Expatriating means that one is compelled to live and work in an unfamiliar environment. Leaving the home country, families and friends to settle in a new country requires a great deal of courage, adaptability and flexibility. Being subjected to different social, cultural and economic conditions can be stressful and challenging for expatriates. The literature on international human resource management asserts that expatriates often deal with both job-related and personal problems due to the fact that they live and work in new settings (Altman and Baruch, 2012:234). Consequently, these challenges can sometimes cause dissatisfaction and ultimately lead to turnover intentions (Ahuja, 2007 as cited by Hu, Wang and Farn, 2011:148; Hassan and Hashim, 2011:86). A conceptual model developed by Ahuja (2007) as cited by Hu, *et al.* (2011:148) revealed that the predictors of expatriates' turnover intentions include heavy workload, work exhaustion, perceived unfairness, organizational commitment, work-family conflict and autonomy. Similarly, other scholars found that biographical differences; the inability to adjust to the host country; being voiceless in decision-making processes; dissatisfaction with

compensation; leadership style; and having inadequate relationships with colleagues significantly contribute to the motivation of expatriates to leave or to stay in their current organisations (Hassan and Hashim, 2011:90; Amir, Osman and Awang, 2013:128; Tanova and Ajaji, 2016:61). Some of these factors will be elaborated upon below.

### **3.3.1 FACTORS AFFECTING EXPATRIATE EMPLOYEES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

This section presents the factors that predict the turnover intentions of expatriate employees. Given the very limited studies on expatriate academics' turnover intentions and the fact that expatriate academics and multi-national expatriates share some similarities, the studies on the predictors of turnover intentions of both type of expatriates are reviewed below.

#### **3.3.1.1 DEMOGRAPHICS AND EXPATRIATES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Previous scholars have outlined the impact of academics' demographics on employees' turnover intentions (Rosser and Townsend, 2006:129; Daly and Dee, 2006:781). The influence of the biographical differences of expatriates on their decision to leave has also been emphasized (Lawrence, Celis, Kim, Lipson and Tong, 2014:518; Awang, Ismail, Hamid and Yusof, 2016:151). For instance, the study conducted by Lawrence, *et al.* (2014:518) on the assessment of the influences of individuals' characteristics on turnover intentions amongst 347 Asian academics working in the USA found that the tenure position significantly and positively correlated with Chinese academics' turnover intentions in USA's research institutions. They explain that senior-level Chinese academics had a greater tendency to quit than those with lower-level positions (Lawrence *et al.*, 2014:518). Awang, *et al.* (2016:151) also reported that senior academics (associate professors, professors) had greater intent to leave compared to junior academics (lecturers) in their study conducted amongst 88 expatriate academics employed in public universities in Malaysia. Similarly, Spark (2015:69) indicated that tenure position is negatively related to intent to quit in the short-term, while positively related to intent to quit in the long term. The findings of Lawrence, *et al.* (2014:518) and those of Awang, *et al.* (2016:151) are in contradiction with many scholars who claimed that

Academic Rank lessens the probability to leave the job (Zhou and Volkwein, 2004:28; Al-Omari *et al.*, 2008:34).

Regarding experience, Lawrence, *et al.*'s (2014:518) study found a positive relationship between the numbers of years spent in the institution and Asian international academics' turnover intentions. Lawrence, *et al.* (2014:518) explained that international academics who intended to leave were those who have been with their institution for a longer period. Spark's (2015:69) study also concluded a positive correlation between experience and international academics' turnover intent. Lawrence, *et al.*'s (2014:518) and Spark's (2015:69) results challenge the findings of Zhou and Volkwein (2004:28) who claimed that the more employees stayed with an organization, the less they want to leave. However, Hassan and Hashim (2011:89) found no relationship between experience in the institution and expatriate academics' turnover intentions when exploring the role of organizational justice in shaping international faculty members' attitudes and turnover intentions in four public universities in Malaysia.

With regard to the age factor, many studies found a negative relationship between age and employees' turnover intentions (Birdseye and Hill, 1995:798; Almalki, FitzGerald and Clark, 2012:374). The influence of expatriates' age on turnover intentions was also revealed in Awang, *et al.*'s (2016:151) study, which indicated that older expatriate academics (40 years and above) were more inclined to leave than younger ones (below 40 years of age). A positive correlation between expatriate age and turnover intention found in Awang, *et al.*'s (2016:151) study contradicts the results of Park's (2015:69) study, which indicated a negative correlation between age group and turnover intentions amongst international faculty members working at the Urban Public Research University in the USA. Park (2015:69) revealed that international faculty members in the age group between 31 and 50 were more likely to leave the institution in the long-term than those in the age group between 51 and 60. However, other studies did not find a relationship between age and expatriates' intention to leave (Hassan and Hashim, 2011:89; Lawrence *et al.*, 2014:519).

Gender was found to have no influence on expatriates' intention to leave. In the investigation of the effect of gender differences on 1504 male and 164 female expatriates' turnover intentions, Lee, Chua, Miska and Stahl (2016:24) found no

gender difference in expatriates' levels of turnover. Similarly, the study by Lawrence, *et al.* (2014:518) on Asian international academics employed in USA's research universities recorded no correlation between Asian international faculty members' gender and turnover intentions. Awang, *et al.* (2016:151) also indicated that gender did not predict intention to leave amongst expatriate academics employed in Malaysian public universities. In contrast, Habhad and Smith (2014:10) reported that women were more inclined to leave if less satisfied in their study conducted in private universities in Saudi Arabia. However, the research by Spark (2015:68) revealed that female international academics were less inclined to leave their institutions in the long-term compared to their male counterparts.

Concerning expatriate marital status, there is little evidence on the influence of marital status on expatriates' turnover intentions. Many studies did not find a significant effect of marital status on expatriates' turnover intent (Lawrence *et al.*, 2014:518; Awang *et al.*, 2016:151). These findings contradict the hypothesis that expatriates' spouses can contribute to expatriates' failure in their assignments (Schoepp, 2011:61; Haslberger, Brewster and Hippler, 2014:1). Thus, the study by Amir, Narges and Wong (2013:127) conducted on 30 expatriate academics employed in the Universiti Teknologi Malaysia revealed that family demands such as spousal employment opportunity can influence expatriates' intent to quit. Equally, Spark (2015:69) asserted in his study that married international academics were less likely to leave than those that were not married.

### **3.3.1.2 EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT CHALLENGES**

The adjustment of expatriates and their families in a foreign country has sparked the interest of many scholars in the literature on international human resource management. Oberg (1960) as cited by Harzing and Pinnington (2014:169) claim that almost all expatriates experience a "cultural shock" in the foreign setting. Arguably, various scholars postulate that the adjustment of expatriates and families is a crucial factor for the success of expatriates in their assignments (Schoepp, 2011:68; Haslberger *et al.*, 2014:1). Thus, how expatriates adjust, and what determines their successful adjustment in a host country has been very controversial. The positivist approach perceives the adjustment of expatriates as a process that entails different measurable phases (Black and Mendenhal, 1991;



Thomas and Lazarova, 2006:251). A holistic approach views the adjustment of expatriate as a very multi-faceted process that cannot rely on pre-determined measurement alone. Thus, the human nature of an expatriate should also be considered (McKenna, 2010:281).

#### **3.3.1.2.1 CONCEPTUALISATION OF EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT**

Expatriate adjustment broadly denotes the extent to which a person is well adapted to the social and the cultural conditions of the new environment where he or she is assigned or compelled to work. Trompenaars and Hampton-turner (2004:331) as cited by Van Aswegen (2008:84) describe expatriate adjustment as a “culture shock” that includes the feeling of confusion, alienation and frustration faced by individuals in an unfamiliar environment. For Grove and Torbiorn (1985:206) as cited by McKenna (2010:282), individuals are adjusted when they know the new social environment, when they do not have adverse feelings towards the new environment, and when they are confident and can behave effectively. Selmer and Luring (2016:36) contend that an expatriate is adjusted when he or she is well integrated into daily life and work in the new environment. As the prominent pioneers in the studies of expatriate adjustment, Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991) as cited by Lee, Hung, Chien, Zhuang and Hsu (2017:4) define adjustment as “the perceived degree of psychological comfort and familiarity a person has with the new host culture”.

In contrast, McKenna (2010:281) argues that the above positivist conceptualisations of adjustment have a standard definition of adjustment that focus on the adjustment of an expatriate on the surface, or visible aspects such as at work, in the social environment and with local food, disregarding the ‘broader life’ or the ‘whole life’ of an expatriate in a foreign setting. According to McKenna (2010:281), the ‘broader life’ or the ‘whole life’ of an expatriate entails his or her experiences, his or her feelings and the way in which the expatriate makes sense of things encountered in daily life abroad. Furthermore, McKenna (2010:281) emphasizes that most positivist approaches tend to dehumanize an expatriate by using a one-size-fits-all standard measurement of interaction, and general and work adjustment of an expatriate. Hence, he argues that a standard definition and measurement of adjustment cannot apply to all expatriates. Instead, a ‘broader life’ or a ‘whole life’ of an expatriate should be taken into consideration and understood

in order to begin to explain how an expatriate adjusts in a foreign country (McKenna, 2010:281). Nonetheless, McKenna (2010:281) asserts that understanding the broader life of an expatriate is very complex, diverse and fluid. Hence, there is a need for qualitative methods to supplement the positivist approach of expatriate adjustment measurement (McKenna, 2010:294).

#### **3.3.1.2.2 DIFFERENTIATION OF EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT**

Scholars have distinguished two main types of adjustments, namely psychological adjustment and socio-cultural adjustment.

- **PSYCHOLOGICAL ADJUSTMENT**

Psychological adjustment relates to the subjective or emotional well-being of an expatriate. It takes into consideration conditions such as feelings of depression, cultural shock, anxiety, tension or exhaustion that an expatriate might experience in the host country (Purgat-Popiela, 2011:32).

- **SOCIO-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT**

Socio-cultural adjustment entails the ability of the expatriate to 'fit into' the new work and cultural environment. Black, *et al.* (1991) as cited by Zhang and Oczkowski (2016:159) refer to it as the degree to which an expatriate is willing and able to become involved in and properly interact with host country nationals. Furthermore, Black, *et al.* (1991) as cited by Harzing and Pennington (2014:169) state that socio-cultural adjustment encompasses two main components, namely anticipatory adjustment and in-country adjustment. Black, *et al.* (1991) as cited by Harzing and Pennington (2014:169) assert that these two components help most expatriates to have realistic expectations about the host country. According to Black, *et al.* (1991) as cited by Harzing and Pennington (2014:169), *anticipatory adjustment* refers to the series of actions that need to be taken before an expatriate leaves the home country. For Li (2015:18), anticipatory adjustment prepares an expatriate before his or her departure to the host country. *In-country adjustment*, on the other hand, refers to issues that take place when the expatriate is already in the host country (Li, 2015:18). Given that this research study focusses on expatriate academics who took their own initiative to expatriate, undergoing particular training in preparation for an

overseas assignment might not apply to expatriate academics; since many scholars contend that self-selected expatriates seldom have pre-departure training, unlike multinational expatriates (Reynolds, 2005:60; Selmer and Luring, 2011:2055). In addition, Black, *et al.* (1991) as cited by Harzing and Pennington (2014:169) and Selmer and Luring (2014:423) claim that in-country adjustment is multi-faceted and encompasses three facets, including general adjustment, interaction adjustment and work adjustment.

- *General adjustment* refers to a process whereby an expatriate familiarises him or herself with the new environment and the local surroundings in the host country. It involves acquainting oneself with entertainment, shopping outlets, the local food, housing conditions, as well as health care facilities (Black, 1988 as cited by Lee *et al.*, 2017:5).
- *Work adjustment* is whereby an expatriate feels comfortable with his or her new work environment, its values and its expectations and familiarises him or herself with the new job responsibilities, the new performance standards and to the type of leadership style (Hu, Wang and Farn, 2011:148).
- *Interaction adjustment* refers to a process through which an expatriate familiarises with and easily relates to the host country nationals and learns to properly interact with local people in the workplace, as well as outside of the work environment (Hu *et al.*, 2011:148).

### **3.3.1.2.3 EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT PROCESS**

Drawing from the holistic view of adjustment of Mc Kenna (2010:281), it is undeniable that the adjustment of expatriates must be viewed as a complex phenomenon as people are different and may therefore have different coping mechanisms in a foreign setting. The degree to which they adjust, the manner in which they adjust and the time needed for their adjustment can differ. As McKenna (2010:281) argues, it will be inaccurate to perceive an adjustment process as a holistic approach. Nevertheless, Dowling, Festing and Engle (2013:130) identify four phases in expatriates' adjustment process, namely:

- The first phase is referred to as the "honeymoon" or "tourist" phase. According to Dowling, *et al.* (2013:130), this phase starts before the assignment in

which expatriates experience mixed emotions such as anxiety, excitement and fear. According to Dowling, *et al.* (2013:130), this stage can last from a few weeks to months before the novelty phase diminishes. Then starts the feelings of disillusionment in which the expatriate experiences some crisis as he or she starts to feel the challenges of the new environment.

- The second phase is a critical stage as the expatriate experiences ‘cultural shock’ and homesickness. Phase two is critical for the way an expatriate copes with psychological adjustment. Scholars point out that this phase can determine the success or the failure of the assignment, as well as intention to quit or to return home (Dowling *et al.* 2013:130; Morschett, Schramm-Klein and Zentes, 2015:519).
- The third phase is identified as “pulling up” as the expatriate tries to overcome the acculturation crisis and begins to adjust to the new environment (Dowling *et al.*, 2013:130; Morschett *et al.*, 2015:519).
- The fourth phase is referred as the “healthy recovery” phase wherein the expatriate has familiarized himself or herself to the new environment and begins to appreciate some of the novelties in the host country (Dowling *et al.*, 2013:130)

#### **3.3.1.2.4 EXPATRIATES’ ADJUSTMENT AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

The extent to which expatriates are embedded in the host country can be influential in their decision to stay or to leave. Having tied links in the workplace with colleagues, interacting with host nationals and being able to fit into the job and the new environment can ease the adjustment of expatriates. Accordingly, Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) as cited by Tanova and Ajayi (2016:54) state that expatriates that are embedded in the host country are likely to stay and have little intention to repatriate. Various scholars found that the inability of expatriates to adjust in the new location was the primary cause of their failure in their assignments (Pinto *et al.*, 2012:188; Tharenou and Caulfield as cited by Tanova and Ajayi, 2016:54; Lee *et al.*, 2017:2). In the literature on the management of expatriates, “failure in assignment” denotes an early return to the home country or to resignation (Schoepp, 2011:61). In the context of expatriate academics who took the initiative to expatriate,

it is assumed that failure in the assignment means leaving the job or prematurely returning to the home country.

Thus, in their investigation of the value of self-esteem, job satisfaction and adjustment on turnover intentions on a group of 182 expatriate teachers employed in the Caribbean Island government schools, Richardson, von Kirchenheim and Richardson (2006:889) reported that adjustment negatively correlated with teachers' turnover intentions. The results implied that teachers that were well adjusted to the Caribbean life style were less inclined to leave. Likewise, the study conducted by Zhu, Wanberg, Harrison and Diehn (2016:559) on 179 expatriates working in 38 different countries reportedly found a negative correlation between work adjustment and expatriates' intent to leave their organization. In their study conducted on 267 Chinese expatriates employed in the hospitality industry in Korea, Kim, Choi and Li (2016:7) also indicated a negative correlation between socio-cultural adjustment and Chinese expatriates' turnover intentions. Inversely, Tanova and Ajayi (2016:47) investigated the relationship between socio-cultural adjustment and intention to stay amongst 85 academic expatriates working at five different Universities in North Cyprus. Their results indicated that there was no relationship between work adjustment and general adjustment with intention to stay. However, a positive correlation was recorded between interaction adjustment and expatriate academics' intent to stay. Thus, the positive correlation suggested that interaction with host country nationals predicted expatriate academics' intent to stay or to leave (Tanova and Ajayi, 2016:61). Likewise, Lo, Wang, Yam and Whitfield (2012:4224) investigated the relationship between self-selected expatriates' job embeddedness with shocks and turnover intentions. The study concluded that there were negative correlations between host country organization embeddedness and self-selected expatriates' turnover intentions. The findings imply that the less self-selected expatriates could adapt to the host country organization, the more likely was their intent to leave.

In contrast, the study by Kim and Slocum Jr (2008:121) conducted on 88 Korean engineering managers working in the USA found no correlation between interaction adjustment with intent to leave. Likewise, in their assessment of the relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and general satisfaction with the assignment and withdrawal behavior amongst a sample of 166 expatriates working in 39 different

countries, Pinto, Cabral-Cardoso and Werther Jr (2012:196) reported that the three factors of adjustment (interaction, general, work adjustment) were not related to expatriates' intention to withdraw from their organization. Interestingly, the study by Pinto, *et al.* (2012:196) revealed that expatriates who could not adjust to their assignment were likely to withdraw. Similarly, Parnian, Hosseini and Fen (2013:124) found no relationship between the decision to remain or leave with personal adjustment amongst 165 expatriate academics in Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.

In sum, the above review of the literature on the effect of expatriates' adjustment on their intention to leave revealed contrasting findings. Some studies revealed that expatriate adjustment negatively correlated with turnover intent (Richardson *et al.*, 2006:887; Zhu *et al.*, 2015:59). Other studies found that expatriate adjustment and turnover intent were not related (Pinto *et al.*, 2012:196; Kim and Slocum Jr, 2016:121). It can be argued that the incongruence of the results may be due to other moderating influencing factors such as experience in overseas assignments, similarities between home and host countries, family adjustment or biographical differences amongst expatriates. For instance, previous overseas assignments were found to ease the adjustment of expatriates and, in turn, lessens turnover intentions (Schoepp, 2011:68). Tanova and Ajayi (2016:61) claimed that similarities between the home and host countries can facilitate the adjustment of expatriates in the host country. Furthermore, scholars indicated that expatriates' families had an impact on expatriates' abilities to adjust in the host country (Schoepp, 2011:68; Amir *et al.*, 2013:127). Additionally, biographical differences amongst expatriates were also reported to influence expatriates' adjustment and consequently predicted their turnover intent (Lawrence *et al.*, 2014:518; Awang *et al.*, 2016:151).

### **3.3.1.3 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND EXPATRIATES' INTENTION TO LEAVE**

Researchers postulate that one of the causes of turnover is the lack of organizational commitment (Gill *et al.*, 2013:848; Kaur *et al.*, 2013:1220). It is without doubt that employee turnover can be very costly for organizations (Daly and Dee, 2006:778; Zahra *et al.*, 2013:85; Kim, 2015:139). Therefore, organizations will not want to lose employees, especially hard-working and talented individuals/expatriates. However, scholars emphasize that organizations are

sometimes reluctant and doubtful about the level of commitment of expatriates (Rodriguez and Scurry, 2014 as cited by Awang *et al.*, (2016:152). Nonetheless, Awang, *et al.* (2016:151) and Ababneh (2016:14) suggest that the commitment of employees in general and of expatriates in particular stems from mutual trust and value between an employee and the organization in which both parties' expectations are met. Organizational commitment is perceived as one of the significant constructs for employees in organizations. The level of attachment or ties that employees feel towards their organizations can influence turnover intent. Meyer and Allen (1991) as cited by Wang, *et al.* (2016:152) claim that affective and continuance commitment positively relate to intention to remain in the organization. Greenberg (2011:234) asserts that committed employees are less likely to withdraw from the organization.

Previously, many scholars have hypothesized and proposed conceptual models on the predictive effect of organizational commitment on employees' turnover intent (Bluedorn, 1982:138; Price and Mueller, 1986 as cited by Saridakis and Cooper, 2016:45; Hom and Griffeth, 1995). Romanowski and Nasser (2014:667) and Austin, Chapman, Farah, Wilson and Ridge (2014:138) described the influence of organizational commitment on expatriates' turnover intentions. Furthermore, the study by Goodwin and Preiss (2010:55) on the factors surrounding the retention of host country nationals and expatriates in the Arabian Gulf found a positive relationship between organizational commitment and Asian expatriates' intent to remain in the organization. In other words, Goodwin and Preiss (2010:55) explained that the higher the level of commitment of Asian expatriates to their organizations, the less they wanted to leave. Likewise, Lawrence, *et al.* (2014:521) indicated that organizational commitment positively correlated with intention to stay in a study conducted on a sample of 347 Asian STEM (Sciences, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics) academics working in the USA. Similarly, Ababneh (2016:19) confirmed that high organizational commitment predicted expatriates' intention to stay when examining the effects of expectations, trust, organizational commitment, job satisfaction and job opportunities on a sample of 249 self-elected expatriate academics employed in Higher Education in the United Arab Emirates.

Regarding turnover intentions, Hu, *et al.* (2011:151) reported a negative correlation between affective commitment and 145 Taiwanese expatriates working in China. The result implied that the more emotionally attached Taiwanese were to their

organizations in China, the less they thought of leaving. Likewise, Hassan and Hashim (2011:90) reported a negative relationship between organizational commitment and expatriate academics' intention to quit in a study conducted in Malaysian universities. Similarly, Spark (2015:71) contended that organizational commitment was negatively related to international faculty members' turnover intent in the short-term or in the long-term in the Urban Public Research University in the United States of America. Surprisingly, the study by Wang, *et al.* (2016:151) concluded that a positive correlation existed between organizational commitment and expatriate academics' turnover intentions in Malaysian universities. The positive correlation implies that the more committed expatriate academics were to their institutions, the higher their intentions to leave (Wang *et al.*, 2016:152). In sum, the empirical findings above are inconclusive about the predictive effect of organizational commitment on expatriates' intent to leave.

#### **3.3.1.4 JOB SATISFACTION AND EXPATRIATES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Given all the challenges that living far from one's homeland and family may bring about, keeping expatriates satisfied can be a daunting exercise. In fact, the job satisfaction of expatriates has been over-emphasized in the literature on international human resource management (Akhtar *et al.*, 2015:655; Holland *et al.*, 2015:17). Factors such as working conditions, perceived fairness in human resource practices such as compensation, promotion, rewards and expatriate support and involvement in decision-making have been identified to affect the job satisfaction of expatriates and consequently caused their premature departure or intent to depart (Pinto *et al.*, 2012:196; Amir *et al.*, 2013:128; Lawrence *et al.*, 2014:521; Kim *et al.*, 2016:7).

##### **3.3.1.4.1 SATISFACTION WITH WORKING CONDITIONS (WORK OVERLOAD, WORK EXHAUSTION) AND EXPATRIATES' TURNOVER INTENT**

Scholars have theorized on the effect of satisfaction with working conditions on employees' turnover intentions. Hulin, *et al.* (1985) as cited by Barling and Cooper (2008:199) have developed the Labour Economic Model in which they assumed that work-role outcomes such as working conditions affect an individual's job satisfaction and results in intention to quit. Lawrence, *et al.* (2014:519) outlined the impact of the work environment on turnover intentions of Asians academics working in the USA.



Ashraf and Joarder (2010:171) concluded in their Talent Retention model that talented employees are likely to stay in a conducive work environment.

- **EFFECT OF WORK OVERLOAD ON EXPATRIATE EMPLOYEES' TURNOVER INTENTION**

The overwhelming amount of work allocated to some expatriates has been addressed in the literature. Studies have reported on the high volumes of work encountered by expatriates in their foreign postings (Fernandes and Awamleh, 2006:708; Hu *et al.*, 2011:147; Zhang and Harzing, 2016:782). McNulty and Selmer (2017:343) state that expatriates' heavy workloads can lead to adverse effects such as poor job engagement, low commitment and low job satisfaction. Research postulates that commitment and job satisfaction have a direct effect on turnover intentions (Holland *et al.*, 2016:17; Ababneh, 2016:14). A case study conducted by Yeo (2012:194) on 14 expatriate academics from the University of Leicester revealed that excessive workload predicted expatriates' turnover intentions. Ababneh's (2016:19) study indicated that workload, classified as one of the facets of the variable "Met expectations" was significantly related to expatriates' intent to stay through job satisfaction amongst expatriate academics in a Higher Education Institution in the UAE.

- **INFLUENCE OF WORK EXHAUSTION ON EXPATRIATE EMPLOYEES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Studies reported that work exhaustion is usually the result of high work overload (Ahuja, 2007 as cited by Hu *et al.*, 2011:148). According to Siddiqui and Jamil (2015:163), excessive stress and mental exhaustion are major determinants of employees' turnover intentions.

In the context of expatriates, the former study of Bhanugopan and Fish (2006:461) aimed at assessing job burnout amongst 189 expatriate managers in Papua New Guinea found a significant positive relationship between burnout and expatriates' intention to quit. Likewise, Hu, *et al.*'s (2011:151) study on 145 Taiwanese expatriates working in China reported a positive correlation between work exhaustion and turnover intentions. the positive correlation suggest that the more Taiwanese felt drained in their work, the higher their intention to leave. The recent

study conducted by Andresen, Goldmann and Volodina (2017:8) on “the effects of sensory processing, sensitivity, stress and social capital on expatriates’ turnover intentions” concluded that the perceived stress positively related to expatriates’ turnover intentions.

#### **3.3.1.4.2 SATISFACTION WITH FAIR COMPENSATION, EQUAL PROMOTION OPPORTUNITIES AND PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING AND EXPATRIATES’ TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Contemporary literature on international human resource management has revealed various factors that stimulate the turnover intentions of expatriate employees. It is worth noting that many of these factors discussed below are also found to influence the turnover intentions of academic employees presented in the previous section. However, as mentioned earlier, the reviews of the factors predicting the turnover intentions of both academics and expatriate employees are used as a platform to determine the factors that can determine the turnover intentions of expatriate academics.

##### **• EFFECT OF COMPENSATION ON EXPATRIATES’ TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

The remuneration of expatriates in their assignments has been a priority in the literature. Foreign assignments are often related to financial benefits. Suutari (2003) contends that the differences in the cost of living and the ways expatriates are compensated can have a great impact on their level of comfort. While it is perceived that multinational expatriates are well compensated, the hypothesis cannot hold for self-selected expatriates. Inadequate compensation can have adverse effects on expatriates’ behaviour. Thus, many studies found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and expatriates’ turnover intentions (Richardson *et al.*, 2006:888; Schoepp, 2011:73; Puangyoykeaw and Nishide, 2015:107; Akhtar *et al.*, 2015:655; Holland *et al.*, 2015:17; Ababneh, 2016:20; Kim *et al.*, 2016:7). Richardson, *et al.*’s (2016:888) empirical study investigated the value of self-esteem and pay satisfaction on the adjustment and turnover intentions amongst 182 North American and UK teachers employed in schools in the Caribbean Islands. The study found that pay satisfaction negatively correlated with turnover intentions. They explained that teachers that felt satisfied with their pay had no intentions to leave. Hu, *et al.*’s

(2011:151) also indicated that pay satisfaction lessens turnover intentions in their study conducted on Taiwanese expatriates in China. Likewise, Akhtar, *et al.* (2015:655) reported a negative relationship between satisfaction with remuneration and expatriate academics employed in private business schools in Okara, Pakistan. Equally, the study by Kim, *et al.* (2016:7) revealed a negative correlation between pay satisfaction and Chinese expatriates employed in the hospitality sector in South Korea. Inversely, some scholars investigated the relationship between satisfaction with compensation and expatriates' intentions to stay with organizations. These studies commonly found that expatriates who were satisfied with their remuneration had intentions to remain with their organizations (Schoepp, 2011:73; Lawrence, 2014:519; Holland *et al.*, 2015:17; Ababneh, 2016:20). However, Puangyoykeaw and Nishide (2015:107) found no relationship between satisfaction with pay and turnover intentions amongst 400 expatriates working in seafood processing companies in Thailand. Surprisingly, the empirical study conducted by Habhab and Smith (2014:10) on expatriate academics in private universities in Saudi Arabia reported a positive correlation between satisfaction with pay and turnover intentions. Habhab and Smith's (2014:10) findings are unparalleled with most studies that empirically highlight that pay satisfaction reduces turnover intentions.

- **SATISFACTION WITH PROMOTION OPPORTUNITIES AND EXPATRIATES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Empirical studies found that the perception of unfairness in the promotion process significantly related to expatriates' turnover intentions (Schoepp, 2011:74; Ababneh, 2016:20). These studies suggested that expatriates who felt that promotion was based on merit had no intention to leave. Schoepp's (2011:74) study found that one of the factors that predicted intention to leave amongst a sample of 364 foreign academics in public universities in the UAE was the fact that the promotion process was not fair; it was not based on merit; and Emiratis were favoured compared to expatriates. Ababneh (2016:20) also found that the promotion process in Higher Education in the UAE did not meet expatriates' expectations and therefore predicted their intentions to leave.

- **EXPATRIATES' SATISFACTION WITH PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING AND INTENTIONS TO LEAVE**

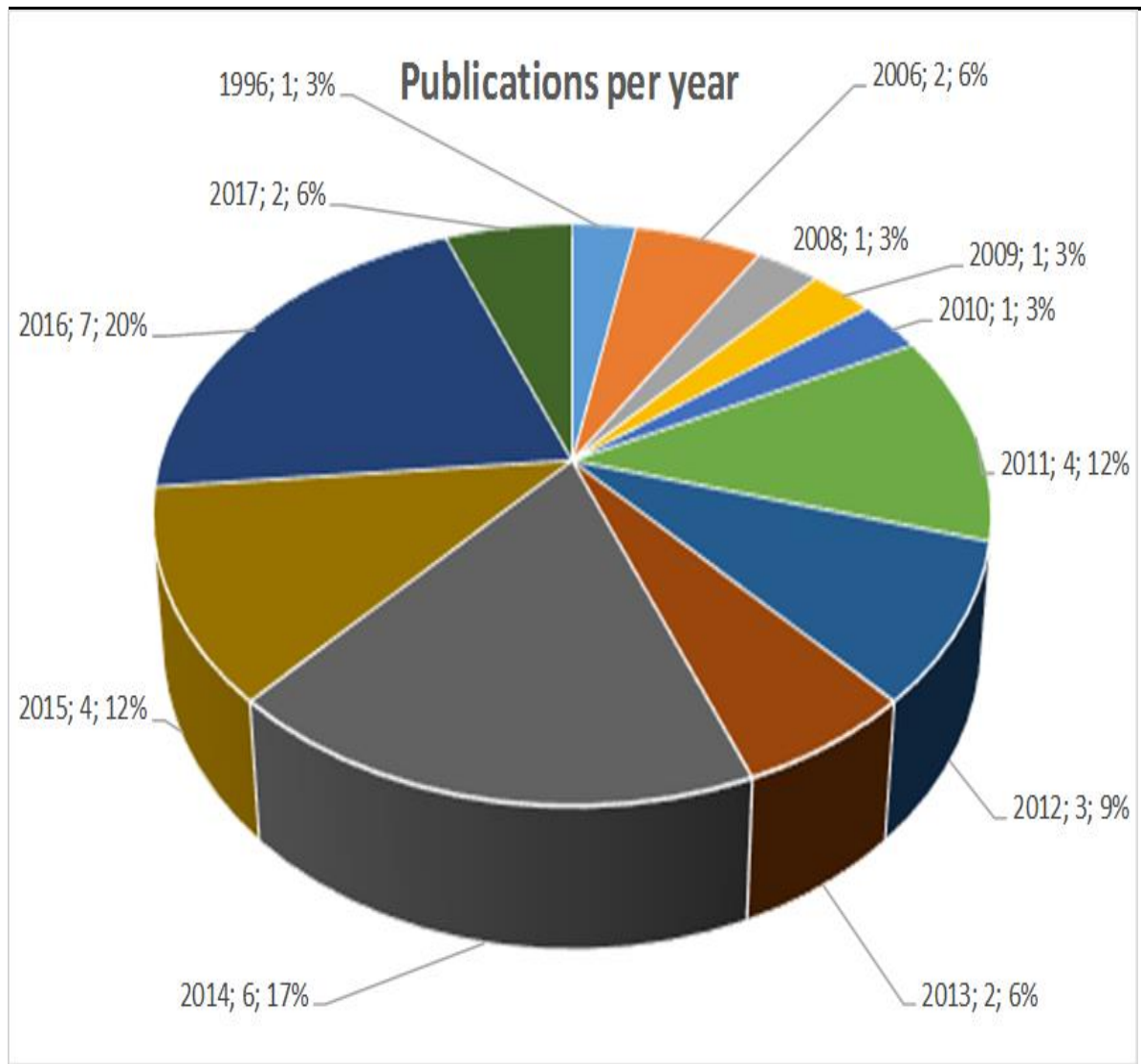
Greenberg (2011:69) contends that having a voice in the making of decisions in an organization is one of the effects of perceived fairness in the organization. The study conducted by Schoepp (2011:73) on 364 faculty members in four of the United Arab Emirates Public Higher Education Institutions revealed that the fact that expatriates were voiceless in institutional governance predicted their intentions to leave. Similarly, the empirical study of Amir, *et al.* (2013:127) on 30 expatriate academics randomly selected from the Universiti Teknologi Malaysia found that Non-HRM matters such as being voiceless in decision-making processes significantly contributed to the motivation of expatriate academics to leave or to stay in their current positions. Holland, *et al.* (2015:18) also revealed the negative effect that being voiceless in decision-making had on expatriate faculty members working in the USA who had intentions to leave their institutions.

In sum, the review of the literature reveals that satisfaction with various job aspects predicts expatriates' turnover intentions. Other studies highlighted factors such as unfairness in expatriates' treatment as compared to locals (Hassan and Hashim, 2011:90), job insecurity (Kim *et al.*, 2012:41) and organisational characteristics (Alshammari, 2013:33; Spark, 2015:69) as predicting expatriates' turnover intentions.

### **3.3.2 SUMMARY OF THE REVIEW OF EXPATRIATES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

As a result of the limited research on expatriates' turnover intentions, this present study reviewed thirty-four (34) empirical studies investigating the different predictors of expatriates' intent to leave. From the review, it is portrayed that most of the empirical studies on expatriates' intent to leave were recent publications. As presented in Figure 3.8 below, fifty-five percent (55%) of the empirical research on expatriates' intent to quit was conducted between 2014 and 2017, whilst three percent (3%) was conducted in the year 2000.

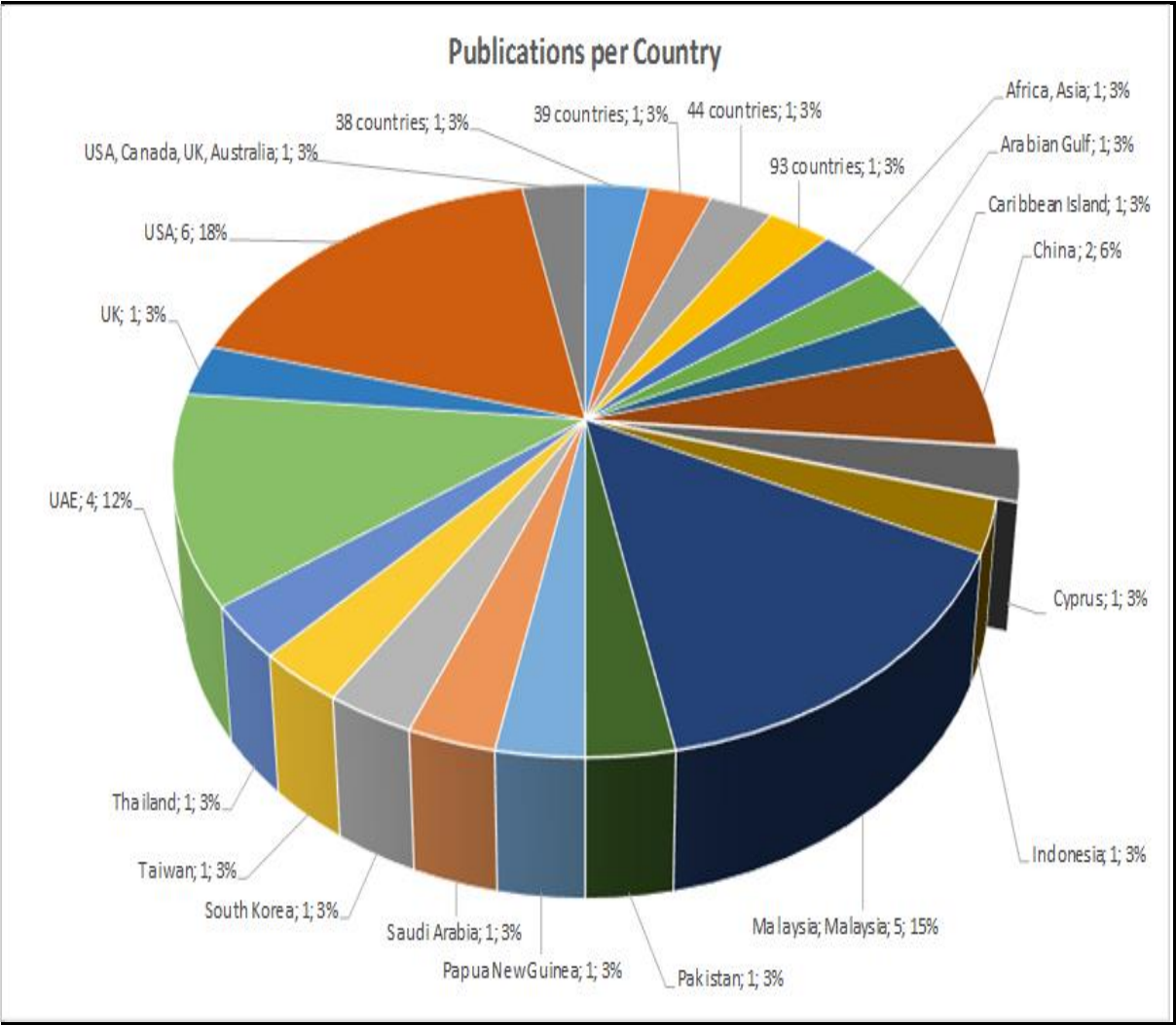
**FIGURE 3.8 PUBLICATIONS PER YEAR**



**Source:** Self-Generated. (2017)

Additionally, these empirically studies were conducted in different countries across different continents, as portrayed in Figure 3.9. However, other studies such as that of Stahl, *et al.* (2009); Pinto, *et al.* (2012); and Zhu, *et al.* (2015) were comparative studies conducted across different host countries. As perceived in Figure 3.9 below, the African continent only accounts for three percent of the total empirical studies. This clearly portrays that there is limited research conducted on turnover intentions of expatriate employees, hence the importance of this empirical study.

**FIGURE 3.9 EMPIRICAL STUDIES PER COUNTRY**

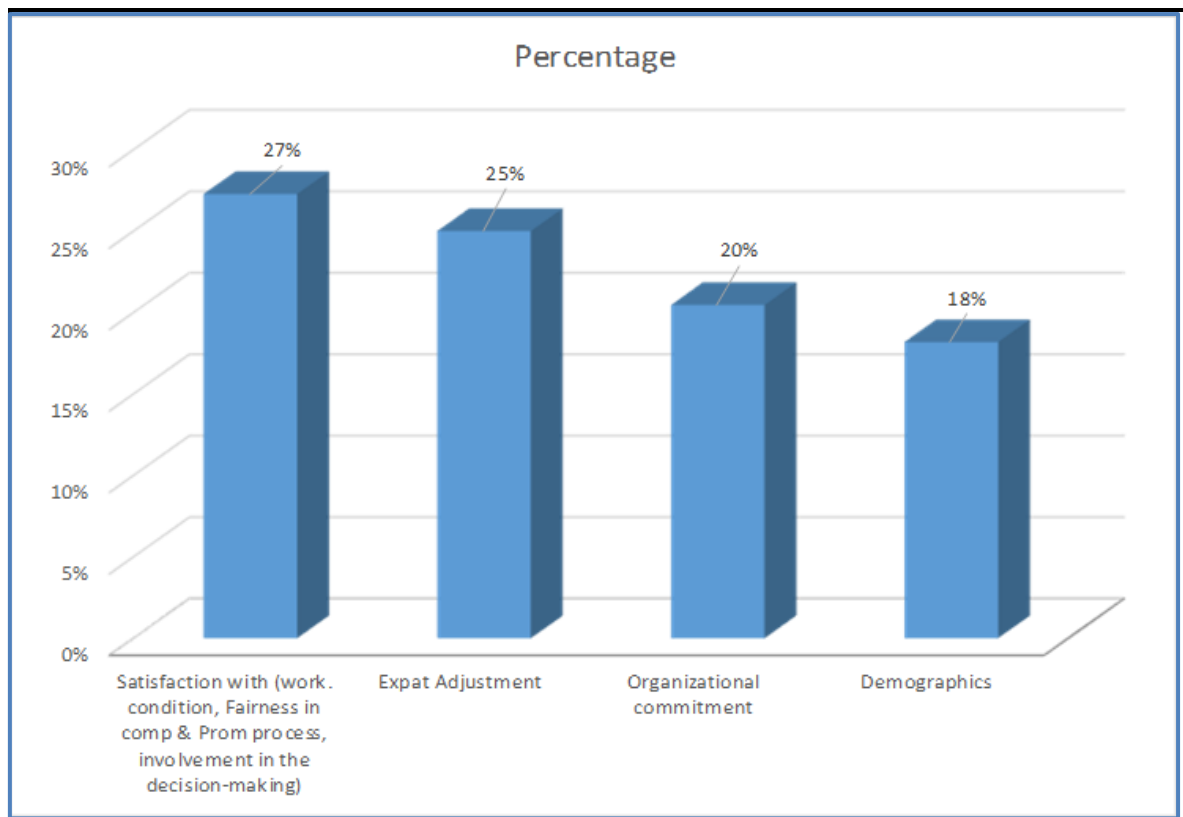


**Source:** Self-Generated. (2017).

### 3.3.2.1 PROPORTION OF THE PREDICTORS OF EXPATRIATES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS

Furthermore, Figure 3.10 presents the ratio of the most common predictors of expatriates' turnover intent as identified in the review of the empirical studies. These factors include organizational commitment, expatriate adjustment, demographics and expatriates' satisfaction with working conditions, workload, compensation, fairness in the promotion process and input or voice in decision-making. Figure 3.10 depicts that many studies, twenty-seven percent (27%), assessed the impact of the different components of satisfaction on expatriates' turnover intentions. It is also noticed from Figure 3.10 that the effect of adjustment (twenty-five percent; 25%) on expatriates' turnover intentions has also been vastly explored. In addition, the effect of organizational commitment (twenty percent; 20%) and of demographics (eighteen percent; 18%) on expatriates' turnover intentions were also considerably examined.

**FIGURE 3.10 RATIOS OF PREDICTORS OF EXPATRIATES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

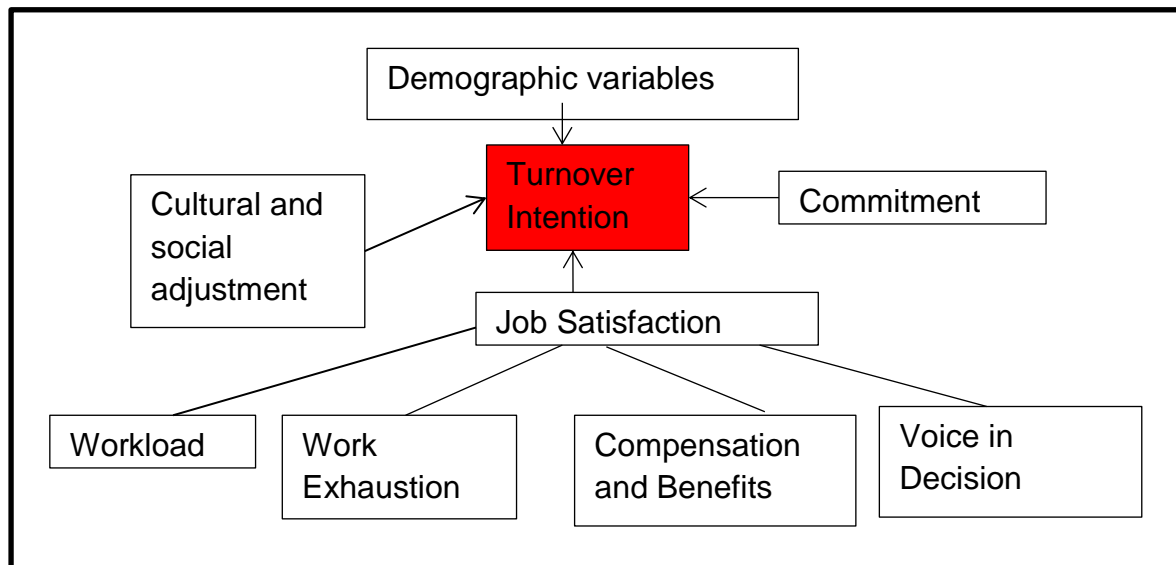


**Source:** Self-Generated. (2017).

### 3.3.2.2 THEORETICAL REPRESENTATION OF THE PREDICTORS OF EXPATRIATES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS

Figure 3.11 below presents a graphical representation of the factors that were found to have the most significant impact on expatriates' turnover intentions.

**FIGURE 3.11 FACTORS PREDICTING EXPATRIATES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**



**Source:** Self-Generated. (2017).

### 3.3.3 OVERVIEW OF THE PREDICTORS OF TURNOVER INTENTION

This chapter has extensively reviewed the empirical studies of the factors predicting turnover intentions of academic and expatriate employees. These factors are recapitulated in Figure 3.7 and Figure 3.11. Interestingly, the review of the empirical studies noted various factors stimulating the turnover intentions of both academics and expatriate employees. As depicted in Figure 3.7. and in Figure 3.11 above, these factors include demographic variables, satisfaction with compensation and benefits, organisational commitment and working conditions. Moreover, the review of the literature revealed that the variable 'adjustment' was an outlier as it was found in empirical studies unique to expatriate employees.



### **3.4 CONCLUSION**

This chapter provided an extensive review of the empirical studies on the predictors of turnover intentions of two types of employees, namely academic and expatriate employees. As mentioned earlier, there were very limited studies on expatriate academics' turnover intentions. Thus, given that an expatriate academic is considered as both an academic and an expatriate employee, the empirical studies on academics and on expatriate employees provided a platform for the researcher to probe the factors that may predict the turnover intentions of expatriate academics. As perceived in this chapter, many factors were highlighted to predict turnover intention. However, the variable 'job satisfaction' was emphasized as various theories and model of turnover and turnover intentions intensely hypothesized and established a strong correlation between the antecedents of job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Furthermore, the chapter highlighted the similarities amongst the predictors of turnover intentions of academics and expatriate employees. Moreover, this chapter provided a ground to develop the conceptual framework of the predictors of turnover intentions of expatriate academics presented in the next chapter.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **FORMULATION OF A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK ON THE PREDICTORS OF TURNOVER INTENTION OF EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS AT SELECTED UNIVERSITIES IN KWAZULU- NATAL**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

Despite the scarcity of academics in many countries, education remains an important factor for the development of society. As a result, institutions are prepared to go beyond borders to acquire skilled academics. South African Higher Education institutions are no exception. Within the context of this scarcity, it would be detrimental for institutions if academics leave prematurely. However, inhibiting employees from leaving when the decision has already been made can be difficult. Therefore, determining the factors that can trigger employees' intentions to leave appears to be a more proactive approach. Hence, Mobley (1979) as quoted by Jha (2009:27) contends that it is wise for organisations to assess these intentions as it can indicate individuals' decisions. Likewise, Rizwan, Shahid, Shafiq, Tabassum, Bari and Umer (2013:65) and Park (2015:8) assert that studying turnover intentions can provide accurate causes of people leaving. Moreover, turnover intention is perceived as the main precursor of actual turnover (Xu, 2008:610; Hassan and Hashim, 2011:85, Park, 2015:8).

Arising from the literature review presented, this chapter presents an original formulation of a conceptual framework and the variables related to the turnover intentions of expatriate academics of the institutions under study. Before the actual conceptual framework, the study attempts to elucidate the meaning of 'conceptual framework', Then highlight its importance, its design and the types of variables usually found in a conceptual framework. Factors encompassing the conceptual framework of this study are thereafter discussed and the chapter ends with a brief summary.

## **4.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK DEFINED**

Maxwell (2005:51) describes the conceptual framework as a 'concept map', which he perceives as a visual display that uses text boxes to present constructs and arrows or lines to portray the relationships between the constructs. Jabareen (2009:51) visualizes it as a "plane", with interrelated concepts that provide a broad understanding of the phenomena under study. Maxwell (2013:39) defines the conceptual framework as a system encompassing "concepts, assumptions, expectations, beliefs and theories that support and inform the research". Miles, Huberman and Saldaña (2014:20) highlight that it is a document that either explains graphically or in narrative form the key factors, variables or concepts encapsulated in the study, as well as their presumed relationships. According to Tamene (2016:51), a conceptual framework is an interlinked system of assumptions, expectations and beliefs that guides the research, provides an overview of the phenomenon and bridges the gap between theory and empirical research. From the above descriptions, the conceptual framework is perceived as a structure that presents the synthesis of the literature of the research study and guides the researcher towards achieving the objectives of the study.

## **4.3 IMPORTANCE OF A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK IN RESEARCH**

Caliendo and Kyle (1996:226) state that the conceptual framework adds value to the study as the research can be validated as being of quality. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000:12) contend that the conceptual framework can provide evidence as it is usually grounded in empirical research. Maxwell (2005:47) perceives the conceptual framework as a 'Concept mapping', which is a useful technique that visually displays constructs and the relationship between these constructs. Abd-El-Khalick and Akerson (2007:188) believe that it is important for the researcher to use the devices embedded in grounded theory to guide research. Maxwell (2013:39) claims that the conceptual framework helps the researcher to rationalize the research study, develop research questions and evaluate the goals of the study. Likewise, Grant and Osanloo (2014:17) state that the conceptual framework provides a visual display on how ideas in the study are related and it helps the researcher to "identify and construct his or her worldview and approach for the study". According to Sharon, Ravitch and Carl (2015), one of the major roles of the

conceptual framework is to help the researcher examine and understand the cultural, social, economic, political and ideological context of the research. The above summary points out that developing a conceptual framework gives credibility to the research study as it visually portrays what the study intends to achieve.

#### **4.4 TYPES OF VARIABLES FOUND IN A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

Conceptual frameworks usually encompass different variables. However, the four main types of variables include the dependent variable, the independent variable, the moderating and the mediating variables. Also known as the criterion variable, the *dependent variable* is of primary interest for the researcher as it is the central variable that the researcher seeks to understand and explain (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:79). The *independent variable* or the predictor variable is the one that influences the dependent variable and explains the variance in the dependent variable. While the *moderating variable* modifies the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable, the *mediating or intervening variable* surfaces between the independent and dependent variables in order to help explain the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:79).

Therefore, the conceptual framework of this research study contains one main dependent variable, namely 'turnover intention' and eight independent variables, including demographics; institutional characteristics; job satisfaction; organisational commitment; organisational justice; perceived job opportunities; expatriate adjustment; and retention strategies. These eight predictors are assumed to influence the concept of 'turnover intention'. Furthermore, the variable 'job satisfaction' also appears as a mediator between 'organisational justice', 'talent retentions strategies', 'Institutional characteristics', 'perceived job opportunity' and turnover intentions. In addition, the variable 'commitment' is a mediator between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The next section presents the afore-mentioned variables and their inter connections.

#### **4.5 GUIDELINES IN DEVELOPING A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

The conceptual framework usually stems from the theories, models and literature review underpinning the research study. Maxwell (2013:41) asserts that the conceptual framework is something that is built. It is not found ready-made. Furthermore, Maxwell (2013:41) identifies four sources of a conceptual framework, namely the researcher's experiential knowledge; the existing theories; the pilot and exploratory research; and "thought experiments". In addition, Vaughan (2008:4) emphasizes that in developing a conceptual model, a clear visual representation of the phenomenon being addressed should be provided. Furthermore, the connections amongst the variables contributing to the phenomenon under study should be depicted and the relationships amongst variables should be shown using visual clues such as colour, shape and size, etc. Additionally, Maxwell (2013:41) asserts that the researcher must carefully review the existing theories and empirical research when designing a conceptual framework.

Notwithstanding the criteria for developing a conceptual framework proposed by Maxwell (2013:41), the conceptual model of this study adopted the guidelines provided by Ravitch and Riggan (2016:26), stating that:

- The conceptual framework should encompass the personal interests and goals which drive the researcher into the study;
- It must embrace the identity and positionality of the researcher, which are shaped by the researcher's social location and life experience; and
- It should convey the rationale and inquisitiveness of the researcher, which are strengthened through the review of the literature and theoretical frameworks relevant to the study.

Thus, the main personal interest of the researcher in this study was the retention of expatriate academics in Higher Education Institutions. This sparked the need to probe why it seems difficult to retain expatriate academics in Higher Education Institutions and to investigate the factors that cause turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics. Furthermore, having interacted with many expatriate academics who have worked in quite a few Higher Education Institutions in South Africa, also prompted the researcher to investigate the reasons that drive them to

leave their institutions. Moreover, the limited research on turnover intentions in Higher Education Institutions in general and on international academics employed in South African Universities in particular, also contributed to developing the conceptual framework underpinning this research study.

In determining the constructs encompassing the framework of this study, the researcher proceeded with an intensive review of the literature as espoused in the previous chapter, which led to the discovery of relevant turnover intentions models and empirical studies. This in turn provided a platform of many factors that the researcher needed to select, based on their relevance to the current study and the fact that they were cited many times. This finally yielded the selection of eight constructs that were mapped on the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1).

#### **4.6 PRESENTATION ON THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK ON THE PREDICTORS OF TURNOVER INTENTION OF EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS AT SELECTED UNIVERSITIES IN KWAZULU-NATAL**

The conceptual framework for this study is an amalgam of the research questions that this study seeks to answer, the inclusion of previous empirical studies and of the various turnover intentions and talent retention models presented in preceding chapters. Drawing from previous scholars, the conceptual framework of the present research study intends to fill the gap in the literature. To date, the researcher has no record of a framework investigating the predictors of turnover intentions of expatriate academics in the two South African institutions under study. Furthermore, in an effort to contribute to the existing body of knowledge, the researcher has added the concepts 'Talent retention strategies' and 'Adjustment' as part of underscoring the predictors of turnover intentions of expatriate academics.

Thus, the formulation of the conceptual framework presented in Figure 4.1 portrays a visual graphical display of shapes presenting the key concepts and arrows showing the relationships between these concepts. The framework depicts three types of arrows: thick double arrows, bold arrows and dashed arrows, shown as a legend in Figure 4.1.

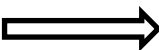


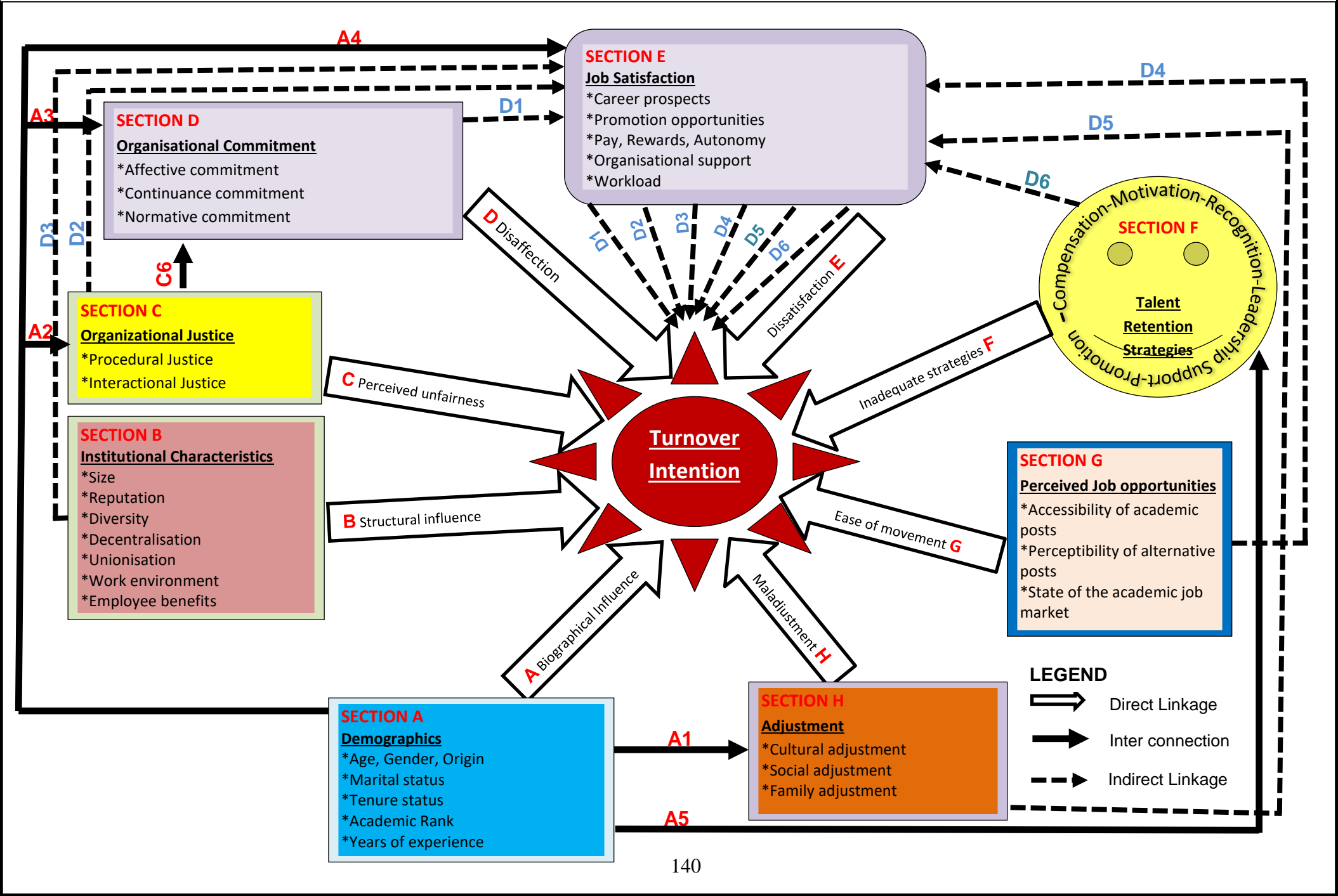
-  The thick double arrows show a direct relationship between the independent and the dependent variables.
-  The bold arrows depict the relationship that exists between the variables.
-  The dashed arrows portray the indirect relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable, explained by the mediating variable.

FIGURE 4.1 Conceptual Framework on the Predictors of Turnover Intention of Expatriate Academics at Selected Universities in KwaZulu-Natal





#### **4.6.1 DESCRIPTION OF VARIABLES UNDERPINNING THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY**

Given that expatriate academics belong to two different categories of employees, namely ‘academics’ and ‘expatriates’, the empirical studies of expatriates and of academic employees, together with the theoretical framework on turnover intentions presented in the preceding chapters, provided a platform of many factors influencing turnover intentions. In order to restrict the scope, eight factors were selected. Seven of these factors, namely ‘job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational justice, talent retention strategies, demographics, institutional characteristics and perceived job opportunities’ were selected because they were hypothesized by many scholars and were often cited in many empirical studies on turnover intentions. The variable ‘adjustment’ (Section H) is an outlier in the sense that it is only found in the empirical studies for international human resources. Thus, this study presents the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) depicting the above factors with their inter-related connections. According to Vaughan (2008:3), a content conceptual framework sets out variables and their relationships, which together answer the ‘why?’ question.

The dependent variable ‘turnover intention’ depicted in the centre of the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) is the core variable of the research study. This core variable is portrayed in the form of a ‘wheel’. The core, representing the variable ‘turnover intention’; is presented with arrows which are aligned to the other main components (i.e. sections A, B, C, D, E, F, G and H). The variable ‘turnover intention’ is the main variable in this study as it can be detrimental for institutions to lose talented employees that they strived diligently to attract. Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) as cited by Park (2015:1) perceive turnover as a curse for institutions in the sense that it has adverse effects, such as loss of financial and social capital.

Figure 4.1 also shows eight independent variables with their constructs presented in different shapes clustered into sections ranging from Section A to Section H. Some of the variables are presented with a similar colour, which implies their commonalities. For instance, job satisfaction in Section E and organisational commitment in Section D have an identical colour because they are both work-related attitude variables. Likewise, organisational justice in Section C and talent retention strategies depicted in Section F have the same colour as they are both organisational attitude variables. The

demographics shown in Section A are perceived as personal variables; the institutional characteristics (Section B) are structural variables; the perceived job opportunities in Section G are considered as an external variable; and social and cultural adjustment (Section H) as a contextual variable because it pertains to the circumstances in which expatriate academics find themselves.

The conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) also presents direct interlinkages between the variables portrayed with bold arrows and the indirect linkages between turnover intention and the variables shown with dashed arrows. The following sections further explain the linkages presented in Figure 4.1.

#### **4.6.2 DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES**

The conceptual model above (Figure 4.1) presents the demographic variables in Section A with the constructs, namely age, gender, origin, qualification, tenure status, marital status, academic rank and years of experience. Furthermore, Figure 4.1 presents two different types of arrows connecting the demographics in Section A with other variables. It is worth mentioning that all arrows marked A are derived from Section A (demographics).

Thus, the double thick arrow marked A shows the linkage between the demographics Section A and the core variable 'turnover intention'. This indicates the direct impact that demographics have on expatriate academics' turnover intentions. This proposes that biographical variables predict expatriate academics' intentions to leave their institutions. However, the influence of demographics on turnover intentions were already hypothesized in the Expanded Model of Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino (1979) and in the Causal Model of Faculty Turnover Intentions proposed by Smart (1990:410) which claimed that constructs such as 'age' and 'gender' influence turnover intentions. Zhou and Volkwein's (2004:14) Faculty Turnover Model and Rosser and Townsend's (2006:129) Empirical Model of Faculty Intent to leave concurred that biographical variables such as 'age' and 'gender' affect academics' turnover intentions. The above models postulated that the older employees grow, the less they intend to leave. Likewise, the construct 'tenure status' and 'academic rank' as depicted in Section A (Figure 4.1) were hypothesized to predict turnover intentions (Smart, 1990:410; Zhou and Volkwein, 2004:14; Rosser and Townsend, 2006:125). The models claimed that high academic rank and permanent status lessened turnover

intentions. With regard to the construct years of experience or length of service depicted in Figure 4.1 (Section A), the Faculty Turnover Intention Model of Zhou and Volkwein (2004:28) assumed that the number of years spent in an institution can lessen turnover intentions. Similarly, the Conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) shows a direct linkage between marital status (Section A) and 'turnover intention'. The interconnection between marital status and turnover intention was already hypothesized by Bluedorn (1982:138) and Rosser and Townsend (2006:129) who assumed that marital status impacts on employees' turnover intentions.

Additionally, the interconnection between the demographics and other dependent variables is shown with a bold arrow. Thus, arrow A1 indicates the linkage between the demographics Section A and adjustment Section H. The interconnection of both variables implies that biographical variables have an impact on the adjustment level of expatriate academics. In other words, expatriate academics' demographics can influence their adjustment levels. Naithani and Jha (2009:7) have previously affirmed the linkage between demographics and the adjustment of expatriates.

Furthermore, the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) presents the linkage between demographics Section A and organisational justice Section C, shown by arrow A2. This linkage indicates that the demographics of expatriate academics have an impact on organisational justice. In other words, it implies that expatriate academics' demographics have an influence on their perceptions of fairness. The link between the demographics in Section A and organisational commitment in Section D is also depicted by arrow A3. This connection means that the biographies of expatriate academics have an impact on their levels of commitment to their institutions. Likewise, the linkage between the demographics Section A and job satisfaction Section E is shown through arrow A4. The interconnection means that the demographics of expatriate academics have an influence on their levels of job satisfaction. Figure 4.1 also depicts, through bold arrow A5, a linkage between demographics Section A and talent retention strategies in Section F. The linkage suggests that the demographics of expatriate academics impact on their perceptions of talent retention strategies.

### 4.6.3 INSTITUTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Institutional characteristics depicted in 'Section B' of Figure 4.1 pertain to the size, the reputation, the structure and the internal working environment of expatriate academics in Higher Education Institutions. The conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) portrays a double arrow labelled 'B' that indicates a link between institutional characteristics 'Section B' and the core 'turnover intention'. This linkage implies that the characteristics of the institution are likely to influence expatriate academics' turnover intentions. Previously, Smart's (1990) Causal Model of Faculty Turnover Intentions and Johnsrud and Rosser's (2002) Multilevel Structural Model and Hom, *et al.*'s (2012) model hypothesized on the impact of institutional characteristics on employees' turnover intentions. The above models postulated that the size, the reputation and the working environment of an institution predict turnover intentions. Likewise, the Faculty Turnover Model proposed by Zhou and Volkwein (2004:16) claimed that the size and unionization of an institution influence turnover intention.

Additionally, Figure 4.1 depicts a dashed arrow marked 'D3', linking 'Section B' institutional characteristics to 'Turnover intention' through 'Section E' job satisfaction. This linkage shows the mediating effect of job satisfaction in the relationship between the characteristics of the institution and turnover intention. Smart (1990:410) and Johnsrud and Rosser (2002:528) affirmed that the relationship between institutional characteristics and turnover intention is better explained by job satisfaction. Thus, if the characteristics of an institution do not meet employees' expectations, the way they feel about the job may likely be affected and consequently influence their intention to leave.

### 4.6.4 ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

Organisational justice pertains to the perception of fairness in procedures, in the distribution of outcomes and in the way in which employees are treated. Thus, the variable 'organisational justice' in Section C (Figure 4.1) encompasses two constructs, namely procedural and interactional justice. Procedural justice denotes the perception of fairness of the process taken to distribute outcomes, while interactional justice refers to the perception of fairness during interpersonal interactions. Figure 4.1 presents a direct linkage between organisational justice in Section C and the dependent variable 'turnover intention'. This linkage is depicted in the double arrow marked C. This linkage

implies that the perception of unfairness can trigger expatriate academics' turnover intentions. Price's (1977) Causal Model has already conceptualised that organisational justice influences turnover intentions. Likewise, Daly and Dee's (2006) Conceptual Model for Intent to Stay claimed that organisational justice has a direct influence on employees' intent to stay or to leave. The above models postulated that if employees perceive inequity in the distribution of outcomes or in the procedure leading to the outcomes, it will influence their intention to leave.

Furthermore, Figure 4.1 shows an interconnection through dashed arrow D2 connecting the variable 'organisational justice' in Section C to 'job satisfaction' in Section E, leading to the core dependent variable 'turnover intention'. This interconnection means that job satisfaction is an intervening variable between organisational justice and turnover intention. Price's (1977) Causal Model and Bluedorn's (1982:28) Unified Model of Turnover assumed that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organisational justice and turnover intention. The above models suggest that if employees perceive some kind of inequity, their job satisfaction might be affected, which subsequently influences their intent to leave. In the context of this research study, Figure 4.1 shows that the perception of unfairness can directly impact on expatriate academics' turnover intentions, as well as on the way they feel about the job. This may result in thoughts of leaving.

In addition, the linkage between 'organisational justice' in Section C and 'organisational commitment' in Section D, illustrated by arrow C6 suggests that organisational justice has an impact on organisational commitment. In other words, the perception of unfairness can influence the level of commitment of expatriate academics.

#### **4.6.5 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Most organisations aspire to have committed employees. The level of ties that employees have with their organisations has a major impact on their intention to leave. It is widely assumed that committed employees are unlikely to leave their organisations (Lawrence, Celis, Kim, Lipson and Tong 2014:521; Ababneh, 2016:19). The conceptual framework of this study (Figure 4.1) reveals through double arrow D a direct linkage between the three components of organisational commitment in Section D and the core 'turnover intention'. This linkage suggests that disaffected or

uncommitted expatriate academics are likely to show high intentions to leave. Price and Mueller (1986) and Hom and Griffeth (1995) have already theorized on the influence of commitment on turnover intentions. The above scholars posited that committed employees have less intention to leave their organisations. As outlined earlier, the tick arrow A3 shows the linkage between the 'demographics' in Section A and 'organisational commitment' (Section D). Furthermore, the conceptual framework of this study (Figure 4.1) shows through the dashed arrow D1 that there is an indirect linkage between organisational commitment and turnover intention, which is mediated by job satisfaction.

#### **4.6.6 JOB SATISFACTION**

Job satisfaction encompasses the feeling and the attitude that an employee portrays towards the job. Satisfied employees have less or no intentions to leave (Rizwan *et al.*, 2014:3). Employees' dissatisfaction with their job is a concern for organisations as it can lead to adverse effect on turnover intentions. As a result, many theories have attempted to establish which factors determine employees' satisfaction with their job. These theories include, *inter alia*, Hemans' (1958) Social Exchange Theory, Herzberg's (1950) Theory of motivation, and Adam's (1965) Equity Theory. As a result, the influence of job satisfaction on employees' turnover intentions were hypothesized (Smart, 1990; Zhou and Volkwein, 2004; Rosser and Townsend, 2006). Thus, drawing from the above theories and models, the conceptual model in Figure 4.1 portrays the interconnection between 'job satisfaction' (Section E) and other variables. It is worth mentioning that for the purpose of this study, the constructs of job satisfaction listed in Section E of Figure 4.1 were deemed important. Thus, the direct linkage between 'job satisfaction' in Section E and 'turnover intention' is depicted through the double arrow E. This direct linkage means that dissatisfaction with any of the components of job satisfaction (Section E) can stimulate expatriate academics' turnover intentions. For instance, career development and compensation are important factors for most employees. Therefore, the inability or hindrances to grow within the organisation and dissatisfaction with pay can affect job satisfaction and stimulate turnover intentions. Herzberg's (1950) Two-Factor theory of motivation claims that pay and promotion and opportunities for personal growth enhance employees' job satisfaction. Moreover, the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) portrays the mediating effect through dashed arrows D1, D2, D3, D4, D5 and D6 of job satisfaction on the linkage between turnover

intentions and other variables. These variables include perceived job opportunity, institutional characteristics, organisational justice and talent retention strategies. The mediating effect of job satisfaction with the above variables and turnover intention is explained in the subsequent section.

#### **4.6.6.1 MEDIATING EFFECT OF JOB SATISFACTION**

As mentioned earlier, the dashed arrow D1 connects the variable 'organisational commitment' in Section D and 'turnover intention' mediated through 'job satisfaction' in Section E. The mediating effect of job satisfaction in the relationship between employees' commitment to their organisation and turnover intention was emphasized by Vandenberghe and Tremblay (2008:282) who contend that high levels of job satisfaction increase employees' loyalty and commitment to their organisation.

Furthermore, Figure 4.1 shows dashed arrow D3 connecting the variable 'institutional characteristics' in Section B to 'job satisfaction' (Section E), then leading to the core variable 'turnover intention'. This interconnection means that satisfaction mediates between institutional characteristics and turnover intention. In other words, if the characteristics of an institution do not correspond with the expectations of expatriate academics, this may affect their satisfaction with the job and consequently trigger their intention to leave. Thus, Smart's (1990:410) and Johnsrud and Rosser's (2002:528) turnover intention models claimed that job satisfaction explains the relationship between the characteristics of an organisation and turnover intention.

Likewise, the mediating effect of 'job satisfaction' (Section E) on the linkage between 'organisational justice' (Section C) and 'turnover intentions' is depicted in Figure 4.1 with dashed arrow D2 starting at 'Section C' through to 'Section E' leading to 'turnover intention'. The linkage shows job satisfaction as an intervening variable between organisational justice and turnover intention. The impact of job satisfaction on the relationship between organisational justice and turnover intention was theorized by Price's (1977) Causal Model and Bluedorn's (1982:138) Unified Model of Turnover which assumed that perceptions of fairness influence employees' intentions to leave, but that the influence is mediated by job satisfaction. In the context of this study, the interlinkage implies that if expatriate academics perceived that they are unfairly treated and there is unfairness in procedures leading to decision-making, their job satisfaction can be affected, which subsequently results in thoughts of quitting.

In addition, Figure 4.1 shows the interconnection between ‘talent retention strategies’ in Section F, ‘job satisfaction’ in Section E and ‘turnover intention’. The linkage portrays with dashed arrows D6 the mediating role of job satisfaction on the relationship between talent retention strategies and turnover intention. The review of the literature reveals that strategies to retain talented employees are almost intertwined with variables determining employees’ job satisfaction. The following strategies, namely competitive compensation, promotion, challenging opportunities, recognition, training and development, leadership support and career development were hypothesized as being adequate in the retention of talented employees (Kusnin and Rasdi, 2014:345; Kontoghiorghes, 2016:1839). Thus, based on the similarity between the components of job satisfaction and talent retention strategies, this research study has proposed that ‘job satisfaction’ intervenes between ‘talent retention strategies’ and ‘turnover intention’. The linkage is shown through dashed arrow D6 moving from ‘Section F’ through ‘Section E’ leading to ‘turnover intention’. The present study postulates that inadequate talent retention strategies are likely to impact on the job satisfaction of expatriate academics and consequently stimulate their intention to leave.

The interconnection between ‘perceived job opportunities’ in Section G, ‘job satisfaction’ (Section E) and ‘turnover intention’ is depicted in Figure 4.1 through dashed arrows D4 illustrating that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between perceived job opportunities and turnover intention. This interconnection means that the intention to leave can be triggered if expatriate academics are dissatisfied with their jobs and perceive other available job opportunities in the labour market. This implies that the availability of job opportunities has a bearing on job dissatisfaction and influences employees’ intent to quit. Thus, Mobley’s (1977) Intermediate Linkage Model as quoted by Thomson, (2003:13) assumes that the availability of jobs influences employees’ turnover intentions and that this influence is mediated by job satisfaction. Gerhart’s (1990:36) Alternative Job Opportunity Model claims that employees’ turnover intentions are prompted from their job dissatisfaction and from the perception of one being able to easily find an alternative job.



#### **4.6.7 TALENT RETENTION STRATEGIES**

Globalisation, the high mobility of people and high competition has increased the war for talent. Retaining talented employees remains a huge challenge for many organisations (Beechler and Woodward, 2009:273). Therefore, the variable 'talent retention strategies' in Section F of the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) is portrayed with the emoticon of a 'smiley face' or a 'happy face', indicating that the ability to retain talented expatriate academics is beneficial for institutions. Additionally, alongside the picture of a 'smiley face', key concepts denoting approaches that are used to retain talent are depicted. Hence, Douglas, *et al.*'s (2008:4) Framework for Attracting and Retaining Talent and Ashraf and Joarder's (2010:171) Talent Retention Model postulated that offering market-related compensation, providing training and development, assigning challenging work, having conducive working conditions and having fair promotion policies are likely to attract and retain talented employees. Thus, the direct linkage between 'talent retention strategies' (Section F) and 'turnover intention' is shown through a double arrow F, indicating that inadequate or a lack of talent retention strategies can trigger expatriate academics' turnover intentions. Figure 4.1 also depicts a dashed arrow D6 starting from 'Section F' to 'Section E' leading to 'turnover intention', which was explained earlier as an indirect linkage between talent retention strategies and turnover intention mediated by job satisfaction. Again, the interconnection between 'Section F' and 'Section A' shown through arrow A5 was also outlined earlier, indicating the impact of demographics on talent retention strategies.

#### **4.6.8 PERCEIVED JOB OPPORTUNITIES**

According to the Theory of Organisational Equilibrium of March and Simon (1958), employees' intention to leave is influenced by the perceived ease of movement and the perceived desirability of movement. Likewise, Jackofsky's (1984) Integrated Process Model claimed that employees' turnover intentions are primarily determined and stimulated by employees' desirability of movement and the perceived ease of movement. Thus, grounded in the above models, this research study (as illustrated in Figure 4.1) shows the linkage between 'perceived job opportunities' in Section G and 'turnover intention' as portrayed by double arrow G. This direct linkage suggests that the perception of the availability of job opportunities has an impact on expatriate academics' turnover intentions. In other words, expatriate academics' intentions to

leave are triggered by the perception of ease of movement stimulated by external job opportunities, be it academic or non-academic posts in the labour market. The mediating effect of 'job satisfaction' (Section E) on the linkage between 'perceived job opportunities' in Section G and 'turnover intention' depicted with dashed arrow D4 was discussed above.

#### **4.6.9 CULTURAL AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT**

Oberg (1960) as cited by Naeem, Nadeem and Khan (2015:249) states that expatriates usually feel confused, anxious, frustrated and depressed when adapting to a new cultural environment. Consequently, the failure of expatriates and their families to adjust to the new environment has an impact on their intention to leave (Zhu, Wanberg, Harrison and Diehn, 2016:559; Kim, Choi and Li (2016:7). Thus, the conceptual model of this study (Figure 4.1) presents a link depicted with double arrow H between the variable 'adjustment' in Section H and the core 'turnover intention'. The variable 'adjustment' encompasses constructs related to cultural and social adjustment of expatriates, as well as the adjustment of their families. The linkage between adjustment and turnover intention explains that the maladjustment or failure of expatriates and their families to adjust socially and culturally influences expatriate academics' turnover intentions. Figure 4.1 also depicts the connection between the variable 'demographics' in Section A and 'cultural and social adjustment' (Section H) presented with arrow A1, showing the impact of demographics on expatriate academics adjustment. The dashed arrow D5 depicted in Figure 4.1 shows the indirect linkage between social and cultural adjustment mediated by job satisfaction.

#### **4.7 SUMMARY OF THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

In sum, the proposed original conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) of this study presents the variables and their constructs in sections A-H, as well as the interconnections between variables. The linkages between the variables are illustrated through different sets of arrows. Thus, the direct impact of the eight independent variables on 'turnover intention' is shown through labelled double arrows ranging from A to H, matching each section of the variables. Furthermore, in Figure 4.1, all bold arrows labelled A are derived from the 'demographics' in Section A. These bold arrows (A) linking the demographics with other variables indicate that the demographics of have an influence

on the following independent variables: social and cultural adjustment, organisational justice, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and talent retention strategies. Furthermore, the dashed arrows labelled D, as depicted in Figure 4.1 indicate the indirect linkages between the independent variables and turnover intention. These indirect linkages are mediated by job satisfaction. Thus, arrow D1 shows that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention; then arrow D2 shows the mediating effect of job satisfaction between organisational justice and turnover intention. Likewise, arrow D3 shows the indirect linkage between institutional characteristics and turnover intention mediated by job satisfaction. Furthermore, the mediating effect of job satisfaction in the linkage between perceived job opportunities and turnover intention is depicted by arrow D4. Similarly, arrows D5 and D6 depict that job satisfaction mediates between social and cultural adjustment, as well as talent retention strategies and the core variable 'turnover intention'. In addition, Figure 4.1 presents the linkage between organisational justice and organisational commitment via arrow C6.

#### **4.8 CONCLUSION**

This chapter describes and presents the various factors that impact on the turnover intention of expatriate academics in both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand. Thus, the proposed 'Conceptual Framework of Turnover Intentions of Expatriate Academics in KwaZulu-Natal (Figure 4.1) is an original contribution by the researcher which aims to suggest, based on the empirical findings, talent retention strategies that will be beneficial to Higher Education Institutions in South Africa. Thus, Figure 4.1 portrays that eight determined factors have a direct impact on expatriate academics' intentions to leave. Additionally, the linkage between variables (i.e. organisational justice, talent retention strategies, institutional characteristics, job opportunity and turnover intention) is mediated by job satisfaction. Although not the focus of the research study, Figure 4.1 depicts the intervening impact that demographics have on adjustment, perceptions of justice, commitment levels and on job satisfaction. The tenability of the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) and all the variables explained in this chapter will be statistically tested by related hypotheses in Chapter 6 of this study. However, the following chapter will firstly present the research design and methodology of this study.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

Walliman and Walliman (2011:7) define the research enquiry as a process that involves discovering things that the researcher was not knowledgeable about. Brown (2006) as cited by Dudovskiy (2018) maintains that research methodology is a philosophical framework underpinning the research study. In this age of internationalisation of institutions of higher learning, attracting skilled academics from all over the world has become a common exercise. However, as Allen (2008:1) highlights, one of the challenges faced by institutions is the high turnover tendency of these knowledge workers. Gregersen, Parsons and Wassermann (1996:163) postulate that intentions precede actions. Therefore, with regard to turnover intentions, various scholars agree that turnover intentions are the prime antecedent of actual turnover (Hassan and Hashim, 2011:85, Park, 2015:8). Thus, determining the factors that predict turnover intentions can yield a better understanding of the phenomenon. As such, in order to identify the predictors of the turnover intentions of the expatriate academics under study, this research study undertook to conduct a systematic research methodology as detailed below. Moreover, the chapter begins by outlining the main objectives that the study seeks to achieve.

#### **5.2 THE MAIN QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY**

The questions this study seeks to answer are:

- What are the advantages of employing expatriate academics in the Higher Education Sector?
- What are the turnover intention levels of expatriate academics employed in both institutions under study?
- What are the causative factors impacting on expatriate academics' turnover intentions at the University of KwaZulu-Natal and at the University of Zululand?

- How can the turnover intention factors of expatriate academics be minimised to retain their services at both these Higher Education Institutions?
- Which types of strategies should be adopted by Higher Education Institutions to manage their talented expatriate academics and to deter them from leaving their institutions?

### 5.3 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

According to Slife and Williams (1995) as cited by Creswell (2014:5), a philosophical worldview or philosophical orientation influences the practice of research. Carson, Gilmore, Percy and Gronhaug (2001:1) state that the research philosophy allows the researcher to gain a deeper and broader perspective of the research study. For Saunders, *et al.* (2009:101), the research philosophy impacts on the approaches, the strategies and the methods adopted in a particular research study. Creswell (2014:6) identified four different philosophical worldviews, namely positivism, constructivism, transformative and pragmatism. Major elements of these philosophical worldviews are depicted in Table 5.1 below, followed by a discussion of the philosophical assumptions of each.

**TABLE 5.1 PHILOSOPHICAL WORLDVIEWS**

<b>Positivism</b>	<b>Constructivism</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Determination</li> <li>• Reductionism</li> <li>• Empirical observation and measurement</li> <li>• Theory verification</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Understanding</li> <li>• Multiple participants</li> <li>• Social and historical construction</li> <li>• Theory generation</li> </ul>
<b>Transformative</b>	<b>Pragmatism</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Political</li> <li>• Power and justice-oriented</li> <li>• Collaborative</li> <li>• Change-oriented</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Consequences of actions</li> <li>• Problem-centered</li> <li>• Pluralistic</li> <li>• Real-world practice-oriented</li> </ul>

**Source:** W Creswell (2014:6)

### **5.3.1 POST-POSITIVIST WORLDVIEW**

Also referred to as positivist or scientific research, the post-positivist worldview assumes that the sole way to learn and discover the truth is through science. Thus, Saunders, *et al.* (2009:136) claim that the positivist philosophical approach focusses on scientific methods in which the researcher establishes causal relationships in the data in order to make generalisations. In other words, the researcher embracing the positivist philosophical approach should find and identify the causes that lead to outcomes. Creswell (2014:7) outlines that the post-positivist worldview is usually based on facts that are underpinned by evidence and rational considerations. Therefore, the post-positivist research philosophy entails empirical observation of the elements, hypotheses development based on existing theories and quantitative analysis (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:137). Creswell (2014:7) further emphasizes that the researcher should objectively collect and interpret the data with the least interaction with the research participants in a post-positivist philosophical worldview.

### **5.3.2 CONSTRUCTIVIST WORLDVIEW**

The proponents of constructivism subscribe to the idea that knowledge is built or constructed through experiences and social interactions (Creswell, 2014:8; Dudovskiy, 2013). With regard to research, this philosophical worldview postulates that the researcher should organise and interpret the views of research participants (Creswell, 2014:8; Dudovskiy, 2013). In a constructivist worldview, the interpretation of researchers can be easily influence by their own beliefs and backgrounds. Therefore, Creswell (2014:8) prompts researchers to focus on the participants' views on the situation under study. Furthermore, Creswell (2014:8) indicates that the constructivist philosophical approach is suitable for qualitative research as researchers inductively generate theories from the data collected from the research participants.

### **5.3.3 PRAGMATIC WORLDVIEW**

The main focus of the pragmatic worldview is on research results. It does not relate to any philosophical approach. It assumes that the research is relevant if it is based on actions (Kelemen and Rumens, 2008 in Saunders *et al.*, 2009:143). The pragmatic worldview advocates that the researcher starts by identifying the problem and, then

proposing solutions. According to Creswell (2014:11), the pragmatic approach is problem-centered and real-world practice orientated. Therefore, the researcher should focus on the research problems and use different strategies and approaches to understand the problem. Hence, the pragmatic research philosophy can accommodate various research methods, techniques and procedures (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:143; Creswell, 2014:11).

#### **5.3.4 TRANSFORMATIVE WORLDVIEW**

The transformative worldview or the post-modernism philosophical approach emphasizes power relations. The transformative worldview focusses on the study of the lives and experiences of marginalised people in society (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:142; Creswell, 2014:9). Mertens (2010) in Creswell (2014:11) explains that in transformative research, the researcher adopts “a program theory of beliefs” to understand how the program works, as well as to probe the logic behind oppression, power relationships and domination. Creswell (2014:10) further contends that in the perspective of the transformative worldview, the researcher should rely on the research participants as they may assist in designing the research questions, collecting and analysing data.

#### **5.4 PHILOSOPHICAL APPROACH OF THE STUDY**

This study is aimed at conducting an empirical enquiry into expatriate academics in order to investigate the factors that predict turnover intentions. Therefore, this research study is grounded in a positivist worldview, which holds that the researcher needs to determine the causes that lead to particular actions or outcomes. Thus, the focus of this research project was to understand the causes associated with turnover intentions, which can influence major work-related attitudes like job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Creswell (2014:7) maintains that positivists are often interested in studying the behaviour of individuals. Furthermore, the researcher believed that in order for this study to achieve its objectives, systematic and scientific research needed to be undertaken. Kumar (2014:34) states that scientific research entails the following steps: formulating the research problem; conceptualising its design; determining the measurement instrument; selecting the sample; collecting the data; and analysing the data. These steps are therefore incorporated into this research study.

## **5.5 RESEARCH APPROACH**

According to Saunders, *et al.* (2009:56), the purpose of conducting research is to assess existing theories and develop new ones or add new knowledge to existing theories from the research findings. This increases the efficiency of the research. Saunders, *et al.* (2009:56) suggest that researchers should follow a proper research approach. The two main research approaches include the inductive approach and the deductive approach (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:57; Gravetter and Forzano, 2016:16). The inductive approach allows the researcher to develop theory after data collection (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:57). Gravetter and Forzano (2016:16) claim that the inductive approach to reasoning involves using a small set of observations as “the basis to form a general statement about a larger set of possible observations”. Likewise, Saunders, *et al.* (2009:5) maintain that the research does not start with any established theories or conceptual models in the inductive approach. Concerning the deductive approach, Gravetter and Forzano (2016:18) proclaim that it involves “the uses of general statements as the basis for reaching a conclusion about specific examples”. Saunders, *et al.* (2009:57) explain that the deductive approach allows the researcher to firstly identify theories through the review of the literature, and thereafter develop theoretical frameworks that are then tested. Consequently, this research study has adopted a deductive approach since the researcher started by reviewing the literature, then formulated hypotheses that yielded the development of a conceptual framework of the factors predicting the turnover intentions of expatriate academics.

## **5.6 PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH**

Saunders, *et al.* (2009:132) contend that the research objectives and the way in which the researcher seeks to answer the research questions can either be in a descriptive, exploratory or explanatory research form. Kumar (2014:13) states that descriptive research attempts to describe a problem, a situation or a phenomenon in a systematic way, while explanatory research attempts to explain and establish a causal relationship between the variables (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:134; Kumar, 2014:13). As for exploratory research, it attempts to explore or investigate little known areas in order to uncover new insights (Kumar, 2014:13). Furthermore, Saunders, *et al.* (2009:133) highlight that exploratory research is a valuable way of investigating the problem, probing phenomena in new lights and seeking new insights. Likewise,



Sekaran (2003:118) maintains that exploratory research allows the researcher to better comprehend the problem and to be acquainted with the phenomena under study. Thus, the purpose of this research study is to examine the factors predicting turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics in order to suggest talent retention strategies. The exploratory research methodology was adopted because it allowed the researcher to explore and probe an under-researched area. A descriptive approach was also useful in this study as it provided the researcher with a better understanding of the concepts of 'turnover intention' and the role of 'expatriate academics'. Hence, Gravetter and Forzano (2016:371) claim that descriptive research helps the researcher gain an idea of the phenomenon. Furthermore, descriptive statistics are used in the description of the variables and in the analysis of the data collected of in this study. Accordingly, Saunders, *et al.* (2009:134) maintain that descriptive research is useful for researchers in the description of the characteristics of the variables, in the description of data of the population being studied and in the reporting of the results obtained from the research study.

## **5.7 PRINCIPLES OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN**

The research method is usually determined by the questions that the research study seeks to answer, as well as and by the objectives of the study. Myers (2009:8) defines the research method as "a strategy of enquiry which moves from the underlying assumptions to the research design and to data collection". The research design represents the general plan of how the researcher will go about answering the research questions. Hence, Yin (2003:19) outlines that a research design is "colloquially 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". In addition, Sekaran and Bougie (2013:95) conceptualise it as a roadmap that the researcher intends to follow involving the collection, the measurement and the analysis of data in order to answer the research questions. Gravetter and Forzano (2016:163) postulate that the research design determines the number of variables included in the research study, which underpin whether the study requires individual or group participants and whether the study needs to establish comparisons within a group or between groups.

Furthermore, Creswell (2014:12) highlights that the types of research design “provide a specific direction for procedures in a research design”. There are three broad categories of research design, namely quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods (Kumar, 2014:134; Gravetter and Forzano, 2016:26).

- Dudovskiy (2013) outlines that *qualitative research* concepts are usually expressed in motives; their data are in the forms of images, words or transcripts; and the results of the study are often analysed in narrative forms. Jackson (2016:82) affirms that qualitative research entails making observations that are described, interpreted and analysed in a narrative form. Thus, the qualitative research design includes strategies such as narrative research, grounded theory, ethnography and case studies.
- *Mixed method* research entails the collection and combination of both quantitative and qualitative data in a research study. It stems from the assumption that combining qualitative and quantitative approaches provides a better understanding of the research problem (Creswell, 2014:4).
- *Quantitative research* refers to the measuring of variables for individual participants using numerical values. It emphasizes the measurement of variable; the objectivity of the validity and reliability of the findings with the aim at quantifying the extent of the variables in the phenomenon; and drawing inferences that can be generalised (Kumar, 2014:134; Gravetter and Forzano, 2016:26). Dudovskiy (2013) emphasizes that the concepts of quantitative research are shown in the forms of variables and specific measurements; their measures are universal; and the results of the research are presented in the forms of graphs, tables and charts. The quantitative research design encompasses research strategies such as experimental research and non-experimental design, like survey and descriptive research.

## 5.8 RESEARCH DESIGN USED FOR THIS STUDY

For the purpose of this research study, a quantitative research design was used. The data for this study was collected through a structured closed-ended questionnaire using the survey method. Furthermore, the data obtained was analysed quantitatively. The mixed method could have been used to enrich this research study. However, as the respondents were expatriate academics, they were not keen on interviews with open recorded responses as they experience trepidation and also perceived that they could jeopardise their work relationships. Therefore, in respecting the wishes of the respondents, the researcher did not use any interviewing schedule nor engage in any qualitative data recording. Thus, the researcher was only dependent on using an anonymous quantitative structured questionnaire for the empirical component of the study in order to collect data.

## 5.9 RESEARCH STRATEGY

Saunders, *et al.* (2009:135) postulate that the research strategies used should enable the researcher to answer research questions and to meet the objectives of the study. In other words, the research strategy should be steered by the research objectives and the research questions. Therefore, multiple research strategies can be adopted in a study. These include, *inter alia*, experiments, surveys, case studies, grounded theory, ethnography and archival research (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:136).

- According to Gravetter and Forzano (2016:191), experimental research “establishes the existence of a cause-and-effect relationship between two variables”.
- Creswell (2014:13) describes surveys as the quantitative trends, attitudes or opinions of a sample drawn from a population. Jackson (2016:88) states that surveys involve questioning respondents on a topic and then analysing their responses. The survey strategy encompasses data collection methods such as administering questionnaires, interviewing and observation.
- Gravetter and Forzano (2016:393) postulate that a case study is based on an intensive study and description of an individual or a very small group.

- Trochim, *et al.* (2016:62) highlight that grounded theory research design is rooted in observations which enable the researcher to conceptualise and to develop theory about the hidden social patterns and structures of the area of interest.
- Ethnography derives from anthropology and sociology. It focusses on the study's shared patterns of behaviour, language and actions of a cultural group (Creswell, 2014:14).
- Archival research refers to the investigation of primary data found in administrative records, files and documents. It refers to the collection of recent or historical documents to answer research questions (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:150; Jackson, 2016:84).

## **5.10 RESEARCH STRATEGY ADOPTED FOR THIS STUDY**

A survey strategy was appropriate for this study because it allowed the researcher to investigate the entire population since a sample could not be obtained due to a lack of the exact number of expatriate academics working in both the institutions under study. Fox and Bayat (2007:87) postulate that a survey permits the study of the whole population instead of having to select a sample. Additionally, the researcher was able to explore, gain access into the two institutions and identify the target respondents through a survey. Furthermore, a survey allowed the researcher to obtain primary data from the respondents. Thus, Cooper and Schindler (2008) affirm that the goal of the survey is to collect primary data from the participants and to compare these data in order to establish the similarities and differences. More importantly, the survey helped the researcher to probe the factors that may trigger expatriate academics' turnover intentions. Hence, Floyd and Fowler Jr (2009:2) postulate that the purpose of the survey is to objectively obtain information about people's behaviours, experiences, opinions and feelings on situations.

## **5.11 DATA SOURCES**

Data is defined as "the facts presented to the researcher from the study's environment" (Cooper and Schindler, 2014:85). Scholars postulate that data can be obtained through two main sources, namely primary data source and secondary data source (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013:113; Kanchan, 2014:2).

### **5.11.1 PRIMARY DATA**

Primary data refers to original data collected by the researcher. Sekaran and Bougie (2013:113) state that primary data is the information obtained first-hand by the researcher on the variables of interest for the specific purpose of the study. Gravetter and Forzano (2016:45) assert that a primary data source is a first-hand report of observations which are obtained by the researcher. Thus, primary data for this study was obtained through a structured questionnaire (Annexure B) that was self-administered to expatriate academics in both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and University of Zululand.

### **5.11.2 SECONDARY DATA**

Secondary data sources are described as data that have already been collected and analysed for other purposes. Sekaran and Bougie (2013:116) state that “secondary data refer to information gathered by someone other than the researcher conducting the current study”. Gravetter and Forzano (2016:45) affirm that secondary data is a written summary of another person’s work. Kanchan (2014:2) contends that secondary data is one of the most important aspects of research as it is the unit of information from which other measurements and analysis can be done. Gravetter and Forzano (2016:46) concur that secondary data sources provide a good insight for the literature review of a study. With regard to this research study, secondary data was obtained from an extensive review of journal articles, textbooks, internet publications, related dissertations and other publications.

## **5.12 TARGET POPULATION**

Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2014:174) define the target population as the total collection of elements from which some inferences can be made. Jackson (2016:17) states that a target population is the entire people to whom the study is meant to generalize. Similarly, Gravetter and Forzano (2016:134) describe it as “the entire set of individuals of interest to a researcher”. Gravetter and Forzano (2016:134) maintain that elements in a target population share the same characteristics. Thus, the target population for this study included all expatriate academics currently employed at the University of KwaZulu-Natal and at the University of Zululand whose common feature was that they all migrated from their homelands to live and work in a new environment.

However, the exact number of expatriate academics working in both institutions was unknown due to the unavailability of a database.

### **5.13 CONCEPTUALISATION OF SAMPLING**

Sampling is the process of selecting a number of cases from the population of interest. By studying the sample, the researcher is able to generalise the results and draw conclusions about the entire population (Blumberg *et al.*, 2014:174; Trochim, Donnelly and Arora, 2016:80).

#### **5.13.1 SAMPLE SIZE**

Gravetter and Forzano (2016:134) define a sample as a “set of individuals selected from a population and is usually intended to represent the population in a research study”. Unfortunately for this study, a sample could not be selected due to an unknown population. Thus, a non-probability snowball sampling method was used to generate a sample. Due to the challenges pertaining to the use of the snowball sampling method discussed below, the researcher could only obtain 133 returned questionnaires, of which only 125 were usable for this study as 8 questionnaires were spoiled. In sum, the sample size for this study comprised of 125 returned usable questionnaires. It is worth mentioning that the questionnaires used during the pre-test and the pilot test were not included in these figures.

#### **5.13.2 SAMPLING METHODS**

A sampling method refers to a process of selecting sample cases from a given target population. Blumberg, *et al.* (2014:174) define sampling as the process of selecting sufficient elements from a population. Thus, by selecting some elements from the population, the researcher is able to generalise the properties or characteristics and draw conclusions about the entire population. Gravetter and Forzano (2016:138) state that sampling methods are different ways of selecting individuals from a given population to participate in a research study. Sampling methods are classified into two broad categories, namely probability sampling and non-probability sampling methods (Trochim *et al.*, 2016:85; Gravetter and Forzano, 2016:138).

### **5.13.3 PROBABILITY SAMPLING VERSUS NON-PROBABILITY SAMPLING METHODS**

According to Saunders, *et al.* (2012:261), probability sampling is “the selection of sampling techniques in which the chance, or probability, of each case being selected from the population is known and is not zero”. Jackson (2016:96) defines probability sampling as a technique in which each element of the population has an equal chance of being selected to be part of the sample. The five main types of probability sample include simple random, systematic, stratified random, cluster and multi-stage sampling (Trochim *et al.*, 2016:109). Blumberg. *et al.* (2014:180) claim that a non-probability sampling is non-random sampling technique in which the chance or probability of each element being selected is unknown. Jackson (2016:98) asserts that in non-probability sampling, elements of the population do not have an equal chance to be selected to be part of the sample. Thus, non-probability sampling methods include quota sampling, purposive sampling, snowball sampling, expert sampling and convenience sampling (Trochim *et al.*, 2016:89). Table 5.2 and Table 5.3 below portrays a brief description of the above sampling techniques, together with their strengths and limitations.

**TABLE 5.2 PROBABILITY AND NON-PROBABILITY SAMPLING DESIGNS**

Sampling design	Description	Advantages	Disadvantages
<b>Probability sampling</b>			
<b>Simple random sampling</b>	All elements in the population are considered and each element has an equal chance of being chosen as a subject.	High generalisability of results.	Not as efficient as stratified sampling.
<b>Systematic sampling</b>	Every $n$ th element in the population is chosen starting from a random point in the population frame.	Easy to use if the population frame is available.	Systematic biases are possible.
<b>Stratified random sampling</b>	The population is first divided into meaningful segments, then subjects are drawn in proportion to their original numbers in the population.	Most efficient amongst all the probability designs. All groups are adequately sampled and comparisons amongst groups are possible.	Stratification must be meaningful. More time-consuming than simple random sampling or systematic sampling.
<b>Cluster sampling</b>	Groups that have heterogeneous members are first identified; then some are chosen at random; all the members in each of the randomly chosen groups are studied.	In geographic clusters, costs of data collection are low.	The least reliable and least efficient amongst all probability sampling designs since sub-sets of clusters are more homogeneous than heterogeneous.
<b>Area sampling</b>	Cluster sampling within a particular area or locality.	Cost-effective. Useful for decisions relating to a particular location.	Takes time to collect data from an area.
<b>Double sampling</b>	The same sample or subset of sample is studied twice.	Offers more detailed information on the topic of study.	Original biases, if any, will be carried over. Individuals may not be happy responding twice.



Sampling design	Description	Advantages	Disadvantages
<b>Non-probability sampling</b>			
<b>Convenience sampling</b>	The most easily accessible members are chosen as subjects.	Quick, convenient and less expensive.	Not generalizable at all.
<b>Judgement sampling</b>	Subjects selected on the basis of their expertise in the area being investigated.	Sometimes the only meaningful way to investigate.	Generalisability is questionable; not generalizable to the entire population.
<b>Quota sampling</b>	Subjects are conveniently chosen from targeted groups according to some predetermined number or quota.	Very useful where minority participation in a study is crucial.	Not easily generalizable.
<b>Purposive Sampling</b>	Strategy allows for the selection of a sampling frame that may be most affected by a specific issue	Aims to maintain rigor and to identify a sampling frame based on specific study-driven variables or characteristics.	Requires collaboration from others to identify participants matching the sought characteristics. Can take time due to specific variables or sought characteristics.
<b>Snowball Sampling</b>	Based on a referral approach where a small number of individuals with specific characteristics recruit others with these characteristics from their networks or community.	Reaches participants with the same characteristics. Often used in community engagement research studies and mixed methods approaches. Based on networks and relationships which may lend credibility to research.	Referral contacts may not be effective in identifying diverse individuals. Referral contacts may only identify participants meeting specific characteristics. Participants may not share information freely for fear of privacy or confidentiality issues especially in qualitative study.
<b>Source:</b>	U. Sekaran and R. Bougie (2010:280). Adapted.		

#### **5.13.4 SAMPLING METHOD USED FOR THE STUDY**

The researcher usually selects the sampling method based on the objectives of the study and on the accessibility of the target population. Thus, this research study adopted a non-probability snowball sampling method. Snowball sampling refers to a non-probability sampling method based upon referral from previous participants (Trochim *et al.*, 2016:90). The choice of the snowball sampling method was mainly due to the difficulty of accessing and distinguishing the target population. Therefore, the researcher had to rely on referrals. The snowball sampling method allowed the researcher to source scarce expatriate academics. Saunders, *et al.* (2012:289) suggest that snowball sampling or volunteer sampling is useful when it is difficult to identify members of the desired elements from the main population. Trochim, *et al.* (2016:91) concur that snowball sampling is appropriate when the target population is difficult to obtain. Likewise, Kumar (2014:245) states that the snowball sampling method is suitable when the researcher has little knowledge about the group or the population of interest.

#### **5.13.5 SAMPLING PROCEDURE**

Kumar (2014:244) explains that in the snowball sampling technique, the researcher proceeds through a network to form a sample. For Dudovskiy (2013), snowball sampling is 'chain-referrals', in which initially identified participants will generate additional participants. Thus, three patterns of snowball sampling are identified, namely linear snowball sampling, exponential non-discriminative snowball sampling and exponential discriminative snowball sampling (Dudovskiy, 2013). According to Dudovskiy (2013), *linear snowball sampling* refers to the formation of the sample in which the first identified respondent is asked to refer one subject only; and the same procedure applies with the referred respondent. In *exponential non-discriminative snowball sampling*, the first subjects are asked to refer multiple subjects, while in *discriminative snowball sampling*, the initial respondents refer multiple subjects, but the researcher only recruits one subject from amongst those referred (Dudovskiy, 2013).

Thus, in order to gather respondents, the researcher adopted exponential non-discriminative snowball sampling in which a survey was firstly conducted to identify and obtain three initial expatriate academics. Then, the three initial expatriate

academics were contacted, and they consented to participating in the study. After surveying the first respondents, they were humbly asked to refer other expatriate academics they knew in the institution. The same procedure using the exponential non-discriminative snowball method applied to the referred participants, until the number of 133 participants was reached. The researcher wished to acquire more respondents for the study, but given the constraints of the snowball sampling technique, it became very difficult for the researcher to obtain more respondents because some referred expatriate academics were unwilling to participate in the study. Others did not return the questionnaires. Additionally, due to the nature of academic jobs that sometimes compel them to be out of office (i.e. Lectures, seminars, meetings, conferences, etc.), other referred expatriate academics were not available to participate in the study.

## **5.14 MEASUREMENT SCALE**

Measurement is crucial to any research. Jackson (2016:56) postulates that the units or scales of measurement are important for research studies as they determine the type of statistical tests to use when analysing the data. Gravetter and Forzano (2016:80) define measurement as the process of classifying elements. Kumar (2014:92) affirms that the type of measure is contingent to the strategy of the research study and the way the researcher wants to communicate the findings of the research. Thus, the scales used to measure the data in research are classified into nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio scales (Kumar, 2014:92; Jackson, 2016:57). These scales are briefly described below.

### **5.14.1 NOMINAL SCALE**

Nominal scales refer to measurement scales in which objects, individuals or responses are classified based on common characteristics (Kumar, 2014:94; Jackson, 2016:56). Additionally, Jackson (2016:56) maintains that elements measured on the nominal scale have no numerical properties. Hence, there is no difference or no order in the sequence in which the elements are listed.

#### **5.14.2 ORDINAL SCALE**

Jackson (2016:57) describes the ordinal scale as the type of measurement scale in which elements are categorised and ranked in a certain order. Jackson (2016:57) also argues that “data measured on an ordinal scale have the properties of identity and magnitude but lack equal unit size and absolute zero”.

#### **5.14.3 INTERVAL SCALE**

Jackson (2016:57) states that the interval scale of measurement is a scale in which the elements of measurement between the numbers on the scale all have equal size.

#### **5.14.4 RATIO SCALE**

Gravetter and Fornazo (2016:81) define the ratio scale as the scale of measurement in which “the categories are sequentially organised, all categories are the same size, and the zero point is absolute and indicates a complete absence of the variable being measured”.

Therefore, for the purpose of this research study, two types of scale were used, namely nominal and ordinal scales. The choice of these two scales also depended on the manner in which the structured questionnaire of this study was formulated. Nominal scales categorised the gender, the origin, marital status and the denomination of institution. Likewise, using the Likert scale, the variables of the study were measured on an ordinal scale.

### **5.15 DIFFERENT TYPES OF MEASURES**

Kumar (2014:92) postulates that the main difference between qualitative and quantitative research is influenced by the types of measures used to collect data. Gravetter and Forzano (2016:85) further emphasize that the researcher must determine the type of measure that provides an indication of the variable. Thus, there are four basic categories of measures, namely Self-report measures, tests, behavioural measures and physical measures (Gravetter and Forzano, 2016:85; Jackson, 2016:59). The four types of measures are briefly elucidated below.

### **5.15.1 SELF-REPORT MEASURES**

According to Jackson (2016:59), self-report measures use questionnaires or interviews to assess how people act, think or feel. Leary (2001) as cited by Jackson (2016:59) states that self-report measures allow the researcher to gather data on behavioural, affective and cognitive events.

### **5.15.2 BEHAVIOURAL MEASURES**

Behavioural measures are also referred to as observational measures and involve careful observation and recording of the behaviour. Jackson (2016:60) maintains that a coding system is used to convert the observations into numerical data.

### **5.15.3 TEST MEASURES**

In the social research context, Jackson (2016:60) defines tests as “measurement instruments used to assess individual differences in various content areas”. Furthermore, Jackson (2016:60) states that most test measures are administered by psychologists.

### **5.15.4 PHYSICAL MEASURES**

Jackson (2016:61) explains that with the aid of a device, physical measures usually measure bodily activity (such as blood pressure, weight, height and pulse) that are not easily observable.

## **5.16 MEASURE USED FOR THE STUDY**

The purpose of this study being to probe the factors that can influence the turnover intentions of expatriate academics, a self-report measure was adopted. A self-report measure was appropriate because it could tap into and assess the feelings of expatriate academics with regard to potential turnover intention triggers. Thus, a structured questionnaire encompassing pre-coded, structured questions was utilized to assess the data.

## 5.17 DATA COLLECTION METHODS USING QUESTIONNAIRES

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:47) describe data collection as the gathering of information from different sources in order to analyse, test hypotheses and answer the research questions. As mentioned above, the data of this study was collected through a structured questionnaire. Saunders, *et al.* (2012:416) state that a questionnaire is a data collection technique in which each respondent is asked to respond to the same questions in a pre-determined order. According to Kumar (2014:178), a questionnaire is a “written list of questions, the answers to which are recorded by respondents”. Thus, Sharma (2010:145) identifies different ways of collecting data from questionnaires. These include the personal method, mail surveys and telephone surveys. Thus, the questionnaire of this study was administered using the personal method which requires that the researcher him/herself distributes and collects the questionnaire of the study from the respondents. Though most expensive as compared to other survey methods of data collection, the personal method of data collection as depicted in Table 5.3 is the most flexible, the most accurate and ensures a high response rate (Sharma, 2010:145; Saunders *et al.*, 2012:416). Table 5.3 presented below provides a brief comparison amongst the different survey methods of data collection. As it can be seen in Table 5.3, each survey method is assessed in term of cost, speed, accuracy, flexibility response rate, the amount of data collected and in terms of the control that the researcher has over the participants.

**TABLE 5.3 CRITERIA AND DATA COLLECTION METHODS**

No	CRITERIA	PERSONAL METHOD	TELEPHONE INTERVIEW	MAIL SURVEY
1	<b>Cost</b>	Most expensive	Intermediate	Least expensive
2	<b>Speed</b>	Slowest	Fastest	Intermediate
3	<b>Accuracy</b>	Most accurate	Least	Intermediate
4	<b>Amount of Data collected</b>	Most	Least	Intermediate
5	<b>Response Rate</b>	Highest	Intermediate	Lowest
6	<b>Flexibility</b>	Most flexible	Intermediate	Least flexible
7	<b>Control</b> ➤ Sample ➤ Interview ➤ Administration	Intermediate Best Worst	Worst Intermediate Intermediate	Best Worst Best

**Source:** Sharma, N.K. (2010:145). Adapted

### **5.17.1 GUIDELINES IN DESIGNING A QUESTIONNAIRE**

Saunders, *et al.* (2009:361) warn that it is very difficult to design a good questionnaire. According to Saunders, *et al.* (2009:361), a poorly designed questionnaire can affect the response rate, as well as the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire. Hence, Walliman (2011:97) postulates that developing and designing a questionnaire requires a lot of time and skills. Consequently, Saunders, *et al.* (2009:361) and Kumar (2014:178) advise that when designing the questionnaire, the researcher should:

- carefully phrase clear and concise questions;
- have a pleasant layout of the questionnaire in which questions are easy to understand and the sequence is easy to follow;
- have a brief explanation of the purpose of the questionnaire;
- highlight and preface sensitive questions by a statement which explains the importance of the questions.

Furthermore, Gravetter and Forzano (2016:386) emphasize that the format of the questionnaire should be simple, well-organised and the language style should be easy for respondents to understand. With regard to this study, the questionnaire was structured in a way that respondents could easily understand and follow the sequence of the questions. In addition, each variable was introduced with a statement enlightening respondents about its purpose and the questions were clear and concise. Moreover, the questionnaire did not contain complex or sensitive questions.

### **5.17.2 ADVANTAGES OF USING A STRUCTURED QUESTIONNAIRE**

Kumar (2014:180) highlights that the nature of the research and the characteristics of the target population usually determine the type of measurement instrument used in a study. Walliman (2011:97) emphasizes that a questionnaire is a useful technique to gather quantitative data. Likewise, Gravetter and Forzano (2016:380) assert that the questionnaire is usually the preferred measurement instrument in behavioural science as it can gather a lot of valuable information. Walliman (2011:97) and Kumar (2014:181) outline the following as advantages of using a questionnaire:

- *Cost-effectiveness*, as questionnaires are less expensive than other data collection methods such as interviews, mail, telephone or email;

- *flexibility* because respondents can easily and conveniently fill the questionnaire at their own pace without much influence from the researcher; and
- *quick to administer* as it can cover a large number of respondents in different geographical locations.

However, Kumar (2014:182) states that the major drawbacks of mailed questionnaires include low response rates as some people do not return them; narrow scope as questionnaires are only applied to the target population; and moreover, it is difficult to assess the thoughtfulness of respondents. Therefore, in order for this study to minimize the downsides associated with questionnaires, the researcher ensured that the questionnaire was unambiguous, and the questions were brief and correctly phrased. Additionally, the use of the personal method surveys yielded a high return of the completed questionnaires, as well as a high response rate.

### **5.17.3 DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE**

The questionnaire found in Annexure B of this study was supplemented by a covering letter (Annexure A); the gate-keeper's letter (Annexure C) and the consent form (Annexure C). The covering letter provided a brief description and the purpose of the study. The gate-keeper's letter granting permission to conduct the research was provided by the two institutions under study. The consent form outlined the aim of the study and ensured that respondents understood the way they were supposed to participate in the study and the value that they would add to the study. The consent form also emphasized that participation in the study was voluntary and that respondents' anonymity was guaranteed.

The questionnaire (Annexure B) encompassed pre-coded, structured questions comprising two sections. Section A recorded the respondents' biographical characteristics, namely age, gender, qualification, marital status, tenure, rank, job category, origin and work experience. Section B assessed the effect of the independent variables on turnover intention. These independent variables included institutional characteristics; organisational justice; organisational commitment; social and cultural adjustment; job satisfaction; external job opportunities; and talent retention strategies. In completing the questionnaire, respondents were asked to make a tick or a cross in the appropriate block on the Likert rating scale.



### **5.17.3.1 CLASSIFICATION OF QUESTIONS**

The formulation and the wording of the questions are crucial in the questionnaire as they can influence the type and the quality of data the researcher obtains from respondents. Thus, Gravetter and Forzano (2016:381) state that the types of questions can determine the degree of freedom in the respondents' answers, yield different responses, as well as facilitate the type of statistical tests to be used and the interpretation of the results. Therefore, two types of questions are usually contained in a survey, namely open-ended and closed-ended questions (Kumar, 2014:183; Trochim *et al.*, 2016:182). Open-ended questions allow respondents to answer in their own words, as the response categories are not provided (Kumar, 2014:184; Trochim *et al.*, 2016:182). Closed-ended questions or restricted questions, such as dichotomous and rating questions, provide a set of alternative given responses from which respondents are asked to choose (Trochim *et al.*, 2016:182).

For this study, the questionnaire contained closed-ended questions which were rated on a 5-Point Likert scale. Given the nature of this study, the researcher felt that closed-ended questions were suitable as they could serve the study's purpose. Moreover, closed-ended questions were appropriate for this study as they were easy to answer, and they required less writing. Furthermore, the data obtained from the questionnaires were easy to compare, analyse and summarise. Gravetter and Forzano (2016:382) contend that closed-ended questions are fast, easy to answer and yield a rapid completion of the survey.

### **5.17.3.2 QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS MEASUREMENT**

According to Saunders, *et al.* (2009:362), it is suitable to use a questionnaire when questions are standardised and can be understood in the same way by all respondents. With regard to this study, respondents were given instructions on how to record their answers in the questionnaire. It is worth mentioning that all the variables measured in the questionnaire were embodied in the original conceptual model developed and shown in Figure 4.1 of Chapter 4 of this study. Thus, the study being conducted on individuals, the questionnaire firstly recorded the demographics of the respondents. Then, other variables were assessed on a 5-Point Likert Scale. The dependent factor 'turnover intention' was measured on eight items. Three items were adapted from the scale developed by Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth (1978), two items were adapted

from the scale of Hom and Griffeth (1991) and the other three items were developed by the researcher for this study. The nine items of Job satisfaction were measured using the scale proposed by Al-Rubaish, Abumadini and Wosornu (2011:4) and the Job Description Inventory (JDI) developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969). Cultural and social adjustment was measured on eleven items using the scale developed by Black and Stephens (1989). The scale developed by Zhou (2001:44) was slightly modified to measure the seven items of institutional characteristics. For the purpose of this study, the two facets of organisational justice, namely procedural justice and interactional justice were also measured. Procedural justice was measured on four items adapted from Barrett-Howard and Tyler (1986:298) and the other four items were adapted from Greenberg (1986) to measure the interactional justice. Organisational commitment was measured on seven items adapted from the scale developed by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979:288). The scale developed by Mowday, Koberg and Mc Arthur (1984:83) was slightly modified to measure the four items of the perceived external job opportunities. Talent retention strategies were measured on twelve items, modified and adapted from the “Intention to stay” questionnaire developed by Kumar and Govindarajo (2014:166). The questionnaire therefore encompassed a total of 66 items, excluding the demographics.

#### **5.18 USE OF THE 5 POINT LIKERT SCALE**

Also referred to as a summated rating scale, a Likert scale is a response format in which the responses are recorded using numbers spaced at equal intervals (Trochim *et al.*, 2016:183). Kumar (2014:204) highlights that the Likert scale is used in a questionnaire to measure the strength of the attitudes of the respondent towards a phenomenon. Trochim, *et al.* (2016:183) identify different types of Likert-type response scales. These include the five-point Likert scale, the seven-point Likert scale and the nine-point Likert scale. In the context of this study, a five-point Likert scale with responses ranging from ‘strongly agree’ (1) to ‘strongly disagree’ (5) was used to record the responses in the pre-coded structured questionnaire.

#### **5.19 PRE-TESTING THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

Kumar (2014:191) states that pre-testing is a research strategy that determines if respondents understand the questions. Pre-testing usually reduces the likelihood of respondents having problems in answering questions. Thus, Saunders, *et al.*

(2012:428) assert that effective pre-testing entails determining the respondents' interest; establishing if the questions are meaningful; examining the questions for continuity and flow; experimenting with the sequencing; collecting early warning data on item variability; and fixing the length and timing of the questionnaire. In order to ensure that respondents understood and could interpret the questions, a pre-test was carried out with three randomly selected expatriate academics. These selected expatriate academics were not included in the final sampling list for this study.

## **5.20 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT**

Rogers (1961) as cited by Saunders, *et al.* (2009:156) postulates that “scientific methodology needs to be seen for what it truly is, a way of preventing me from deceiving myself in regard to my creatively formed subjective hunches which have developed out of the relationship between me and my material”. Hence, Saunders, *et al.* (2009:156) prompt researchers to pay attention to the quality of the measuring instrument to ensure the credibility of the research findings. Various scholars have developed two main criteria for evaluating the quality of measurement, namely reliability and validity (Saunders *et al.*, 2012:192; Blumberg *et al.*, 2014:195).

However, it is worth noting that before conducting the reliability of the items, the researcher ensured that all negatively-keyed items were ‘reverse-scored’ or recoded so that they are consistent with positively keyed items on the Likert scale. As depicted in the questionnaire (Annexure B), all recoded items are identified with the letter (R).

### **5.20.1 RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

According to Saunders, *et al.* (2012:192), reliability is the extent to which a data collection technique will yield consistent findings if it is repeated on different occasions. Blumberg, *et al.* (2014:195) state that reliability refers to a characteristic of measurement concerned with accuracy, precision and consistency. Likewise, Jackson (2016:62) concurs that a measure is reliable if it produces a similar score each time the measurement instrument is used. Thus, in order to ensure the reliability of this study, all the items of the questionnaire were clearly, concisely and explicitly phrased. Furthermore, the Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha test was conducted for each variable to determine the consistency and the reliability of the items. Thus, the reliability of the independent variable (turnover intention) and the seven independents variables

(institutional characteristics, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, retention strategies, perceived external opportunities, organisational justice and adjustment) were run in order to ensure the consistency of the questions. A Cronbach's coefficient alpha value less than 0.6 is poor; a reliability value of 0.7 is acceptable; and a reliability value of 0.80 and above is good (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Thus, the results obtained from the Cronbach's alpha revealed a high reliability of .866 on the eight items of the dependent variable 'turnover intention'. The nine items of the independent variable 'job satisfaction' yielded a high reliability score of .836. A high reliability of .814 was also recorded on the eleven items of the independent variable, 'cultural and social adjustment'. Additionally, the independent variable 'institutional characteristics' resulted in an acceptable reliability of .738 on seven items, while the eight items of the independent variable 'organisational justice' produced a high reliability score of .882. Furthermore, the Cronbach alpha of the independent variable 'organisational commitment', measured on seven items, revealed a high score of .826. The four items of the independent variable 'perceived external job opportunities' yielded a moderate reliability score of .708; and the twelve items of the independent variable 'talent retention strategies' produced a high reliability score of .917.

In sum, a total of 66 items of the eight variables of this study were subjected to a reliability test. The Cronbach alpha as presented in Table 5.4 and depicted in Annexure G showed that all the eight variables were consistent. Therefore, all 66 items were considered for further analysis.

**TABLE 5.4 RESULTS OF THE CRONBACH APHA OF THE VARIABLES**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Cronbach Alpha Coefficient</b>	<b>Number of Items</b>
Turnover Intention	.866	8
Job Satisfaction	.836	9
Social-Cultural Adjustment	.814	11
Intuitionl Characteristics	.738	7
Organisational Justice	.882	8
Organisational Commitment	.826	7
Perceived Job Opportunities	.708	4
Talent Retention Strategies	.917	12

### 5.20.2 VALIDITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

According to Saunders, *et al.* (2012:193), *content validity or face validity* is concerned with the agreement that a question, scale or measure appears logically to reflect accurately what it was intended to measure. *Construct validity* refers to the extent to which the measuring instrument actually measures what it intends to measure (Trochim *et al.*, 2016:128). Gravetter and Forzano (2016:73) state that the validity of a measurement refers to the extent to which the research measurement procedure measures what it claims to measure. Thus, in order to ensure the content validity of the scale of this study, an expert consultation and audit trial were conducted. Furthermore, a factor analysis was run on SPSS version 25 to validate the underlying items that constitute each variable. As revealed in the literature, factor analysis is a statistical technique whose main goal is data reduction. A typical use of factor analysis is in survey research, where a researcher wishes to represent several questions with a small number of hypothetical factors. Before the interpretation of the findings from the factor analysis, it is worth mentioning that as a general requirement, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measurement of sampling adequacy should be greater than 0.50 and Bartlett's test of Sphericity less than 0.05 for factor analysis procedure. The matrix tables highlighted in Table 5.5 indicate the results of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy, as well as the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. As shown in Table 5.5 below, the average loading of items by components was above the acceptable Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin values ( $> 0.50$ ) and Bartlett's values ( $< 0.05$ ) for all the variables.

**TABLE 5.5 KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST**

Variables	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		
		Approx. Chi-Square	Df	Sig.
<b>Institutional characteristics</b>	0.749	174.089	21	0.000
<b>Turnover intention</b>	0.839	491.805	28	0.000
<b>Cultural and social adjustment</b>	0.746	574.758	55	0.000
<b>Job satisfaction</b>	0.817	421.800	36	0.000
<b>Organisational commitment</b>	0.793	378.707	21	0.000
<b>Perceived job opportunity</b>	0.687	92.372	6	0.000
<b>Organisational justice</b>	0.844	936.496	28	0.000
<b>Adequacy of the retention strategies of the institution</b>	0.906	897.22	66	0.000

### 5.20.2.1 VALIDATING THE INSTITUTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

As seen in Table 5.5.1, the respondents' scoring pattern loaded in two components. All the items were suitable for factor analysis as they were all above 0.5. Four items loaded in the first component. These items assessed the characteristics of the organisation with regard to the features of an institution in terms of size, reputation and diversity. The three loaded items in the second component measured the characteristics of the internal work environment of an institution.

**TABLE 5.5.1 VALIDATING INSTITUTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS VARIABLES**

	Component	
	1	2
B11.1	0.826	-0.013
B11.2	0.515	0.472
B11.3	0.717	0.245
B11.4	0.675	0.155
B11.5	0.180	0.670
B11.6	0.053	0.715
B11.7	0.166	0.831
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.		

### 5.20.2.2 VALIDATING TURNOVER INTENTION

As presented in Table 5.5.2, the respondents' scoring pattern loaded in two components. The five items of the first component directly measure the turnover intention of the respondents. The three items loaded in the second component assessed other aspects related to job search that indicate the intention to leave

**TABLE 5.5.2 VALIDATING TURNOVER INTENTION VARIABLES**

	Component	
	1	2
B.12.1	0.770	0.326
B.12.2.R	0.840	0.077
B.12.3.R	0.848	0.064
B.12.4.R	0.696	0.270
B.12.5	0.678	0.339
B.12.6	0.292	0.844
B.12.7	0.094	0.882
B.12.8	0.234	0.839
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.		

### 5.20.2.3 VALIDATING CULTURAL AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

As seen in Table 5.5.3, the respondents' scoring pattern loaded in three components. Four items loaded above 0.5 in the first component. These items measured the social and cultural adjustment of expatriate academics. The two loaded items in the second component assessed the social and cultural adjustment of expatriate academics' spouses in the host country and the two loaded items in the third component measured the adjustment of expatriate academics' children. Even though all the items of the scale developed by Black and Stephens (1989) measured the cultural and social adjustment of expatriates and family in the host country, it is noted that the item B.13.4 'the cost of living in the host country is cheaper than at home' did not load in any component. This can be attributed to many reasons, one of them being that expatriate academics are diverse, as they come from different locations, they obviously have different standards of living; therefore, and they may have different opinions about the cost of living.

**TABLE 5.5.3 VALIDATING CULTURAL AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT**

	Component		
	1	2	3
B.13.1	0.148	0.805	-0.001
B.13.2	0.028	0.856	0.168
B.13.3	0.597	0.388	-0.089
B.13.4	0.447	0.498	-0.013
B.13.5	0.796	-0.042	0.064
B.13.6	0.744	0.256	0.094
B.13.7	0.217	0.381	0.496
B.13.8	0.749	0.109	0.360
B.13.9	0.041	0.073	0.905
B.13.10	0.057	0.017	0.931
B.13.11	0.256	0.632	0.440
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.			
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.			

#### 5.20.2.4 VALIDATING JOB SATISFACTION

As portrayed in Table 5.5.4, the respondents' scoring pattern loaded in two components. The six loaded items above 0.5 in the first component measured the satisfaction of expatriate academics with their career prospects with regard to their career advancement and promotion. The three loaded items in the second components measured expatriate academics' satisfaction with the working environment in terms of management style and job responsibility.

**TABLE 5.5.4 VALIDATING THE JOB SATISFACTION VARIABLE**

	Component	
	1	2
B.14.1	0.757	0.357
B.14.2	0.656	0.373
B.14.3.R	0.723	-0.243
B.14.4	0.759	0.213
B.14.5	0.347	0.622
B.14.6	0.540	0.325
B.14.7	0.708	0.456
B.14.8	-0.040	0.842
B.14.9	0.295	0.581
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.		
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.		



### 5.20.2.5 VALIDATING ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

As seen in Table 5.5.5, the respondents' scoring pattern loaded in two components. The four items loaded above 0.5 in the first component measured the affective commitment or the emotional attachment that expatriate academics have with their institution. The three loaded items in the second component assessed the normative commitment or the feeling of indebtedness that forces expatriate academics to remain with their institutions.

**TABLE 5.5.5 VALIDATING ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

	Component	
	1	2
B.15.1	0.823	0.305
B.15.2.R	0.297	0.680
B.15.3	0.797	0.306
B.15.4	0.884	0.123
B.15.5	0.848	0.019
B.15.6.R	0.310	0.720
B.15.7.R	-0.066	0.793
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.		
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.		

### 5.20.2.6 VALIDATING PERCEIVED JOB OPPORTUNITIES

As depicted in Table 5.5.6, the respondents' scoring pattern loaded heavily in one component. This suggests that all the components measured the variable, perceived job opportunities.

**TABLE 5.5.6 VALIDATING PERCEIVED JOB OPPORTUNITIES**

	Component
	1
B.16.1	0.696
B.16.2.R	0.783
B.16.3.R	0.734
B.16.4	0.704
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.	
a. 1 components extracted.	

### 5.20.2.7 VALIDATING ORGANISATION JUSTICE

As portrayed in Table 5.5.7, the respondents' scoring pattern in loaded two components. The four items loaded in the first component assessed the interactional justice or the extent to which expatriate academics perceived fairness in the way they are treated by their supervisors. The other four items loaded in the second component measured the procedural justice or the extent to which expatriate academics perceived fairness in the processes and procedures that lead to decisions in their institutions.

**TABLE 5.5.7 VALIDATING ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE**

	Component	
	1	2
B.17.1	0.125	0.873
B.17.2	0.213	0.840
B.17.3	0.069	0.908
B.17.4	0.257	0.834
B.17.5	0.934	0.128
B.17.6	0.956	0.174
B.17.7	0.945	0.186
B.17.8	0.808	0.184
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.		
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.		

### 5.20.2.8 VALIDATING THE ADEQUACY OF THE RETENTION STRATEGIES OF THE INSTITUTION

As seen in Table 5.5.8, the respondents' scoring pattern loaded in two components. The eight items loaded above 0.5 in the first component measured the adequacy of the retention strategies with regard to expatriate academics' career advancement and promotion. The four loaded items in the second component measured the adequacy of retention strategies related to compensation and job security.

**TABLE 5.5.8 VALIDATING THE ADEQUACY OF THE RETENTION STRATEGIES OF THE INSTITUTION**

	Component	
	1	2
B.18.1	0.748	0.279
B.18.2	0.697	0.154
B.18.3	0.341	0.753
B.18.4	0.252	0.803
B.18.5	0.197	0.867
B.18.6	0.665	0.509
B.18.7	0.196	0.719
B.18.8	0.618	0.541
B.18.9	0.822	0.265
B.18.10	0.825	0.255
B.18.11	0.800	0.183
B.18.12	0.526	0.218
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.		
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.		

## 5.21 PILOT STUDY

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:287) prompt the researcher to always determine the validity of the questionnaire items when conducting a study on a new population even when proven valid in other studies. Saunders *et al.*, (2009:394) state that pilot testing allows the researcher to refine and improve the questionnaire by minimising problems and by facilitating the understanding of the questions. In order to establish the strength of this study and to discard shortcomings of the questionnaire, a pilot test was conducted on three expatriate academics. The three expatriate academics were omitted from the final target respondents in the study. The feedback of the pilot testing revealed that the questions were phrased correctly and the instructions were easy to

understand and follow. It is also worth highlighting that a qualified statistician was used when the questionnaire was initially designed and subsequently refined thereafter.

## **5.22 HYPOTHESES TESTING**

In order to evaluate the plausibility of the research hypotheses, the researcher should test the hypotheses. Jackson (2016:189) defines hypothesis testing as “a process of determining whether a hypothesis is supported by the results of a research study”. Likewise, Gravetter and Forzano (2016:463) describe it as a “statistical procedure that uses sample data to evaluate the credibility of a hypothesis about a population”. Gravetter and Forzano (2016:463) further emphasize that the main goal of the hypothesis test is to determine the internal validity of the research study. Jackson (2016:463) therefore identifies five basic elements involved in hypothesis testing. These elements include:

- A clear state of the null and alternative hypotheses;
- A decision whether the size of the test is one-tailed or two-tailed;
- The acceptable standard error;
- The test statistic; and
- The interval confidence level.

Thus, the hypotheses formulated for this research study, together with the statistical tests used, are shown in the subsequent chapter. Furthermore, the tenability of the conceptual model (Figure 4.1) is tested by way of hypotheses testing of the different variables contained in the exploratory framework in the following chapter. It is however worth mentioning that from the conceptual framework in Figure 4.1, the interconnections between independent variables were not hypothesized. This study only focussed on the interlinkage, both direct and indirect, between independent variables and turnover intentions.

## **5.23 DATA PROCESSING**

Data processing is a process of transforming raw data into a more usable one. Therefore, Kumar (2014:294) identifies two stages in processing data, namely editing and coding.

### **5.23.1 DATA EDITING**

Editing is the process of cleaning the data in order to get rid of all incomplete and inconsistent data (Kumar, 2014:296). Thus, after the completion of the empirical field work, each questionnaire was carefully scrutinised to ensure that it was completed as required. As a result, eight (8) questionnaires were discarded because they were either incomplete or incorrectly filled. Thus, the final target respondents equated to 125.

### **5.23.2 DATA CODING**

Trochim, *et al.* (2016:67) define coding as the process of categorising collected data. With regard to this study, data was categorised and captured in SPSS version 25 into a nominal and ordinal form and each category was assigned numerical values to facilitate the analysis.

## **5.24 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Resnik (2011) as cited by Trochim, *et al.* (2016:34) states that it is important for the researcher to abide by ethical norms when conducting research because the norms promote moral and social values. In addition, ethical norms ensure the quality and the integrity of the research (Trochim *et al.*, 2016:34). Likewise, Gravetter and Forzano (2016:101) postulate that researchers must be guided by ethical principles underpinned by honesty, responsibility and respect towards all individuals involved in their research studies. However, Gravetter and Forzano (2016:107) state that most ethical principles concerning individuals in research are encapsulated in the American Psychological Association's Ethical guidelines (APA, 2010). Thus, this research study followed the APA's ethical guidelines by firstly seeking approval to conduct research from both institutions under study. After receiving the gate-keeper's letters (Annexure D & E), the researcher probed ethical issues that could have arisen during and after the study. Furthermore, the researcher ensured that the questionnaire contained an informed consent form that encompassed the purpose of the study, the expected duration of the field work and the right of the respondent to decline participation at any time without aversion on the part of the researcher. The researcher abstained from invading the privacy of respondents. In addition, neither monetary compensation nor coercion was applicable during the administration of the questionnaire. Moreover, data collected were securely kept, maintaining the confidentiality and the anonymity of respondents. It is also worth mentioning that an ethical clearance letter (Annexure F)

was issued by DUT's Institutional Research Committee (IREC) after the proposal, as well as the questionnaire (Annexure B) were thoroughly assessed by experienced reviewers and approved by the Management Faculty Research Committee Panel.

## **5.25 DATA ANALYSIS**

The Statistical Program for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 for Windows was the preferred statistical tool used to analyse the data of this study. Quantitative analyses such as tables, charts, graphs, histograms and relevant statistical tests were used to display and portray the results. In addition, the results were described, interpreted and reported qualitatively. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies were used to assess factors that predict the turnover intentions of expatriate academics. Inferential statistics helped to establish the relationship amongst the variables.

## **5.26 CONCLUSION**

This chapter provided a systematic description of the research methodology employed in this study. It explained the research approach, justified the research strategy used and discussed the philosophical assumptions underpinning the research study. Furthermore, the chapter described the research design adopted, as well as the method used for data collection. In addition, the validity and the reliability of the measurement instrument were determined and the ethical principles followed to ensure the quality of this research study were adhered to. The next chapter presents an analysis of the data and the discussion of the results.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results obtained from the data analysis and to discuss the empirical findings thereof. The research design for the study adopted the quantitative method with the use of a structured questionnaire (Annexure B). The questionnaire was administered to 133 identified expatriate academics employed at the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand respectively. Of the 133 respondents who returned the questionnaires, eight (8) were discarded as they were incomplete, which then equated to N=125 expatriate academics as the final target respondents for analysis. The data was analysed using SPSS version 25 for Windows aligned to the research objectives and, of equal importance, the research questions outlined hereunder. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were utilised to analyse the results and interpret the findings. The chapter elucidates the preliminary analysis of the demographic variables by way of frequency distributions and the scoring patterns of the respondents. Thereafter, the hypotheses were formulated to test the level of significance pertaining to the research questions and the validation of the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) developed for the study. It should be noted that the results of the empirical analysis only involved these two HE Institutions. Hence, the findings cannot be generalised to other HE Institutions in South Africa as situational factors vary. The chapter concludes with the limitations of the study encountered by the researcher.

#### **6.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

- What are the advantages of employing expatriate academics in the Higher Education Sector?
- What are the turnover intention levels of expatriate academics employed in both the HE Institutions under study?
- What are the demographic profiles of expatriate academics at both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand respectively?

- What are the causative factors impacting on expatriate academics' turnover intentions at the University of KwaZulu-Natal and at the University of Zululand?
- What are the differences in turnover intention amongst expatriate academics from different biographic groups?
- What are the theories underpinning the design of the conceptual framework of the predictors of turnover intentions for expatriate academics at the two institutions under study?
- How can the turnover intention factors of expatriate academics be minimised to retain their services at both these Higher Education Institutions?
- Which strategies should be adopted by Higher Education Institutions to manage their talented expatriate academics to deter them from leaving their institutions?

### **6.3 ANALYSIS OF DATA**

Data analysis entails using statistical methods to organise and summarize the data obtained in order to answer the research questions, as well as to make inferences about the population (Gravetter and Forzano, 2016:443). Thus, in analysing the data of this research study, two statistical procedures were used, namely descriptive and inferential statistics. Jackson (2016:112) states that descriptive statistics are used to describe the variables in numerical forms, including frequencies, means, variances and standard deviations. This study used frequencies to present the biographic and the scoring patterns of respondents.

Inferential statistics involved the use of various statistical tests for drawing conclusions based on the findings of the research study, as well as making generalisation about the population (Jackson, 2016:196; Gravetter and Forzano, 2016:443). For the purpose of this study, the inferential statistics used included the Chi-square goodness of fit test; Fisher's Exact Test; Mann-Whitney U test; Kruskal-Wallis H test; Pearson's Correlation Coefficient; Regression analysis and Structural Equation Modelling. The following sections present the findings of the statistical analysis.



## 6.4 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (FREQUENCIES)

Trochim, *et al.* (2016:293) describe a frequency distribution as a process of organising, displaying, grouping and arranging the data into conveniently numerical categories so that specific values can be read. The following section presents the description of the biographical data.

### 6.4.1 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

This section summarises the biographical characteristics of the respondents, who were all expatriate academics employed either at the University of KwaZulu-Natal or at the University of Zululand in the KwaZulu-Natal Province of South Africa. Thus, the biographical variables analysed below pertain to age, gender, highest qualification of the expatriate academic, their marital status, academic rank, number of years spent in the institution, number of years of experience in academia and their origin.

#### 6.4.1.1 GENDER AND AGE DISTRIBUTION

As depicted below, the gender distribution by age groups is illustrated in Table 6.1 and the proportion of age and gender of expatriate academics is shown in Figure 6.1 and Figure 6.2 respectively.

**TABLE 6.1 GENDER DISTRIBUTION BY AGE GROUPS (N=125)**

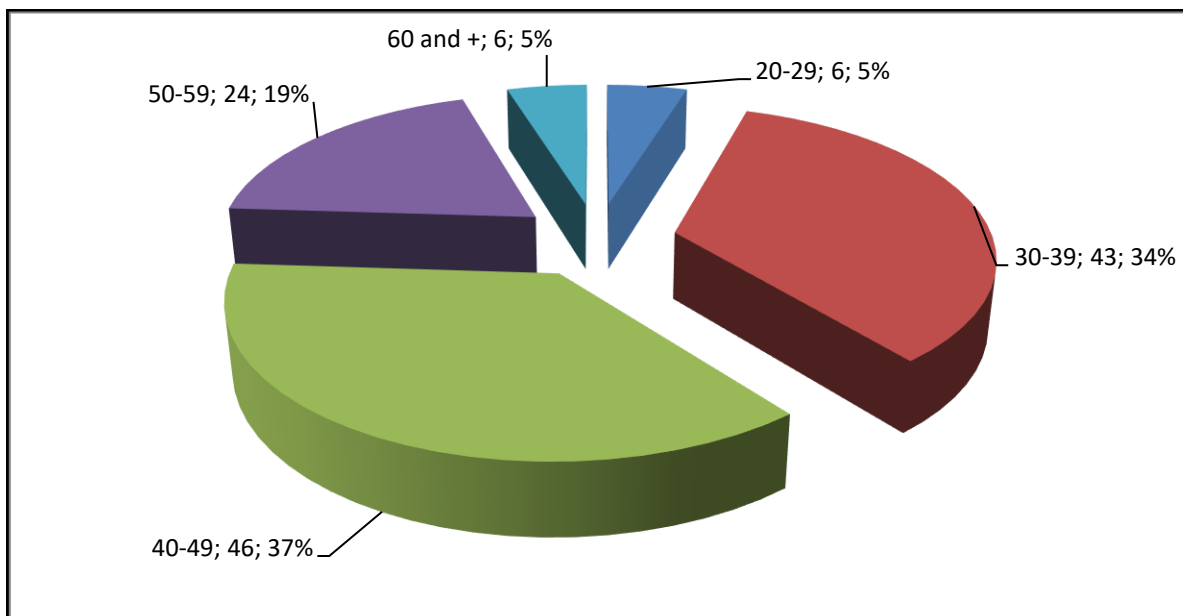
			Gender		Total
			Male	Female	
Age	20-29	Count	5	1	6
		% of Total	4.0%	0.8%	4.8%
	30-39	Count	36	7	43
		% of Total	28.8%	5.6%	34.4%
	40-49	Count	40	6	46
		% of Total	32.0%	4.8%	36.8%
	50-59	Count	18	6	24
		% of Total	14.4%	4.8%	19.2%
	60+	Count	4	2	6
		% of Total	3.2%	1.6%	4.8%
Total		Count	103	22	125
		% of Total	82.4%	17.6%	100.0%

The gender distribution of expatriate academics per age group depicted in Table 6.1 shows that the proportion of male respondents (82.4%) dominated the females

(17.6%). Thus, with regard to the age distribution, the proportion of males (4.0%) within the age distribution of 20-29 years old was higher than the females (0.8%). Similarly, there were more males within the age distribution of 30-39 years (28.8%) and 40-49 years old (32.0%), respectively. Equally, male (14.4%) respondents constituted the highest number within the age distribution of 50-59 years old, as well as above 60 years old (3.2%). Overall, most of the respondents (36.8%) were within the age distribution of 40-49 years old, with the lowest representative within the age distribution of 20-29 years (4.8%) and above 60 years old (4.8%).

Further to the analysis depicted in Table 6.1 above, the pie-chart shown in Figure 6.1 below highlights the age frequencies of the respondents.

**FIGURE 6.1 AGE FREQUENCIES AND DISTRIBUTIONS (N=125)**

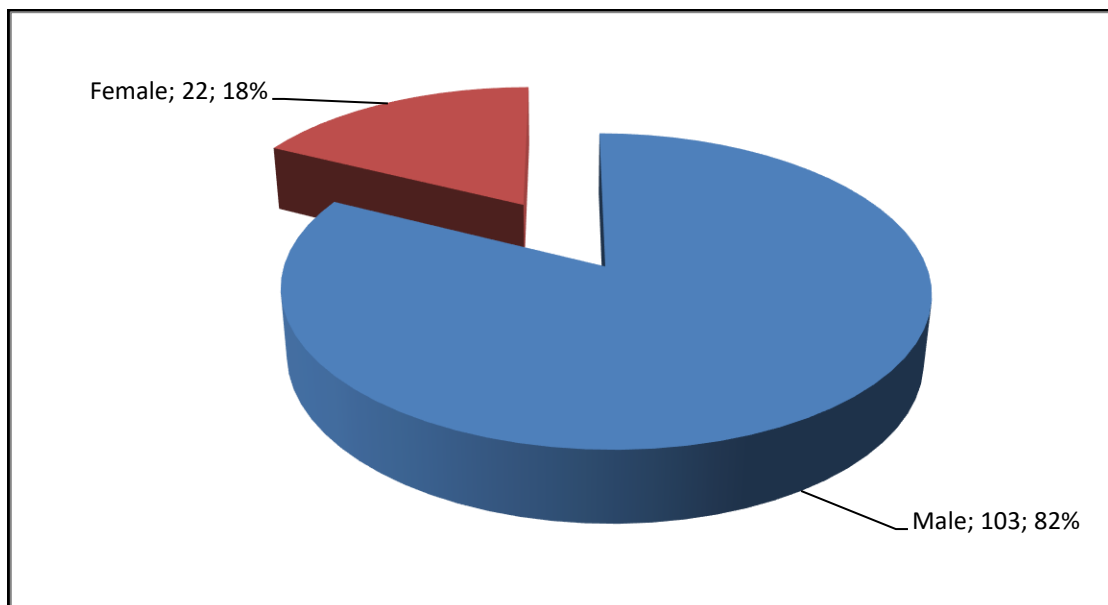


As presented above (Figure 6.1), it can be observed that the age group 20-29 years equated to 5%; 34% for the age group 30-39 years; 37% for the age group 40-49 years; 19% for the age group 50-59; and the age group 60 and above equalled 6.5%. From the above figures, it can be deduced that the respondents of this study were mostly mature (37%) followed by adults (34%). These findings may have an impact on their perceptions of the factors that could stimulate their turnover intentions.

Additionally, the pie-chart depicted in Figure 6.2 below shows the proportions of gender. It is observed that the proportion of males (83%) dominated the proportion of women (22%). These findings were not surprising as many studies revealed that

women were under-represented in foreign assignments (Calguiri and Tung, 1999:764; Linehan and Scullion, 2004:439; Cole and McNutty, 2011:152).

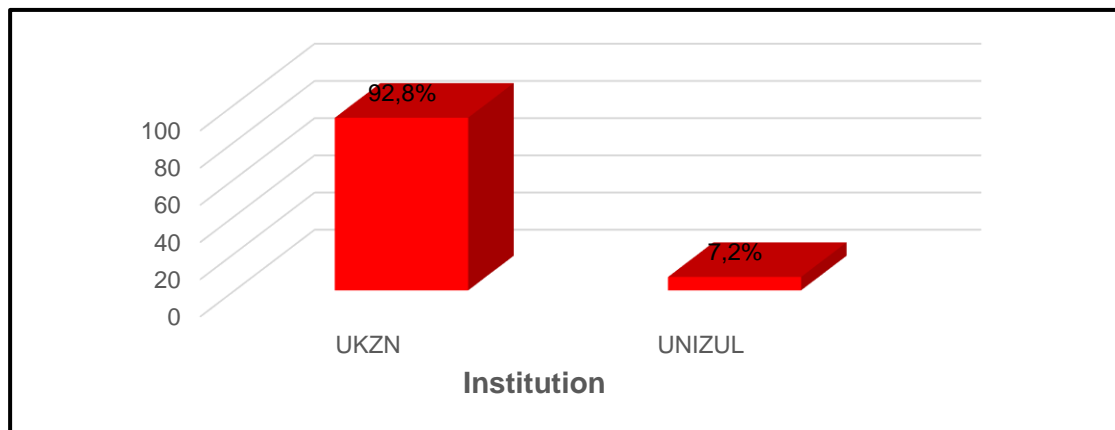
**FIGURE 6.2 GENDER FREQUENCIES AND DISTRIBUTIONS (N=125)**



#### **6.4.1.2 HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS AND LOCUS OF THE RESPONDENTS**

The histogram presented in Figure 6.3 below shows that the majority of respondents (92.8%) were employed by the University of KwaZulu-Natal, while 7.2% of the remaining respondents were employed by the University of Zululand. The high discrepancy in responses between the two institutions can be attributed to the fact that many potential respondents from the University of Zululand declined to participate in the study. Moreover, there were more expatriate academics employed with the University of KwaZulu-Natal than with the University of Zululand. Maharaj (2014:162) found that the University of KwaZulu-Natal ranked third as compared to the ranking of fifteen from the University of Zululand in a survey conducted in 2012 on the number of expatriate academics employed in South African Higher Education Institutions.

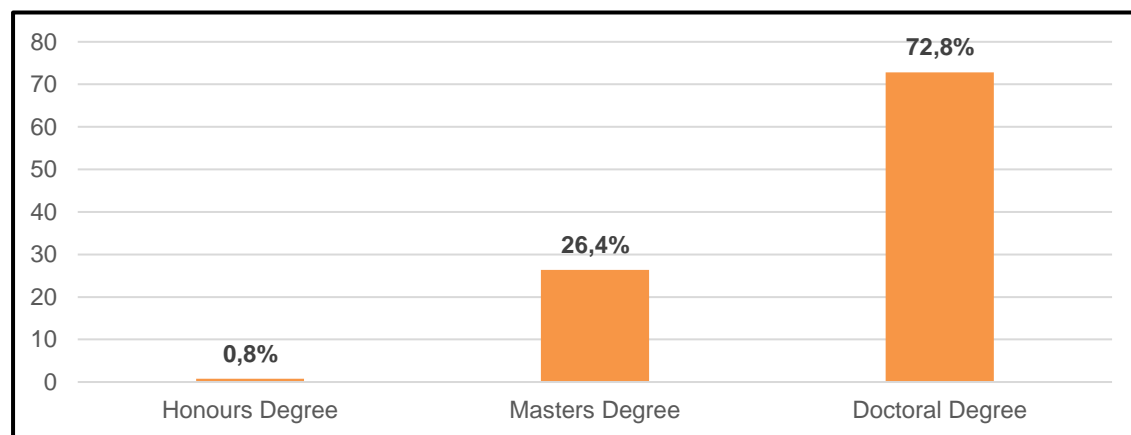
**FIGURE 6.3 HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS OF RESPONDENTS (N=125)**



#### **6.4.1.3 RESPONDENTS' HIGHEST QUALIFICATION**

The bar graphs (Figure 6.4) below present the proportion of the highest education qualification of the respondents.

**FIGURE 6.4 RESPONDENTS' HIGHEST EDUCATION QUALIFICATIONS (N=125)**



As Shown in Figure 6.4 above, most respondents (72.8%) hold a doctoral degree; while 26.4% had a Masters' degree; and a very few (0.8%) had an Honours degree. These findings revealed that expatriate academics in the study were highly qualified and knowledgeable. These findings concur with Richardson and McKenna (2006:9) who claimed that expatriate academics are highly qualified and skilled individuals that have expertise in their fields. Likewise, a study by Maharaj (2014:158) examining the management of expatriates in South African Higher Education Institutions also found

that many expatriate academics had a doctoral degree and were mostly employed in Science, Engineering and Technology departments.

#### 6.4.1.4 MARITAL STATUS

The pie-chart in Figure 6.5 below presents the marital status of the respondents.

**FIGURE 6.5 RESPONDENTS' MARITAL STATUS (N=125)**

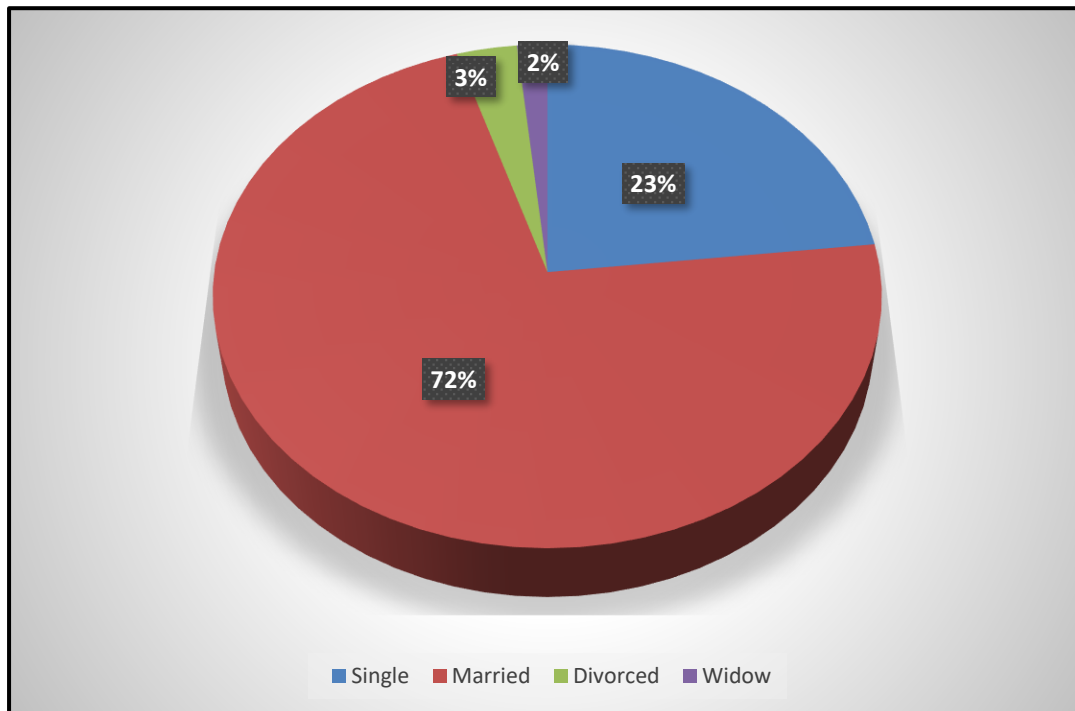


Figure 6.5 above shows that most respondents (72%) were married, while 23% were reported to be single. Figure 6.5 above revealed that very few respondents (3%) were divorced, as well as widowed (2%). These findings may infer that most expatriate academics were with their spouse and possibly children in the host country. This may influence their level of cultural and social adjustment in the host country and probably their turnover intentions.

#### 6.4.1.5 NUMBER OF YEARS IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION

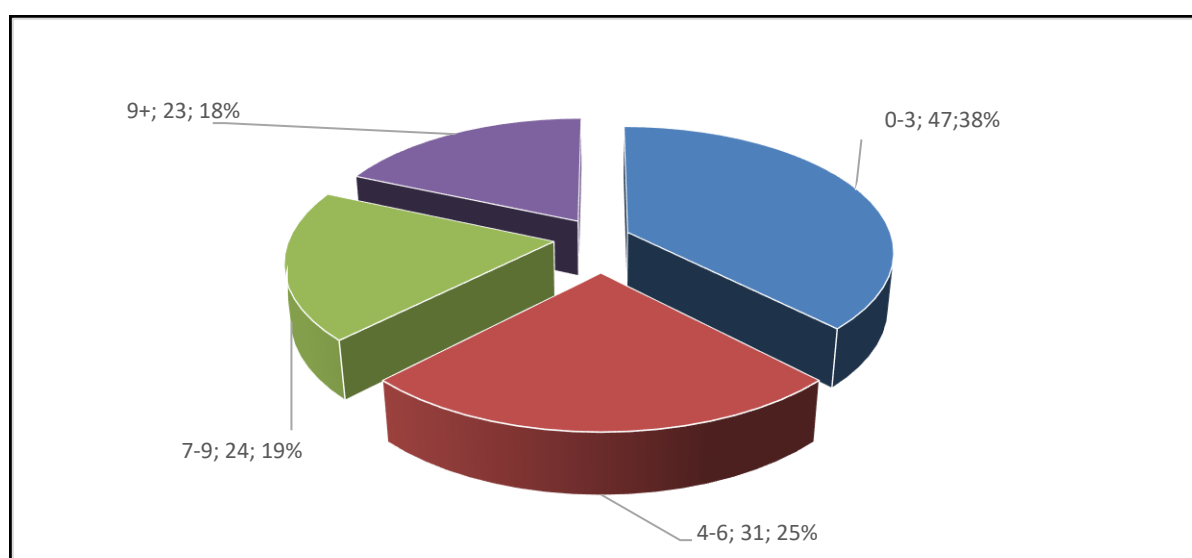
Table 6.2 illustrated below shows the number of years respondents had spent in their institutions, namely the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand.

**TABLE 6.2 NUMBER OF YEARS IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION (N=125)**

		Frequency	Percent
Number of years in the Institution	0-3	47	37.6%
	4-6	31	24.8%
	7-9	24	19.2%
	10+	23	18.4%
	Total	125	100.0%

As illustrated in Table 6.2 above, most (37.6%) of the respondents have spent 0-3 years in their institutions; 24.8% have spent 4-6 years; and 19.2% have spent 7-9 years, while the lowest representative of expatriate academics (18.4%) have spent above 9 years in their institutions. Further to Table 6.2 above, the pie chart depicted in Figure 6.6 shows the proportion of the number of years expatriate academics have spent in their institutions.

**FIGURE 6.6 NUMBER OF YEARS IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION (N=125)**



As portrayed in Figure 6.6 above, it can be observed that the majority of respondents (38%) have spent 0-3 years with the organisation. This can be translated into the possibility of having a high turnover of expatriate academics in these institutions.

#### 6.4.1.6 RESPONDENTS' TENURE STATUS

The proportion of respondents' tenure statuses are depicted in Table 6.3 below

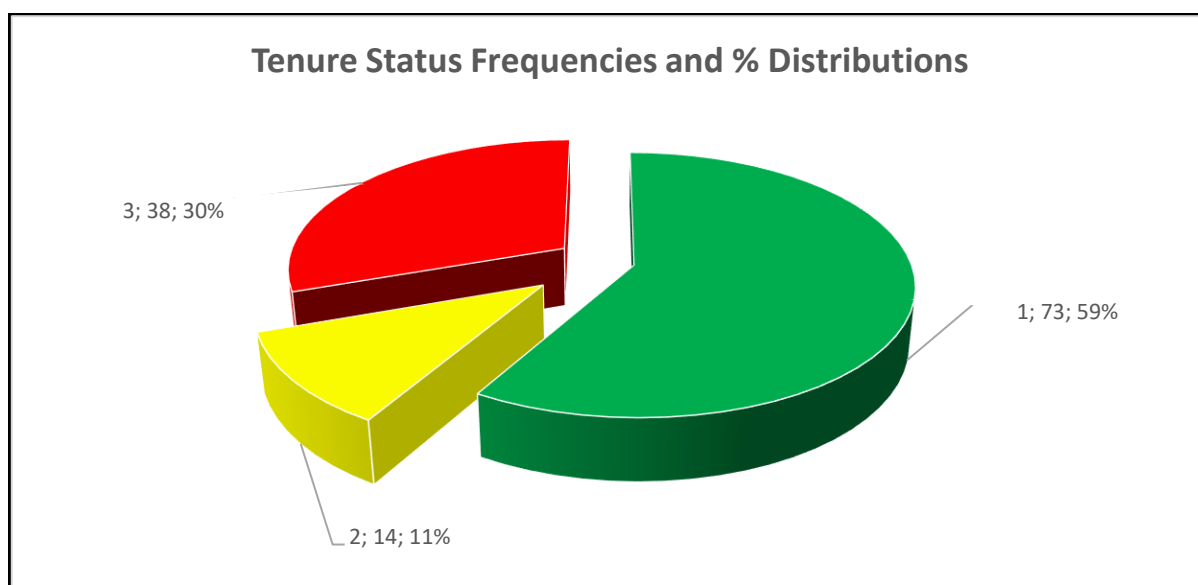
**TABLE 6.3 TENURE STATUS OF THE RESPONDENTS (N=125)**

		Frequency	Percent
Tenure Status	Permanent	73	58.4%
	Temporary	14	11.2%
	Contract	38	30.4%
	Total	125	100.0%

Table 6.3 above reveals that most expatriate academics (58.4%) were permanent staff, while 30.4% were on contract and the remaining 11.2% were employed as temporary staff. These results imply that expatriate academics could also secure a permanent position in both institutions. These results may influence expatriate academics' intention to leave or stay with their institutions.

In addition to the analysis shown in Table 6.3 above, the pie chart in Figure 6.7 below portrays the proportion of the tenure statuses of expatriate academics in the study. As seen in Figure 6.7, a large proportion (58%) with a head count of 73 comprised expatriate academics who were employed permanently in their institutions.

**FIGURE 6.7 TENURE STATUS FREQUENCIES AND DISTRIBUTIONS (N=125)**



#### 6.4.1.7 RESPONDENTS' NUMBER OF YEARS IN ACADEMIA

Table 6.4 shows the proportion of the respondents' number of years of experience in academia.

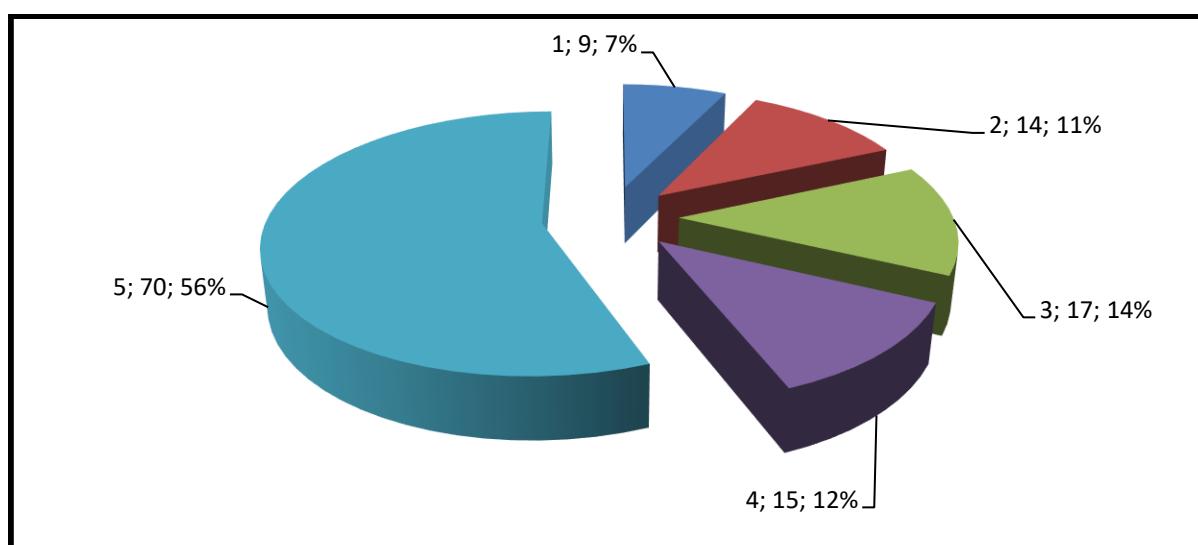
**TABLE 6.4 NUMBER OF YEARS IN ACADEMIA (N=125)**

		Frequency	Percent
Number of years in Academia	0-2	9	7.2%
	3-4	14	11.2%
	5-6	17	13.65
	7-8	15	12.0%
	9+	70	56.0%
	Total	125	100.0%

As illustrated in Table 6.4 above, 56.0% of the respondents have been in academia for nine and more years; 12% had 7-8 years of experience in academia; 13.65% had 5-6 years of experience in academia; 11.2% had 3-4 years, while the lowest (7.2%) had between 0-2 years of experience in academia.

Furthermore, the pie chart illustrated in Figure 6.8 below shows the frequency distribution of the number of years the respondents had spent in academia. As depicted in Figure 6.8, it can be observed that most expatriate academics (56%), with a count of 70, had been 9 years or more in academia. Thus, it can be deduced that expatriate academics were experienced and knowledgeable in their fields.

**FIGURE 6.8. NUMBER OF YEARS IN ACADEMIA FREQUENCIES DISTRIBUTIONS (N=125)**

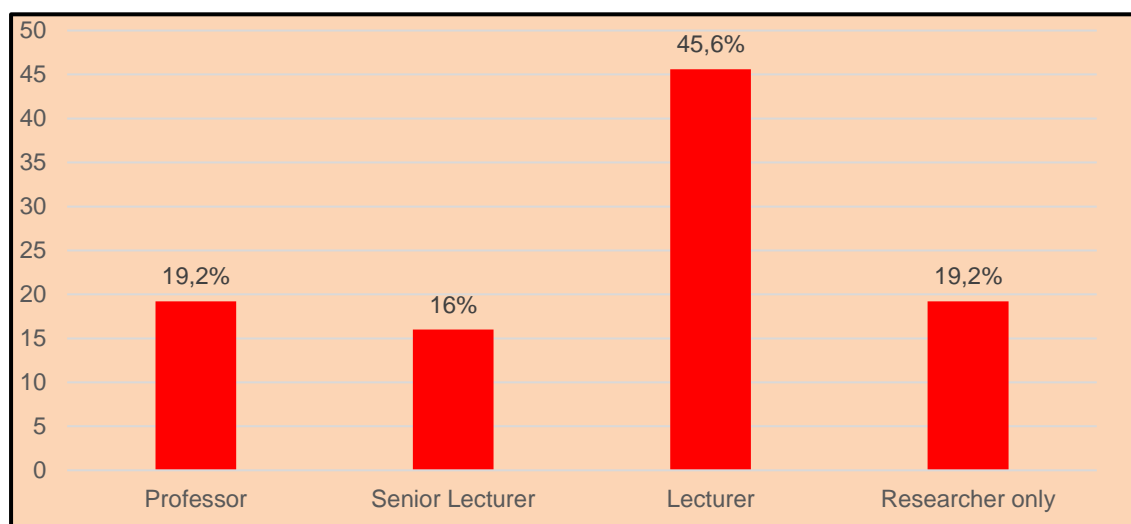




#### 6.4.1.8 RESPONDENTS' ACADEMIC RANKS

The histogram below (Figure 2.9) portrays the academic ranks of the respondents. These include the ranks of professor, senior lecturer, lecturer and researcher only.

**FIGURE 6.9 RESPONDENTS' ACADEMIC RANKS (N=125)**

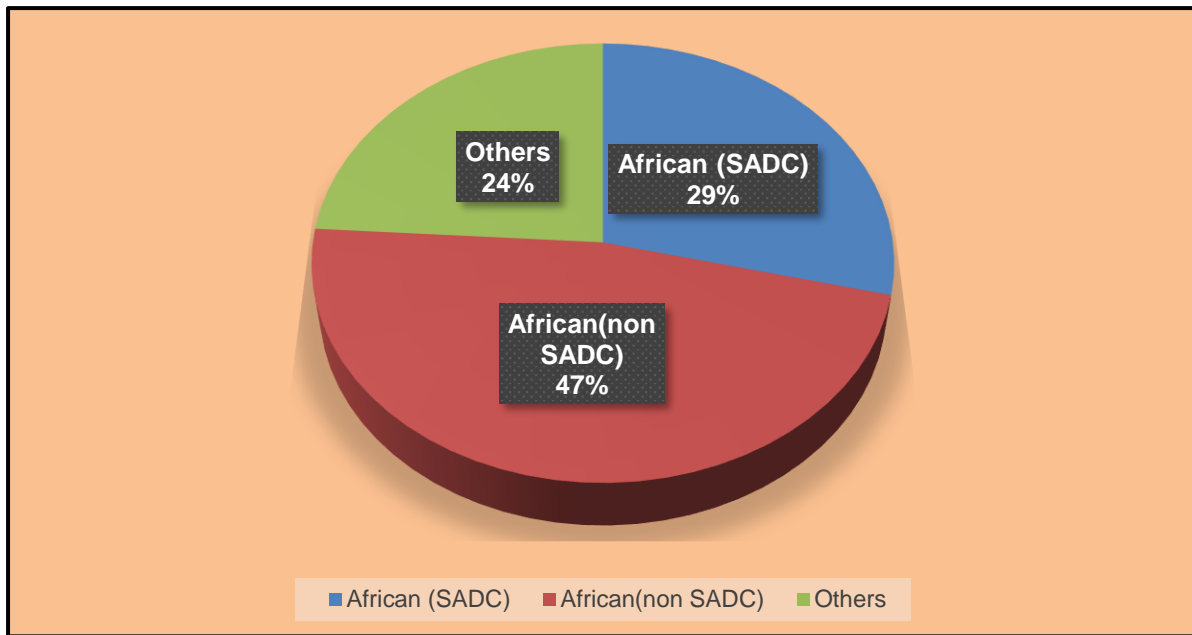


As presented in Figure 6.9 above, more than half of the respondents (45.6%) were lecturers, followed by both professors (19.2%) and researchers (19.2%), with senior lecturers (16%) making up the remaining academics in both institutions (i.e. UKZN and UNIZUL). These results revealed that even though most expatriate academics hold a doctoral degree as depicted in the previous analyses, the majority do not hold higher academic positions in the above-mentioned institutions. These findings can influence their level of satisfaction with promotion opportunities and career advancement in their institutions.

#### 6.4.1.9 ORIGIN OF RESPONDENTS

Figure 6.10 below shows the origin of the respondents. It was observed that most respondents (47.2%) were from African (non-SADC) countries, followed by African (SADC) countries (28.8%) and other areas excluding Africa (24.0%). These findings seem to indicate that most expatriate academics were quite far from their homelands. Given that most respondents are from African (non-SADC) countries, it will be interesting to know how they have adjusted to the host country.

**FIGURE 6.10 ORIGIN OF THE RESPONDENTS (N=125)**



## **6.5 INFERENCEAL STATISTICS**

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2016:310), inferential statistics help the researcher to analyse the data through statistics. They involve assessing the relationship between two constructs, identifying the differences that exist in a variable amongst groups and determining how predicting variables may explain the variance in the dependent variable. Thus, the subsequent sections present the inferential statistics employed to analyse and explain the data emanating from the field work for the study.

### **6.5.1 EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS' SCORING PATTERNS**

The previous section looked at the descriptive aspects of the results of the demographic profiles of expatriate academics. It was found that the majority of expatriate academics in the study were employed at UKZN, they were in the middle age group (40-49) and there were more males than females. The analysis further revealed that most expatriate academics hold a lecturer position in their institutions, even though the majority had a doctoral degree. The findings from the analysis of the demographic variables also showed that most expatriate academics had been with their institutions for a period of 3 years or less, despite having more than 9 years of experience in academia. Thus, from the findings of the biographic analyses, it is important to examine the factors that influence turnover intentions from the perspective of expatriate academics.

The next section used the Chi-square Test to assess turnover intentions from the different biographic groups and the Fisher's Exact Test was conducted to assess the scoring patterns of respondents with regard to the independent variables, namely institutional characteristics, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceived job opportunities, organisational justice, cultural and social adjustment and adequacy of retention strategies. Each of the following sections is substantiated with a table portraying the statistical analysis findings. However, Table 6.5 below provides a composite summary of the Chi-square Test and its significance for each of the biographical variables.

**TABLE 6.5. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BIOGRAPHICAL DATA AND TURNOVER INTENTION (N=125)**

Turnover Intention		Age	Gender	Institution	Highest qualification	Marital status	Number of years in the institution	Tenure status	Academic rank	Number of years in Academia	Origin
I intend to leave my present institution	Chi-square	26.697	1.840	5.298	9.682	13.874	15.994	13.968	30.388	26.777	8.534
	Df	16	4	4	8	12	12	8	12	16	8
	Sig.	0.045	0.765	0.258	0.288	0.309	0.191	0.083	0.002	0.044	0.383
I have a strong personal desire to continue working for my current institution	Chi-square	12.368	1.737	9.592	6.079	12.500	12.203	13.156	16.254	18.802	5.392
	Df	16	4	4	8	12	12	8	12	16	8
	Sig.	0.718	0.784	0.048	0.638	0.406	0.430	0.107	0.180	0.279	0.715
I would be reluctant to leave this institution	Chi-square	12.840	2.515	7.172	7.598	16.227	7.599	7.493	8.733	21.931	5.548
	Df	16	4	4	8	12	12	8	12	16	8
	Sig.	0.684	0.642	0.127	0.474	0.181	0.816	0.484	0.726	0.145	0.698
Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave this institution before I retire	Chi-square	21.170	1.748	1.224	5.392	17.036	9.412	8.213	7.669	20.377	4.908
	Df	16	4	4	8	12	12	8	12	16	8
	Sig.	0.172	0.782	0.874	0.715	0.148	0.667	0.413	0.810	0.204	0.767
If I had a choice, I would leave my current institution as soon as I can	Chi-square	13.622	1.712	8.990	11.284	13.272	8.913	6.660	13.818	18.255	7.011
	Df	16	4	4	8	12	12	8	12	16	8
	Sig.	0.627	0.789	0.061	0.186	0.350	0.710	0.574	0.313	0.309	0.535
I usually consult job advertisements	Chi-square	28.059	12.572	9.353	6.592	16.518	34.188	19.053	17.332	16.334	14.105
	Df	16	4	4	8	12	12	8	12	16	8
	Sig.	0.031	0.014	0.053	0.581	0.169	0.001	0.015	0.138	0.430	0.079
I always subscribe to recruitment networks	Chi-square	40.857	3.352	0.921	5.139	23.452	17.211	26.251	19.285	23.179	9.075
	Df	16	4	4	8	12	12	8	12	16	8
	Sig.	0.001	0.501	0.922	0.743	0.024	0.142	0.001	0.082	0.109	0.336
I always update my CV in anticipation of a new job opportunity	Chi-square	30.777	10.232	3.345	10.604	21.105	14.945	18.051	16.463	19.691	9.505
	Df	16	4	4	8	12	12	8	12	16	8
	Sig.	0.014	0.037	0.502	0.225	0.049	0.244	0.021	0.171	0.234	0.302

## 6.5.2 EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS' PERCEIVED TURNOVER INTENTIONS

This section presents the analyses of the respondents' scoring patterns with reference to the Chi-square Test results presented in Table 6.5. It is however worth mentioning that this presentation is restricted to the Chi-square Test results that have a significant level of confidence ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Thus, regarding the statement "I intend to leave my present institution", the Chi-square analysis (Table 6.5) yielded no statistical difference at  $p > 0.05$  in the results by gender, institution, highest qualification, marital status, tenure status and origin of the respondents. In contrast, statistically significant differences were noted with respect to the age, academic rank of respondents, to the number of years respondents have spent in their institutions, as well as to the number of years of experience they had in academia.

Therefore, Table 6.6 below presents the difference in scoring patterns amongst expatriate academics' age groups and intention to leave their institutions.

**TABLE 6.6 DIFFERENCE IN AGE GROUPS AND EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS' INTENTION TO LEAVE THEIR INSTITUTIONS (N=125)**

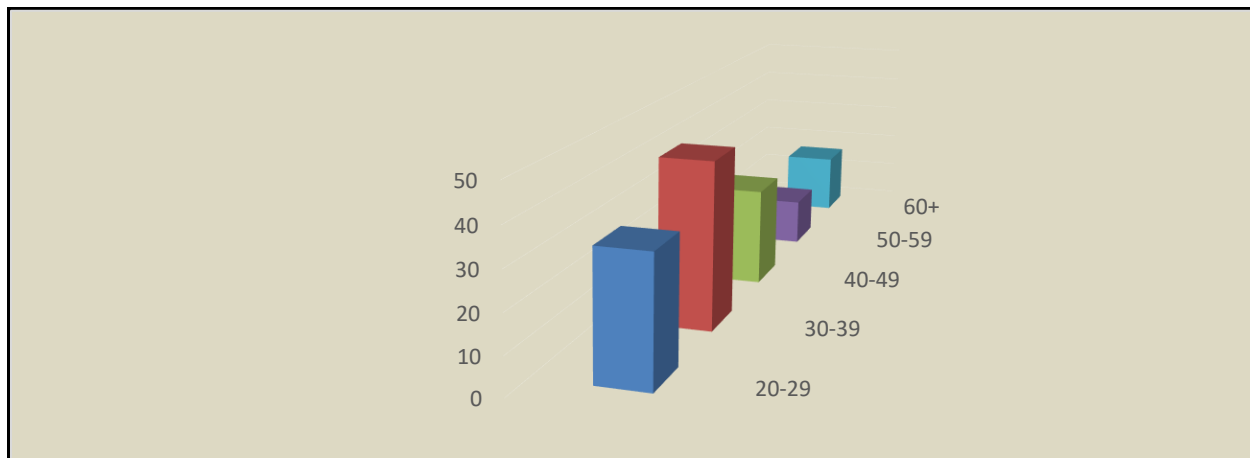
			B.12.1					Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Age	20-29	Count	0	1	3	2	0	6
		% within Age	0.0%	16.7%	50.0%	33.3%	0.0%	100.0%
	30-39	Count	4	5	15	12	7	43
		% within Age	9.3%	11.6%	34.9%	27.9%	16.3%	100.0%
	40-49	Count	5	14	15	5	7	46
		% within Age	10.9%	30.4%	32.6%	10.9%	15.2%	100.0%
	50-59	Count	8	6	7	2	1	24
		% within Age	33.3%	25.0%	29.2%	8.3%	4.2%	100.0%
60+	Count	2	3	0	1	0	6	
	% within Age	33.3%	50.0%	0.0%	16.7%	0.0%	100.0%	
Total		Count	19	29	40	22	15	125
		% of Total	15.2%	23.2%	32.0%	17.6%	12.0%	100.0%

With regard to expatriate academics' intention to leave their present institutions, the Chi-square Test (Table 6.5) revealed a significant relationship at  $p < 0.05$  ( $\chi^2 = 0.045$  df=16) in the scoring patterns amongst age groups. As depicted in Table 6.6 above, amongst the

five age groups, the expatriate academics within the age group 30-39 years (44.2%) were more likely to leave their present institutions, followed by the age group 20-29 years (33%), then the age group 40-49 years (26.1%); the age group of 50-59 years (12.5%); and 60 years and above (16.7%). The results concur with various theoretical models that hypothesized on the influence of age on the intention to leave (Mobley *et al.*, 1979; Jackofsky, 1984; Smart, 1990; Rosser and Townsend, 2006). Moreover, many empirical studies revealed a negative relationship between age and employees' turnover intentions. Scholars found that as employees grew older, the less they intended to leave (Dhanapal *et al.*, 2013:69; Park, 2015:69). However, other studies found no influence of age on turnover intentions (Awong *et al.*, 2015; Regassa and John, 2016:89).

Further to the analyses presented in Table 6.6, the clustered columns shown in Figure 6.11 below portray that expatriate academics between 30-39 years intended to leave their institutions, while those with 50 years and above were less likely to leave their institutions.

**FIGURE 6.11 INTENTION TO LEAVE THE INSTITUTION AMONGST AGE GROUPS (N=125)**



Similarly, regarding the number of years of experience in academia and expatriate academics' intention to leave their institutions, the Chi-square Test (Table 6.5) with a value of  $\chi^2=0.044$  and a degree of freedom  $df=16$  revealed a significant difference in the scoring patterns at  $p<0.05$ . Thus, as shown in Table 6.7 below, expatriate academics within 3-4 years (50%) in academia had more intention to leave their present institutions, followed by those with 7-8 years (41%), then 5-6 years (29%) and 9 years and above (25.7%).

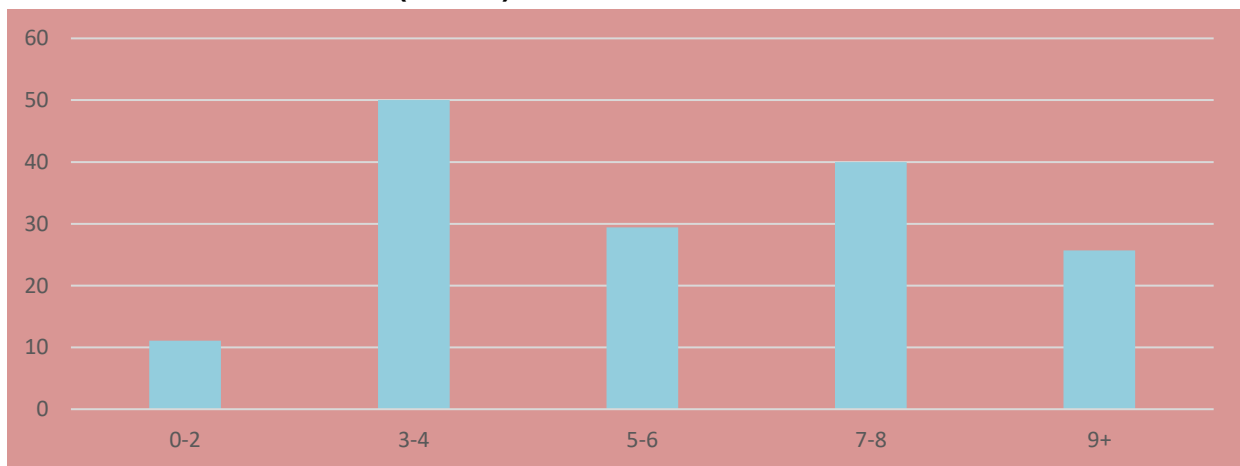
However, the analyses also revealed that expatriate academics with 2 years or less experience in academia had less intention to leave their present institutions.

**TABLE 6.7 YEARS IN ACADEMIA AND EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS' INTENTION TO LEAVE THEIR INSTITUTIONS (N=125)**

			B.12.1					Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
NbYrsInAcad	0-2	Count	2	0	6	1	0	9
		% within NbYrsInAcad	22.2%	0.0%	66.7%	11.1%	0.0%	100.0%
	3-4	Count	0	5	2	5	2	14
		% within NbYrsInAcad	0.0%	35.7%	14.3%	35.7%	14.3%	100.0%
	5-6	Count	0	4	8	4	1	17
		% within NbYrsInAcad	0.0%	23.5%	47.1%	23.5%	5.9%	100.0%
	7-8	Count	1	2	6	4	2	15
		% within NbYrsInAcad	6.7%	13.3%	40.0%	26.7%	13.3%	100.0%
	9+	Count	16	18	18	8	10	70
		% within NbYrsInAcad	22.9%	25.7%	25.7%	11.4%	14.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	19	29	40	22	15	125
		% of Total	15.2%	23.2%	32.0%	17.6%	12.0%	100.0%

In addition to the analyses in Table 6.7, the histogram depicted in Figure 6.12 below portrays the differences in the scoring patterns.

**FIGURE 6.12 TURNOVER INTENTION AND YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN ACADEMIA (N=125)**



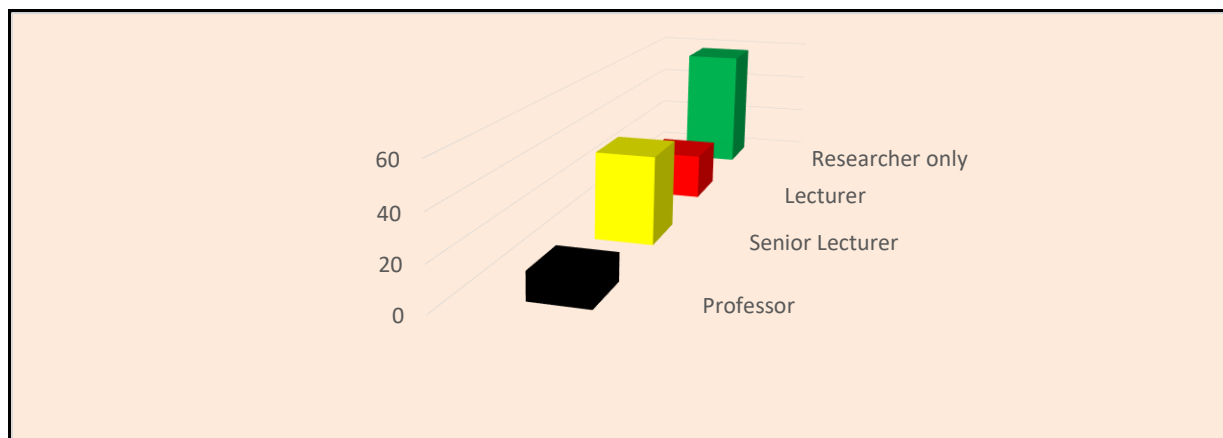
Furthermore, the Chi-square analyses ( $\chi^2=0.002$ ;  $df=12$ ) presented in Table 6.5 revealed a significant difference at  $p<0.05$  in the scoring patterns of expatriate academics with different academic ranks and intention to leave their institutions.

**TABLE 6.8 ACADEMIC RANK AND TURNOVER INTENTION (N=125)**

			B.12.1					Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Acad Rank	Professor	Count	8	8	5	2	1	24
		% within AcadRank	33.3%	33.3%	20.8%	8.3%	4.2%	100.0%
	Senior Lecturer	Count	4	3	5	4	4	20
		% within AcadRank	20.0%	15.0%	25.0%	20.0%	20.0%	100.0%
	Lecturer	Count	5	17	23	6	6	57
		% within AcadRank	8.8%	29.8%	40.4%	10.5%	10.5%	100.0%
	Researcher Only	Count	2	1	7	10	4	24
		% within AcadRank	8.3%	4.2%	29.2%	41.7%	16.7%	100.0%
Total		Count	19	29	40	22	15	125
		% of Total	15.2%	23.2%	32.0%	17.6%	12.0%	100.0%

Thus, as depicted in Table 6.8 above and portrayed in Figure 6.13 below, it emerged that expatriate academics who were researchers (68.4%) were more likely to leave their present institutions, followed by those who were senior lecturers (40%), then lecturers (21%). However, the analyses showed that professors (12.5%) had less intention to leave their present institutions.

**FIGURE 6.13 INTENTION TO LEAVE THE INSTITUTION FOR DIFFERENT ACADEMIC RANKS (N=125)**





The findings of the analyses presented in Table 6.8 and Figure 6.13 above concur with many scholars who found that academics with high rank such as senior lecturer and professor showed less intention to leave their institutions (Xu, 2008:617; Awang *et al.*, 2015:30). Likewise, empirical studies conducted on expatriate academics revealed that senior expatriate academics (i.e. associate professors and professors) were more inclined to leave than junior expatriate academics (Lawrence *et al.*, 2014:518; Awang *et al.*, 2016:151).

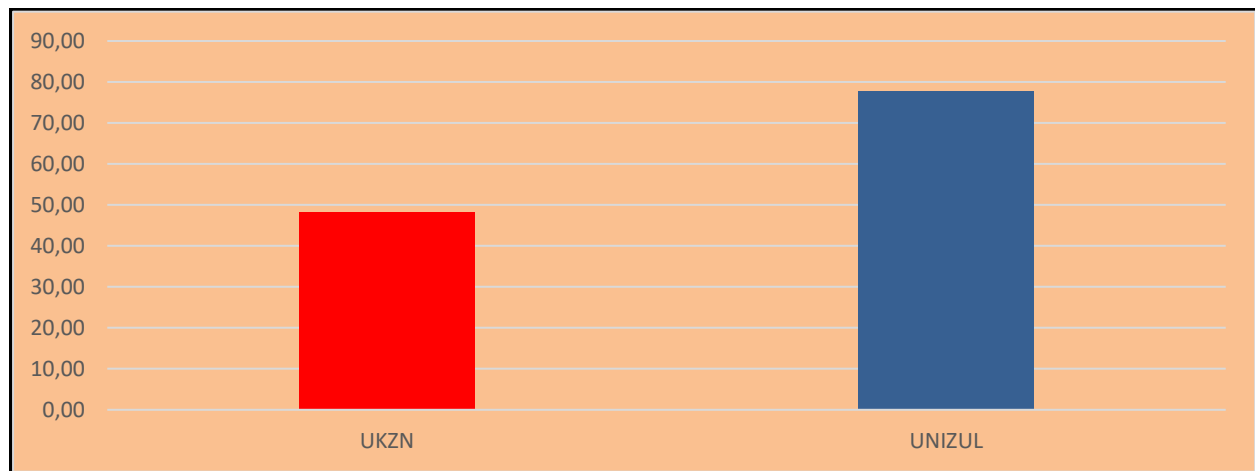
Given the previous results, it was interesting to investigate expatriate academics' desire to work in their institutions. Thus, with reference to the statement "I have a strong personal desire to continue working for my current Institution", the Chi-square Test shown in Table 6.5 was significant at  $p < 0.05$  with a Chi-square value of  $\chi^2 = 0.048$  and a degree of freedom of  $df = 4$ . Therefore, as illustrated in Table 6.9 below, expatriate academics from the University of KwaZulu-Natal had a stronger personal desire to continue working for their current institutions when compared to the expatriate academics employed at the University of Zululand, who were less willing to continue working in their institution.

**TABLE 6.9 EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS' DESIRE TO WORK IN THE INSTITUTION (N=125)**

			B.12.2.R					Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Institution	UKZN	Count	18	38	29	26	5	116
		% within Institution	15.5%	32.8%	25.0%	22.4%	4.3%	100.0%
	UNIZUL	Count	0	7	1	0	1	9
		% within Institution	0.0%	77.8%	11.1%	0.0%	11.1%	100.0%
Total		Count	18	45	30	26	6	125
		% of Total	14.4%	36.0%	24.0%	20.8%	4.8%	100.0%

Further to the analyses presented in Table 6.9, Figure 6.14 below portrays the difference in the scoring patterns of expatriate academics with regard to their desire to continue working in their institutions.

**FIGURE 6.14 EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS' DESIRE TO WORK IN THE INSTITUTION (N=125)**



The results presented in Table 6.9 and Figure 6.14 above show a discrepancy in the way and manner the respondents agree or disagree with the question of having a desire to continue working for their institutions. This discrepancy may be due to the large disparity in the number of respondents from both institutions, or to other issues.

With regard to the statement “I usually consult job advertisements” and age groups, the Chi-square Test showed a significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) in the scoring patterns of the respondents by age ( $\chi^2 = 0.031$ ;  $df = 16$ ). The summary of the analyses are illustrated in Table 6.10 below.

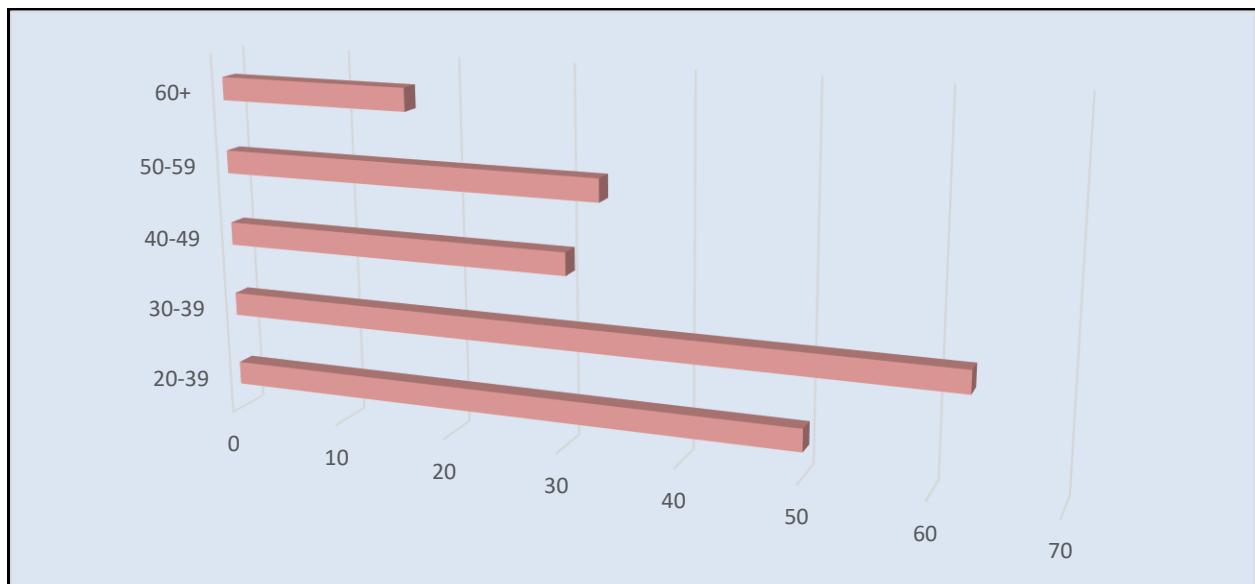
**TABLE 6.10 AGE AND CONSULTATION OF JOB ADVERTISEMENT (N=125)**

			B.12.6					Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Age	20-29	Count	0	3	0	2	1	6
		% within Age	0.0%	50.0%	0.0%	33.3%	16.7%	100.0%
	30-39	Count	1	6	9	14	13	43
		% within Age	2.3%	14.0%	20.9%	32.6%	30.2%	100.0%
	40-49	Count	3	16	13	8	6	46
		% within Age	6.5%	34.8%	28.3%	17.4%	13.0%	100.0%
	50-59	Count	6	7	3	6	2	24
		% within Age	25.0%	29.2%	12.5%	25.0%	8.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	11	34	27	31	22	125
		% of Total	8.8%	27.2%	21.6%	24.8%	17.6%	100.0%

The findings in Table 6.10 above suggest that the scoring patterns of the respondents differed with respect to the age groups. It is observed that expatriate academics within the age group of 30-39 years (62.8%) were more likely to consult job advertisements. These findings are understandable as the above-mentioned age groups fall under the category of generation Y or millennial employees. It should be noted that job-hopping is one of the characteristics of millennial employees.

Furthermore, as shown in Table 6.10 above, expatriate academics within the age group of 20-29 years (50%) were also inclined to consult job advertisements, followed by the age group of 50-59 years (33.3%) and the age group of 40-49 years (30.4%). However, the analyses revealed that few expatriate academics in the age group of 60 years and more (16.7%) consulted job advertisements. These results are understandable given that respondents above 60 years were already within their retirement years. In addition to the analyses in Table 6.10 above, the proportion of the findings are also shown in Figure 6.15 below.

**FIGURE 6.15 DIFFERENCE IN AGE GROUPS AND CONSULTATION OF JOB ADVERTISEMENTS (N=125)**



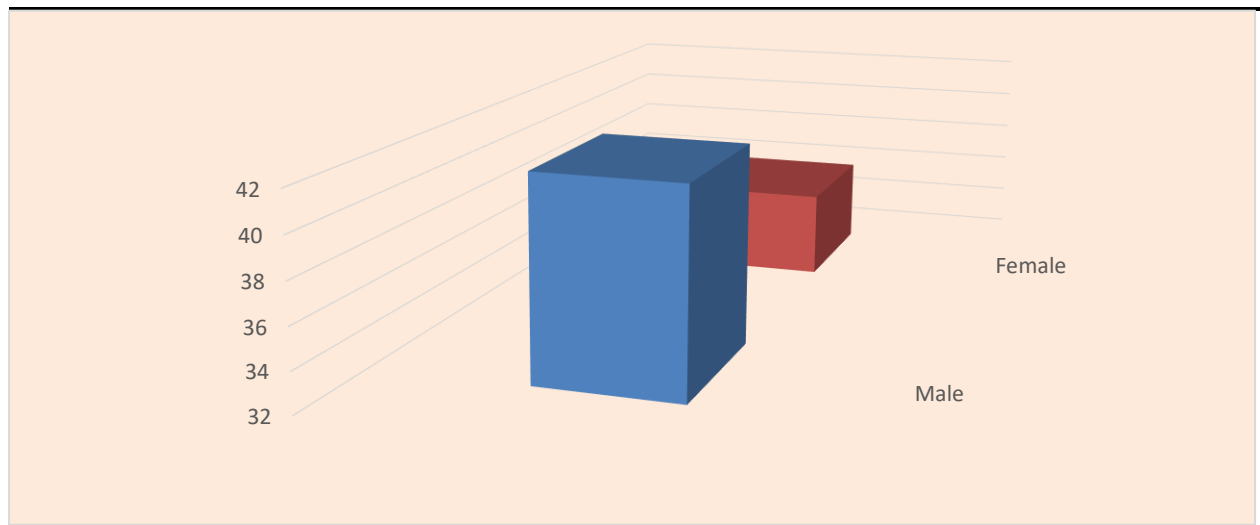
With respect to gender and consultation of job advertisements, The Chi-square Test (Table 6.5) revealed a significant difference at  $p < 0.05$  in the scoring pattern of Gender and consultation of job advertisements ( $\chi^2 = 0.014$ ;  $df = 4$ ). Table 6.11 below shows that male expatriate academics (43.6%) were more likely to consult job advertisements than their female (36.3%) counterparts.

**TABLE 6.11 GENDER AND CONSULTATION OF JOB ADVERTS (N=125)**

			B.12.6					Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Gender	Male	Count	5	28	25	26	19	103
		% within Gender	4.9%	27.2%	24.3%	25.2%	18.4%	100.0%
	Female	Count	6	6	2	5	3	22
		% within Gender	27.3%	27.3%	9.1%	22.7%	13.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	11	34	27	31	22	125
		% of Total	8.8%	27.2%	21.6%	24.8%	17.6%	100.0%

In addition to Table 6.11 above, the histogram in Figure 6.16 below shows the large difference in the scoring patterns of expatriate academics.

**FIGURE.6.16 DIFFERENCE IN GENDER AND CONSULTATION OF JOB ADVERTISEMENTS (N=125)**



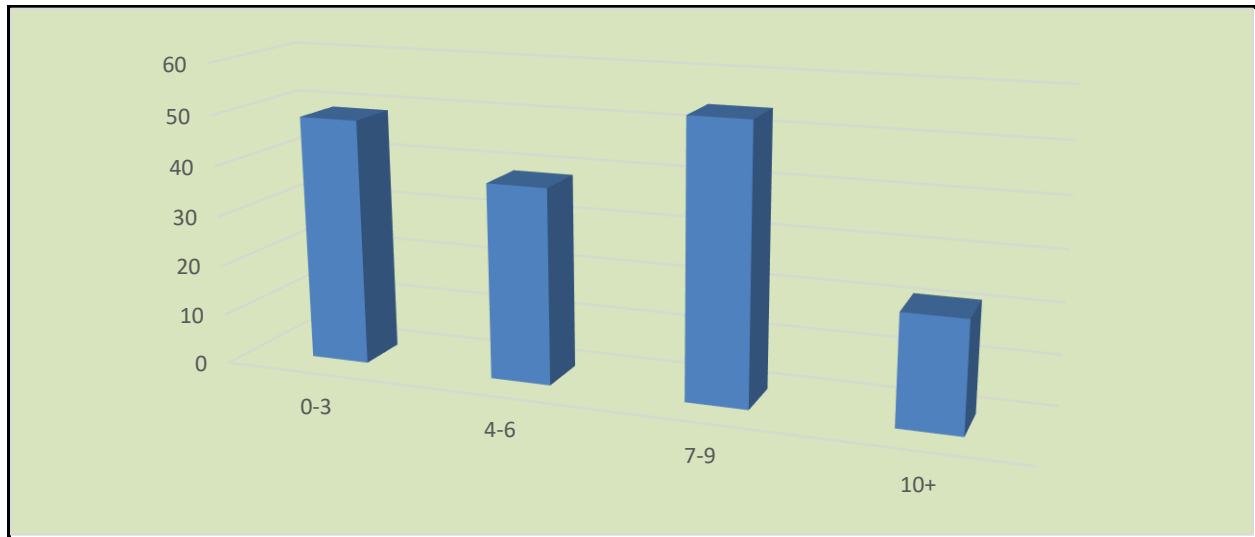
With regard to the number of years the expatriate academics had spent in the institution and the consultation of job advertisements, as depicted in Table 6.5, the Chi-square Test with the value of  $\chi^2=0.001$  and the degree of freedom (df=12) was significant at  $p<0.001$ . Table 6.12 below portrays the scoring patterns of the respondents.

**TABLE 6.12 YEARS IN INSTITUTION AND CONSULTATION OF JOB ADVERTISEMENTS (N=125)**

			B.12.6					Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
NbYrsInInst	0-3	Count	2	11	11	15	8	47
		% within NbYrsInInst	4.3%	23.4%	23.4%	31.9%	17.0%	100.0%
	4-6	Count	0	11	8	4	8	31
		% within NbYrsInInst	0.0%	35.5%	25.8%	12.9%	25.8%	100.0%
	7-9	Count	2	2	7	8	5	24
		% within NbYrsInInst	8.3%	8.3%	29.2%	33.3%	20.8%	100.0%
	10+	Count	7	10	1	4	1	23
		% within NbYrsInInst	30.4%	43.5%	4.3%	17.4%	4.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	11	34	27	31	22	125
		% within NbYrsInInst	8.8%	27.2%	21.6%	24.8%	17.6%	100.0%

Surprisingly, as shown in Table 6.12 above, expatriate academics who were employed between 7-9 years (54.1%) in the institution usually consulted job advertisements, followed by those who were employed for 0-3 years (48.9%), then those who were employed for 4-6 years (38.7%). However, and expectedly, it was noted that the expatriate academics with above 10 years (21.7%) in the institution were less likely to consult job advertisements. These findings could translate to poor job satisfaction amongst these categories of expatriate academics. Further to the analyses in Table 6.12 above, the histogram in Figure 6.17 below displays the differences in the scoring patterns.

**FIGURE 6.17 CONSULTATION OF JOB ADVERTISEMENTS AND DIFFERENT YEARS IN THE INSTITUTION (N=125)**



Concerning the tenure status of expatriate academics and the consultation of job advertisements, the Chi-square Test (Table 6.5) with the value of  $\chi^2=0.015$  and  $df=8$  revealed a significant difference at  $p<0.05$  in the scoring patterns of expatriate academics. The scoring patterns of expatriate academics are presented in Table 6.13 below, followed by the analysis of the findings.

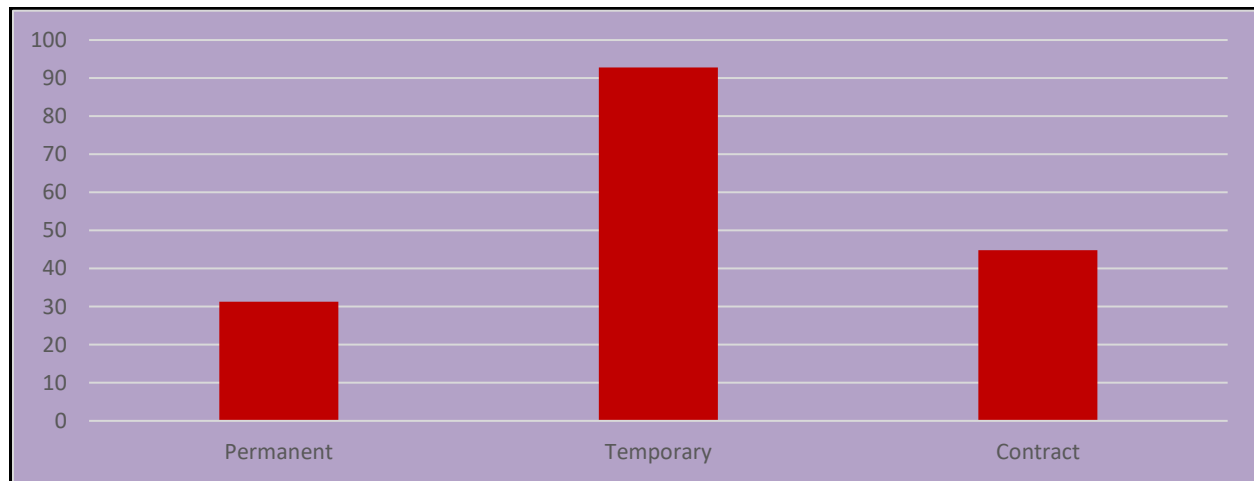
**TABLE 6.13 TENURE STATUS AND CONSULTATION OF JOB ADVERTISEMENTS (N=125)**

			B.12.6					Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Tenure Status	Permanent	Count	8	24	18	14	9	73
		% within TenureStatus	11.0%	32.9%	24.%	19.%	12.3%	100.0%
	Temporary	Count	0	1	0	8	5	14
		% within TenureStatus	0.0%	7.1%	0.0%	57.1%	35.7%	100.0%
	Contract	Count	3	9	9	9	8	38
		% within TenureStatus	7.9%	23.7%	23.7%	23.7%	21.1%	100.0%
Total		Count	11	34	27	31	22	125
		% within TenureStatus	8.8%	27.2%	21.6%	24.8%	17.6%	100.0%

The analyses illustrated in Table 6.13 above revealed that expatriate academics who were temporary (92.8%) and, to a certain extent, those who were on contract (44.8%) consulted job advertisements. However, expatriate academics who were permanent (21.3%) were

less likely to consult job advertisements. In addition to the analyses in Table 6.13, Figure 6.18 below portrays the differences in the scoring patterns.

**FIGURE 6.18 CONSULTATION OF JOB ADVERTISEMENTS AND TENURE STATUS (N=125)**



With regard to the statement “I always subscribe to recruitment networks” and age groups of the respondents, the Chi-square Test (Table 6.5) showed significant differences at  $p < 0.05$  in the scoring patterns of respondents in respect of age ( $\chi^2 = 0.001$  and degree of freedom  $df = 16$ ). Table 6.14 below presents the scoring patterns of the respondents.

**TABLE 6.14 AGE AND SUBSCRIPTION TO RECRUITMENT NETWORKS (N=125)**

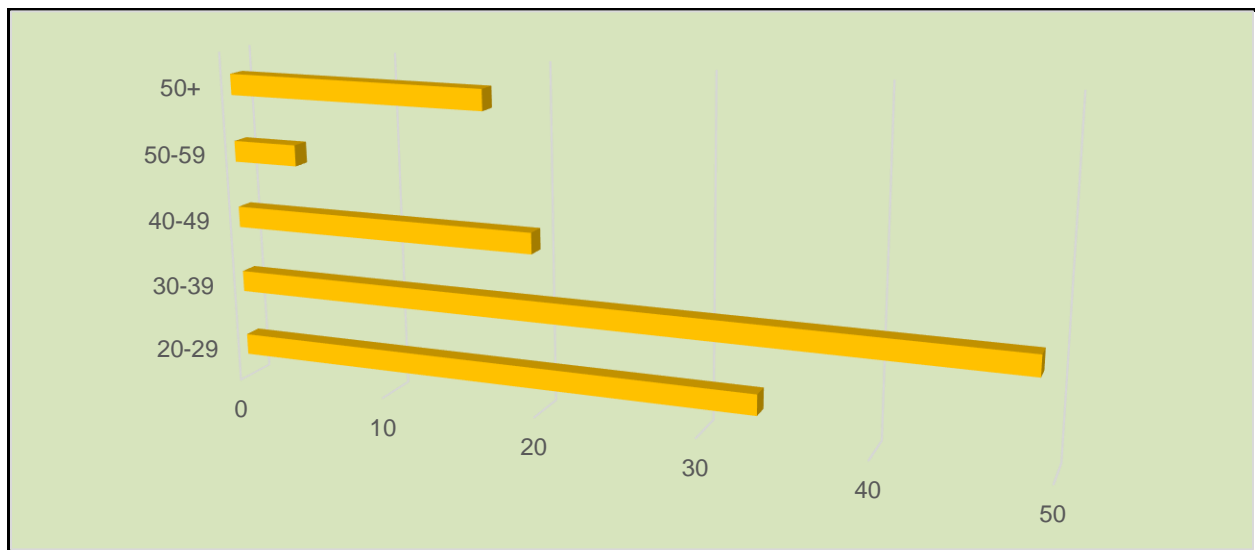
			B.12.7					Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Age	20-29	Count	1	0	3	2	0	6
		% within Age	16.7%	0.0%	50.0%	33.3%	0.0%	100.0%
	30-39	Count	6	8	8	10	11	43
		% within Age	14.0%	18.6%	18.6%	23.3%	25.6%	100.0%
	40-49	Count	5	21	11	5	4	46
		% within Age	10.9%	45.7%	23.9%	10.9%	8.7%	100.0%
	50-59	Count	11	9	3	1	0	24
		% within Age	45.8%	37.5%	12.5%	4.2%	0.0%	100.0%
60+	Count	2	3	0	1	0	6	
	% within Age	33.3%	50.0%	0.0%	16.7%	0.0%	100.0%	
Total		Count	25	41	25	19	15	125
		% of Total	20.0%	32.8%	20.0%	15.2%	12.0%	100.0%

As shown in Table 6.14 above, most respondents within the age group of 30-39 years (48.9%) were likely to subscribe to recruitment networks. These findings were not surprising as the previous analyses revealed that the age group 30-39 years were more

likely to leave their institutions. Furthermore, it can be observed that 33.3% of expatriate academics within the age group of 20-29 years agreed to subscribe to recruitment networks, followed by those within the age group of 40-49 years (19.6%). However, as noted in Table 6.14 above, expatriate academics above the age category of 50 disagreed to always subscribing to recruitment networks.

Further to Table 6.14, Figure 6.19 below displays the differences in the subscription to recruitment networks for different age groups.

**FIGURE 6.19 SUBSCRIPTION TO RECRUITMENT NETWORKS PER AGE GROUP (N=125)**



Equally important with respect to expatriate academics' marital status and the subscription in recruitment networks, the Chi-square Test (Table 6.5) with the value of  $\chi^2=0.024$  and the degree of freedom  $df=12$  revealed a significant difference at  $p<0.05$  amongst single (41.4%), married (24.4%), divorced (0%) and widowed expatriate academics (0%). As highlighted in Table 6.15 below, expatriate academics who were single were most likely to subscribe to recruitment networks as compared to those that were married, divorced or widowed.

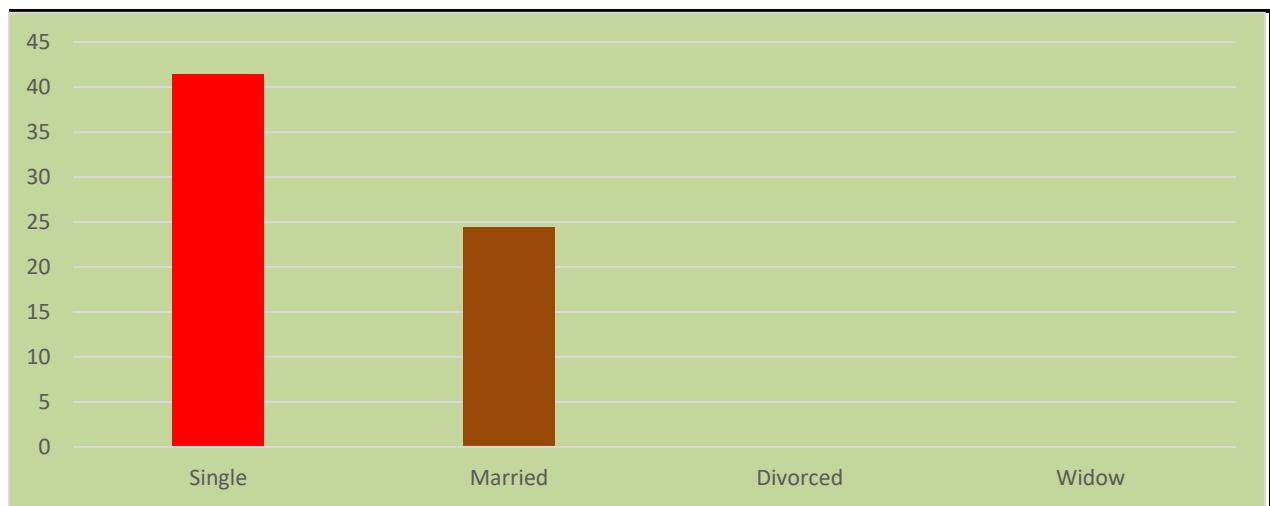


**TABLE 6.15 MARITAL STATUS AND SUBSCRIPTION TO RECRUITMENT NETWORKS (N=125)**

			B.12.7					Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Marital Status	Single	Count	4	3	10	8	4	29
		% within MaritalStatus	13.8%	10.3%	34.5%	27.6%	13.8%	100.0%
	Married	Count	18	36	14	11	11	90
		% within MaritalStatus	20.0%	40.0%	15.6%	12.2%	12.2%	100.0%
	Divorced	Count	1	2	1	0	0	4
		% within MaritalStatus	25.0%	50.0%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Widow	Count	2	0	0	0	0	2
		% within MaritalStatus	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	25	41	25	19	15	125
		% of Total	20.0%	32.8%	20.0%	15.2%	12.0%	100.0%

The findings in Table 6.15 above are further illustrated in Figure 6.20 below. These results are not surprising since it can be argued that single expatriate academics are perceived as not having a family to consider when deciding to leave their jobs.

**FIGURE 6.20 SUBSCRIPTION TO RECRUITMENT NETWORKS FOR DIFFERENT MARITAL STATUSES (N=125)**



Furthermore, with regard to expatriate academics' tenure status and subscription to recruitment networks, the Chi-square Test (Table 6.5) of the value of  $\chi^2 = 0.001$  and the degree of freedom  $df = 8$  showed a significant relationship at  $p < 0.001$ . Thus, the findings of the analyses are illustrated in Table 6.16 below.

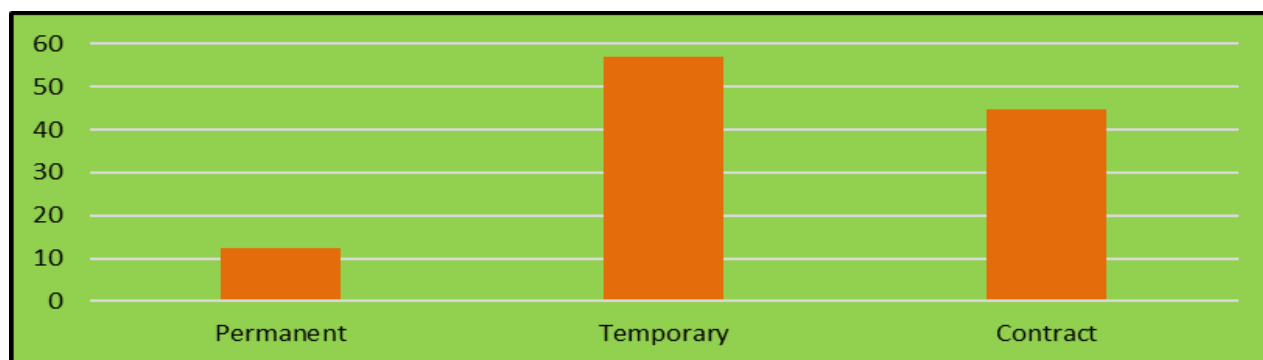
**TABLE 6.16 TENURE STATUS AND SUBSCRIPTION TO RECRUITMENT NETWORKS (N=125)**

			B.12.7					Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
TenureStatus	Permanent	Count	19	30	15	5	4	73
		% within TenureStatus	26.00%	41.10%	20.50%	6.80%	5.50%	100.00%
	Temporary	Count	0	3	3	3	5	14
		% within TenureStatus	0.00%	21.40%	21.40%	21.40%	35.70%	100.00%
	Contract	Count	6	8	7	11	6	38
		% within TenureStatus	15.80%	21.10%	18.40%	28.90%	15.80%	100.00%
Total		Count	25	41	25	19	15	125
		% of Total	20.00%	32.80%	20.00%	15.20%	12.00%	100.00%

Moreover, as observed in Table 6.16 above, most temporary expatriate academics (57.1%) always subscribed to recruitment networks as compared to those that were employed either on contract (44.7%) or on a permanent basis (12.3%). These findings were not surprising as being employed on a temporary basis does not guarantee a permanent employment.

Further to the analyses presented in Table 6.16 above, the histogram in Figure 6.21 displays the differences in the respondents' scoring patterns.

**FIGURE 6.21 SUBSCRIPTION TO RECRUITMENT NETWORKS FOR DIFFERENT TENURE STATUSES (N=125)**

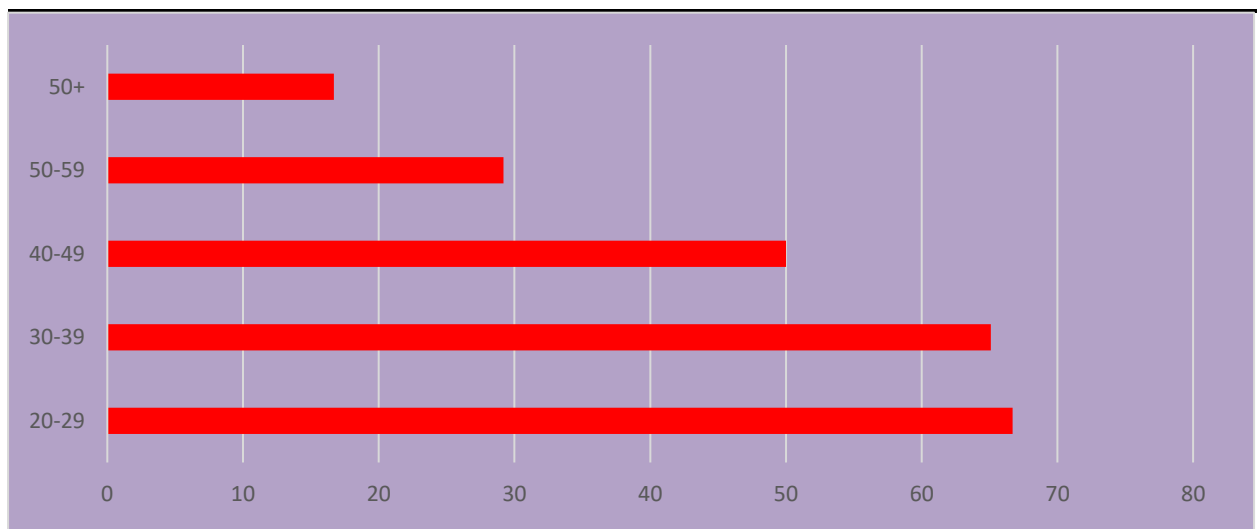


In terms of the statement “I always update my CV in anticipation of a new job”, a Chi-square Test (Table 6.5) showed a statistically significant difference at  $p < 0.05$  in the scoring patterns of the respondents in respect to their age ( $\chi^2 = 0.014$ ) and the degree of freedom  $df = 16$ . Table 6.17 below shows the differences in the scoring patterns of the respondents.

**TABLE 6.17 AGE AND UPDATING OF CV FOR A NEW JOB (N=125)**

			B.12.8					Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Age	20-29	Count	1	0	1	4	0	6
		% within Age	16.7%	0.0%	16.7%	66.7%	0.0%	100.0%
	30-39	Count	5	4	6	11	17	43
		% within Age	11.6%	9.3%	14.0%	25.6%	39.5%	100.0%
	40-49	Count	1	13	9	12	11	46
		% within Age	2.2%	28.3%	19.6%	26.1%	23.9%	100.0%
	50-59	Count	7	4	6	3	4	24
		% within Age	29.2%	16.7%	25.0%	12.5%	16.7%	100.0%
60+	Count	1	2	2	1	0	6	
	% within Age	16.7%	33.3%	33.3%	16.7%	0.0%	100.0%	
Total		Count	15	23	24	31	32	125
		% of Total	12.0%	18.4%	19.2%	24.8%	25.6%	100.0%

Table 6.17 above shows that expatriate academics within the age group of 20-29 years (66.7%), as well as those within the age group of 30-39 years (65.1%) claimed to always update their CVs in anticipation of a new job. In contrast, and expectedly, expatriate academics of 50 years of age and above were less likely to update their CVs for a new job. Figure 6.22 below presents the disparity that were found in updating CVs in anticipation of new job opportunities amongst the age groups.

**FIGURE 6.22 UPDATING OF CV AMONGST DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS (N=125)**

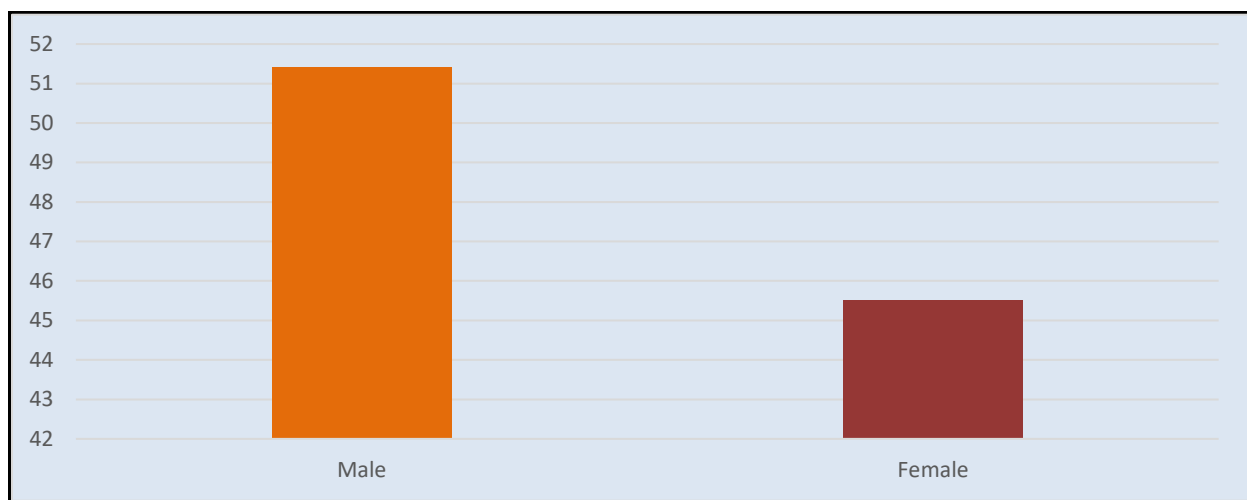
Likewise, with reference to the gender and the adapting of CVs, the Chi-square Test (Table 6.5) with the value of  $\chi^2=0.037$  and the degree of freedom  $df=4$ , was significant at  $p<0.05$ . The scoring patterns of expatriate academics are depicted in Table 6.18 below.

**TABLE 6.18 GENDER AND UPDATING OF CV FOR A NEW JOB (N=125)**

			B.12.8					Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Gender	Male	Count	9	20	21	23	30	103
		% within Gender	8.7%	19.4%	20.4%	22.3%	29.1%	100.0%
	Female	Count	6	3	3	8	2	22
		% within Gender	27.3%	13.6%	13.6%	36.4%	9.1%	100.0%
		% within B.12.8	40.0%	13.0%	12.5%	25.8%	6.3%	17.6%
		% of Total	4.8%	2.4%	2.4%	6.4%	1.6%	17.6%
Total		Count	15	23	24	31	32	125
		% of Total	12.0%	18.4%	19.2%	24.8%	25.6%	100.0%

As shown in Table 6.18 above, more female expatriate academics (45.5%) were less likely to update their CVs in anticipation for a job as compared to male expatriate academics (51.4%). Further to the analyses in Table 6.18, the histogram presented in Figure 6.23 below clearly shows the difference in the scoring patterns of expatriate academics with regard to the updating of CVs in anticipation of a new job opportunity.

**FIGURE 6.23 UPDATING OF CV AMONGST GENDER CATEGORIES (N=125)**



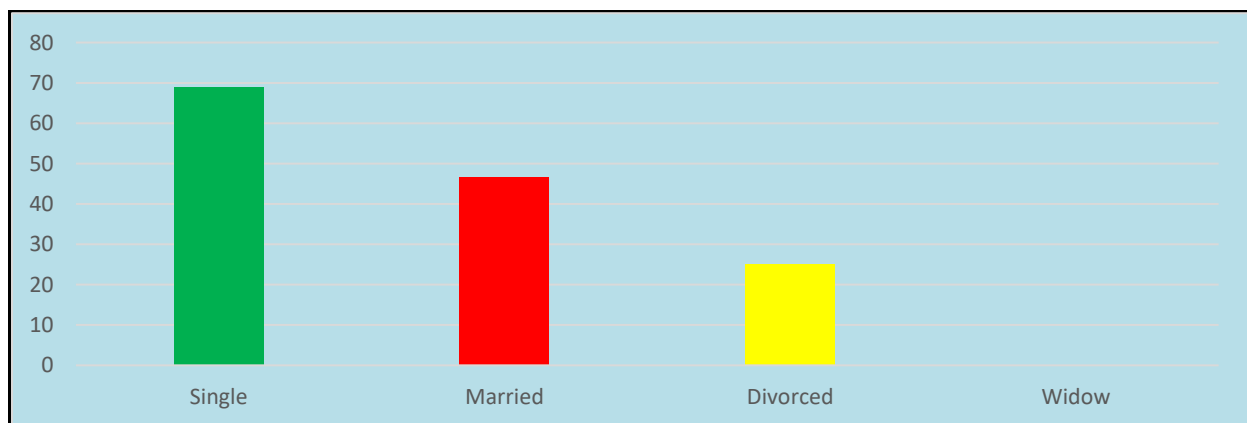
Similarly, with respect to expatriate academics' marital status and the updating of CVs for a new job, the Chi-square Test (Table 6.5) showed a significant difference in the scoring patterns at  $p < 0.05$ , with  $\chi^2 = 0.049$  and  $df = 12$ . The summary of the results is shown in Table 6.19 below.

**TABLE 6.19 MARITAL STATUS AND UPDATING CV FOR A NEW JOB (N=125)**

			B.12.8					Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
MaritalStatus	Single	Count	0	1	8	10	10	29
		% within MaritalStatus	0.0%	3.4%	27.6%	34.5%	34.5%	100.0%
	Married	Count	13	20	15	20	22	90
		% within MaritalStatus	14.4%	22.2%	16.7%	22.2%	24.4%	100.0%
	Divorced	Count	1	2	0	1	0	4
		% within MaritalStatus	25.0%	50.0%	0.0%	25.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Widow	Count	1	0	1	0	0	2
		% within MaritalStatus	50.0%	0.0%	50.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	15	23	24	31	32	125
		% of Total	12.0%	18.4%	19.2%	24.8%	25.6%	100.0%

Thus, as highlighted in Table 6.19 above, most single expatriate academics (69%) reported that they always updated their CVs in anticipation of a new job as compared to those who were married (46.6%) or divorced (25%). Interestingly, none of the widowed expatriate academics (0%) agreed to updating their CVs in anticipation of a new job. These findings are further displayed in Figure 6.24 below.

**FIGURE 6.24 UPDATING OF CV AMONGST DIFFERENT MARITAL STATUSES (N=125)**



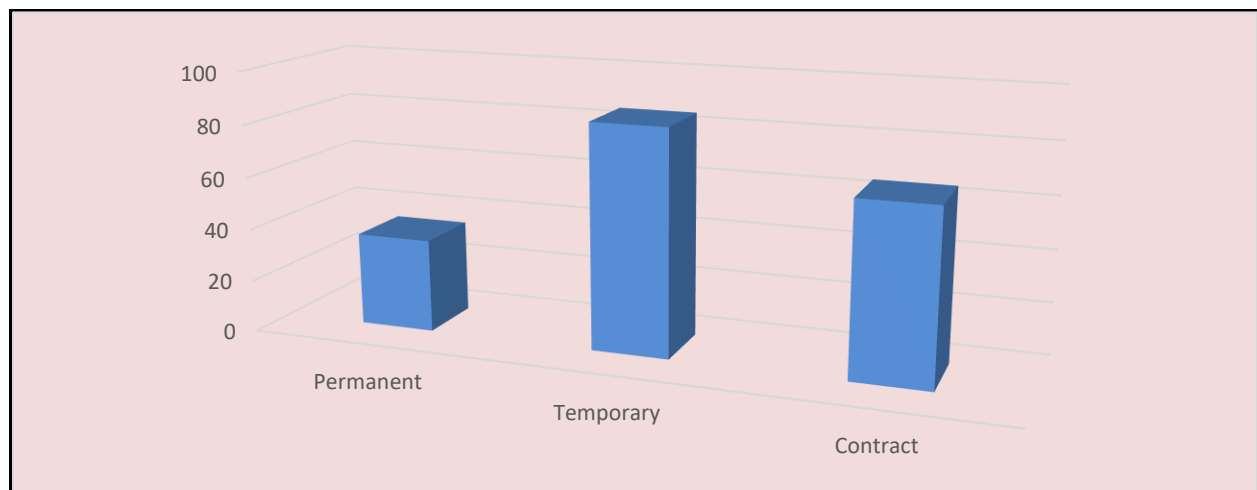
Similarly, with regard to expatriate academics' tenure statuses and the updating of CVs for a new job, the Chi-square test (Table 6.5) revealed a significant difference in the scoring patterns of the respondents at  $p < 0.05$  with  $\chi^2 = 0.021$  and  $df = 8$ . Thus, Table 6.20 below shows the summary of the analyses.

**TABLE 6.20 TENURE STATUS AND UPDATING OF CV FOR A NEW JOB (N=125)**

			B.12.8					Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Tenure Status	Permanent	Count	11	18	18	14	12	73
		% within TenureStatus	15.1%	24.7%	24.7%	19.2%	16.4%	100.0%
	Temporary	Count	1	0	1	5	7	14
		% within TenureStatus	7.1%	0.0%	7.1%	35.7%	50.0%	100.0%
	Contract	Count	3	5	5	12	13	38
		% within TenureStatus	7.9%	13.2%	13.2%	31.6%	34.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	15	23	24	31	32	125
		% of Total	12.0%	18.4%	19.2%	24.8%	25.6%	100.0%

The analyses in Table 6.20 above reveal that most temporary expatriate academics (85.7%) reported always updating their CVs in anticipation of a new job as compared to expatriate academics who were on contract (65.8%) and those who were permanently employed (35.6%). These findings are not surprising given that there is no job security when employed on a temporary basis. Furthermore, the difference in the scoring patterns of expatriate academics are further presented in Figure 6.25 below.

**FIGURE 6.25 UPDATING OF CV AMONGST DIFFERENT TENURE STATUSES (N=125)**



In sum, the scoring patterns amongst biographic groups of expatriate academics with regard to the different items assessing their turnover intention revealed that the age, gender, marital and tenure status of the respondents were likely to influence turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics. Equally important, it was further revealed that younger expatriate academics who were temporary staff and single were more likely to leave their present institutions for better job opportunities.

### **6.5.3 ASSESSING THE SCORING PATTERN OF EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS WITH REGARD TO THE DIFFERENT VARIABLES**

This section presents the scoring patterns of the respondents with regards to the variables of this study, namely institutional characteristics; organisational justice; organisational commitment; job satisfaction; cultural and social adjustment; perceived job opportunities and talent retention strategies. The results are first presented using summarised percentages for the variables that constitute each section. Thereafter, the results are analysed according to the importance of the statements. To determine whether the scoring patterns per statement were significantly different, the Fisher's Exact Test was run. The findings of the Fisher's Exact Test are shown in the tables below. It should be noted that the significant differences found in the scoring patterns of the respondents with reference to the above-mentioned variables are also highlighted.

### 6.5.3.1 SCORING PATTERNS ON PERCEIVED TURNOVER INTENTIONS

Table 6.21 summarises the scoring pattern of the respondents regarding the statements on turnover intentions in relation to their institutions.

**TABLE 6.21 RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR TURNOVER INTENTIONS (N=125)**

Statement	No	Likert scale					Mean	Std.	Fisher's Exact Test p-value
		SD	D	Neutra I	A	SA			
I intend to leave my present institution	125	15.2%	23.2%	32.0%	17.6%	12.0%	2.88	1.222	0.004
I have a strong personal desire to continue working for my current institution	125	14.4%	36.0%	24.0%	20.8%	4.8%	2.66	1.108	0.000
I would be reluctant to leave this institution	125	7.2%	24.0%	27.2%	28.8%	12.8%	3.16	1.146	0.000
Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave this institution before I retire	125	4.0%	14.4%	31.2%	18.4%	32.0%	3.60	1.191	0.000
If I had a choice, I would leave my current institution as soon as I can	125	12.8%	28.8%	24.8%	19.2%	14.4%	2.94	1.256	0.021
I usually consult job advertisements	125	8.8%	27.2%	21.6%	24.8%	17.6%	3.15	1.251	0.011
I always subscribe to recruitment networks	125	20.0%	32.8%	20.0%	15.2%	12.0%	2.66	1.289	0.003
I always update my CV in anticipation of a new job opportunity	125	12.0%	18.4%	19.2%	24.8%	25.6%	3.34	1.356	0.109

Thus, as depicted in Table 6.21 above, the Fisher's Exact Test with the p-value=0.004 revealed significant differences in the scoring pattern of the respondents in respect to the statement "I intend to leave my present institution" at  $p < 0.01$ . It can be observed that 38.4% of the respondents were in disagreement (strongly disagree=15.2%; disagree=23.2%) while 29.6% were in agreement (agree=17.6%; strongly agree=12.0%) with the statement "I intend to leave my present institution". Equally, the scoring pattern of the respondents regarding the statement "I have a strong personal desire to continue working for my current institution" was highly significant at  $p < 0.001$  on Fisher's Exact Test. Furthermore, Table 6.21 shows that more than half of the respondents (50.4%) were in disagreement (strongly disagree=14.4%; disagree=36.0%), while 25.6% were in agreement (agree= 20.8%; strongly agree= 4.8%) that they had "a strong personal desire to continue working for the current institution". The high number of those who were in



disagreement suggests that there was a strong turnover intention amongst the respondents to quit their current institutions.

Despite the above analyses, nearly half of the respondents (41.6%) were in agreement (agree=28.8%; strongly agree=12.8%) that they would be reluctant to leave their institutions, which revealed high significance at  $p < 0.001$  on Fisher's Exact Test. In support of this view, it emerged that half of the respondents (50.4%) were in agreement (agree=18.4%; strongly agree=32.0%) that under "no circumstances would they voluntarily leave their Institution before they retired", which was highly significant at  $p < 0.001$  on Fisher's Exact Test. Equally, the analyses showed that most respondents (41.6%) were in disagreement (strongly disagree 12.8%; disagree 28.8%) that if they had a choice, they would leave their current institutions as soon as they could. This revealed to be statistically significant at  $p < 0.05$  on Fisher's Exact Test. Regardless of this, 33.6% of the respondents indicated (agree=19.2%; strongly agree= 14.4%) that they would be willing to leave their current institutions if they had a choice.

Furthermore, when the respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement and or disagreement to the statement "I usually consult job advertisements" as portrayed in Table 6.21 above, a significant difference in their scoring pattern was noted at  $p < 0.05$  on Fisher's Exact Test. Thus, it emerged that 36% of the respondents were in disagreement (strongly disagree=8.8%; disagree=27.2%); 42.4% were in agreement (agree=24.8%; strongly agree=17.6%), while a marginal number (21.6%) were unsure if they usually consulted job advertisements.

In terms of the statement "I always subscribe to recruitment networks", significant differences at  $p < 0.01$  were observed in Fisher's Exact Test in the scoring pattern of the respondents. It emerged that most respondents (52.8%) were in disagreement, while only 27.2% were in agreement (agree=15.2%; strongly agree=12.0%) that they always subscribed to recruitment networks.

Understandably, the scoring pattern of the respondents regarding the statement "I always update my CV in anticipation of a new job opportunity" failed to show any statistical significance at  $p > 0.05$  on Fisher's Exact Test. As portrayed in Table 6.21 above, half of the respondents (50.4%) were in agreement (agree=24.8%; strongly agree=25.6), while 30.4% were in disagreement (strongly disagree=12.0%; disagree=18.4%).

### 6.5.3.2 SCORING PATTERNS ON INSTITUTION'S CHARACTERISTICS

As indicated by the level of significance, the Fisher's Exact Test highlighted in Table 6.22 below revealed that all the statements that constituted the institutions' characteristics were high statistically highly significant ( $p < 0.001$ ).

**TABLE. 6.22 RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR INSTITUTIONS' CHARACTERISTICS (N=125)**

Statement	No	Likert scale					Mean	Std.	Fisher's Exact Test p-value
		SD	D	Neutral	A	SA			
My Institution is quite big	125	0.8%	2.4%	1.6%	32.8%	62.4%	4.54	0.725	0.000
My Institution has a very good reputation	125	3.2%	7.2%	13.6%	37.6%	38.4%	4.01	1.051	0.000
My Institution is quite diverse	125	3.2%	1.6%	8.0%	40.0%	47.2%	4.26	0.917	0.000
My Institution is very unionized	125	4.0%	7.2%	36.0%	36.0%	16.8%	3.54	0.988	0.000
My Institution is highly decentralized	125	8.8%	14.4%	29.6%	32.0%	15.2%	3.30	1.159	0.000
My Institution offers many subsidies and benefits to its staff including expatriate academics	125	18.4%	15.2%	36.8%	23.2%	6.4%	2.84	1.167	0.000
My Institution has a friendly internal environment	125	9.6%	12.8%	33.6%	33.6%	10.4%	3.22	1.106	0.000

As depicted in Table 6.22 above, the Fisher's Exact Test was highly significant at  $p < 0.001$ . It revealed that the majority of the respondents (95.6%) were in agreement (agree=32.8%; strongly agree=62.8%) with respect to the statement "My Institution is quite big". Similarly, most respondents (76%) were in agreement (agree=37.6%; strongly agree=38.4%) that their institutions had very good reputations.

In terms of the statement "My institution is quite diverse", the Fisher's Exact Test was highly significant at  $p < 0.000$  as the majority of the respondents (87.2%) were in agreement (agree=40.0%; strongly agree=47.2%) that their institutions were quite diverse. Importantly, it was observed that more than half of the respondents (52.8%) were in agreement (agree=36.0%; strongly agree=16.8%) that their institutions were very unionized, while 36.0% were unsure (neutral), which revealed to be highly significant at  $p < 0.000$  on Fisher's Exact Test. Notwithstanding this, it emerged that nearly half of the respondents (47.2%) were in agreement (agree=32%; strongly agree=15.2%) that their

institutions were highly decentralized, which was also highly significant at  $p < 0.001$  on Fisher's Exact Test.

As shown in Table 6.22 above, the statement "My institution offers many subsidies and benefits to its staff including expatriate academics" showed a high significant scoring pattern at  $p < 0.001$  on Fisher's Exact Test. However, it emerged that most respondents (36.8%) were neutral towards the statement. Thus, suggesting that they were unsure if their institutions offered many subsidies and benefits to staff, particularly expatriate academics. Despite this, the Fisher's Exact Test was highly significant at  $p < 0.001$  as most respondents (44%) were in agreement (agree=33.6%; strongly agree 10.4%) that their institutions had a friendly internal environment.

Overall, and from the above section, it suffices to deduce from the survey that the institutions under study were quite big and they had a very good reputation, with diverse academic profiles. Moreover, the institutions were reported to be highly unionized. However, and given the high number of respondents that remained neutral on their institutions offering many subsidies and benefits to their staff, it remains inconclusive if the institutions offered any subsidies and benefits to expatriate academics.

### 6.5.3.3 SCORING PATTERNS ON CULTURAL AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

This section aimed to analyse the level of agreement and/or disagreement to the statements that address how well the respondents and their families have adjusted in the host country with regard to the following statements, namely living conditions; healthcare facilities; local food; spousal job opportunities, children's education; interaction with host country nationals; and the cost of living.

**TABLE 6.23 RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS ON THEIR CULTURAL AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT (N=125)**

Statement	No	Likert scale					Mean	Std.	Fisher's Exact Test p-value
		SD	D	Neutral	A	SA			
I am well adjusted to the living conditions of the host country	125	1.6%	4.0%	12.8%	46.4%	35.2%	4.10	0.884	0.000
The healthcare facilities in the host country are accessible	125	2.4%	5.6%	8.0%	52.8%	31.2%	4.05	0.915	0.000
I enjoy local food as it tastes the same as my home food	125	10.4%	17.6%	20.8%	35.2%	16.0%	3.29	1.230	0.000
The cost of living in the host country is cheaper than at home	125	26.4%	24.8%	15.2%	15.2%	18.4%	2.74	1.464	0.135
I interact well with country nationals as they are friendly to interact with	125	6.4%	10.4%	20.0%	45.6%	17.6%	3.58	1.094	0.000
My spouse/partner has adjusted to the local food	125	4.8%	10.4%	47.2%	28.8%	8.8%	3.26	0.935	0.000
My spouse/partner is satisfied with the healthcare	125	4.8%	43.2%	36.8%	14.4%	0.8%	3.64	0.846	0.000
My spouse/partner interacts well with host nationals	125	2.4%	7.2%	48.0%	28.0%	14.4%	3.45	0.911	0.000
My children enjoy their new school	125	0.8%	4.0%	56.0%	24.0%	15.2%	3.49	0.829	0.000
My children have made a lot of friends in their new school	125	0.8%	3.2%	60.0%	22.4%	13.6%	3.45	0.798	0.000
Overall, my family and I are well adjusted to the host country	125	0.8%	7.2%	30.4%	44.8%	16.8%	3.70	0.863	0.000

As highlighted in Table 6.23 and excluding the statement "The cost of living in the host country is cheaper than at home", all other statements that measured the cultural and social adjustment of respondents to their host country were statistically significant on Fisher's Exact Test ( $p < 0.001$ ).

In terms of the statement “I am well adjusted to the living conditions of the host country”, as depicted in Table 6.23, the scoring pattern of the respondents were statistically significant at  $p < 0.001$  on Fisher’s Exact Test. The majority of the respondents (81.6%) positively agreed (agree= 46.4%; strongly agree=35.2%) that they were well-adjusted to the living conditions of the host country. Equally, significant differences at  $p < 0.000$  on Fisher’s Exact Test were observed in the scoring patterns of the respondents regarding the statement “The healthcare facilities in the host country are accessible”. It was observed that most respondents (84%) were in agreement that the host country’s healthcare facilities were accessible.

Furthermore, when the respondents were asked to express their views regarding the taste of the local food in comparison with that of their native countries, the Fisher’s Exact Test revealed a statistically significant difference in their scoring patterns ( $p < 0.001$ ). Expectedly, a mixed reaction was noted amongst the respondents. For example, while 28% of them were in disagreement (strongly disagree=10.4%; disagree=17.6%) about enjoying the taste of the local food, 51.2% were in agreement (agree=35.2%; strongly agree=16%) with 20.8% others unsure that they enjoyed the local food as it tasted the same as their home food. Given the high percentage (51.2%) of responses that claimed to enjoy the taste of the local food, it was important to know if their spouse/partner had also adjusted to the local food. A statistical significance at  $p < 0.001$  on Fisher’s Exact Test was observed as it was noted that 47.2% of the respondents were not sure (neutral) whether their spouses/partners had adjusted to the local food. Regardless of this, 37.6% of the respondents (agree=28.8%; strongly agree=8.8%) affirmed that their spouses/partners had adjusted to the local food.

When the respondents were further asked to indicate their views on the cost of living in their host country, the Fisher’s Exact Test ( $p\text{-value}=0.135$ ) failed to show any significant differences in their scoring pattern at  $p > 0.05$ . As presented in Table 6.23 above, it was perceived that 51.2% of the respondents were in disagreement (strongly disagree=26.4%; disagree=24.8%); 15.2% neutral, while 33.6% were in agreement (agree=15.2%; strongly agree=18.4%) that the cost of living in the host country was cheaper than in their home countries.

Regarding the statement “I interact well with country nationals as they are friendly to interact with, the Fisher’s Exact Test indicated that the responses were statistically significant at  $p < 0.001$ . For example, most respondents (63.2%) positively agreed (agree=45.6%; strongly agree=17.6%) that they interacted well with country nationals as they were equally friendly towards interacting with them. Despite this, it appears that most respondents were unsure (48.0%) about their spouses’/partners’ social interaction with host nationals, while 42.4% were in agreement that their spouses/partners interacted well with host nationals ( $p < 0.001$ , Fisher’s Exact Test).

Moreover, as illustrated in Table 6.23, a high significance ( $p < 0.001$ ) was observed on Fisher’s Exact Test when most respondents (48%) noted that their spouse/partners were not satisfied (strongly disagree=4.8%; disagree=43.2%) with the healthcare facilities, while 36.8% were unsure ( $p < 0.001$ ). Surprisingly, only 15.2% of the respondents claimed that their spouses/partners were satisfied (agree=14.4%; strongly agree=0.8%) with the healthcare facilities.

In terms of the statement that addresses the cultural and social adjustment of the expatriate academics’ children to the host nationals, the Fisher’s Exact Test revealed statistical differences in the scoring pattern ( $p < 0.001$ ). For instance, a high percentage of the respondents were unsure (neutral) whether their children enjoyed their new schools (56.0%) and if their children had made many friends in their new schools (60.0%). The high uncertainty in the responses from expatriate academics strongly suggests the absence of quality time spent with their children.

Furthermore, a high statistical significance at  $p < 0.001$  on Fisher’s Exact Test was noted as it emerged that most (61.6%) of the respondents strongly believed (agree=44.8%; strongly agree=16.8%) that they and their families were well adjusted to the host country. This is highly important, given that failure to adjust culturally and socially in a new environment could contribute to turnover intention.

#### 6.5.3.4 SCORING PATTERNS ON PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION

Drawing from the last section, it is reasonable to infer that the respondents and their families have adjusted both culturally and socially to their host nationals. This is evident in the number of those who positively agreed with interacting well with host nationals. Given the aforesaid adjustment to life in the host country nationals, this section aimed to analyse the extent to which respondents were satisfied with the implementation of policies in their various Institutions with regard to salary, promotion, workload, autonomy, rewards and career advancement, as well as to understand whether respondents were satisfied with their jobs.

**TABLE 6.24 RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION IN THEIR INSTITUTION (N=125)**

Statement	No	Likert scale					Mean	Std.	Fisher's Exact Test p-value
		SD	D	Neutral	A	SA			
I am satisfied with my current prospects for job advancement in my Institution	125	1.6%	4.0%	12.8%	46.4%	35.2%	4.10	0.884	0.000
My Institution helps me to pursue my personal growth	125	2.4%	5.6%	8.0%	52.8%	31.2%	4.05	0.915	0.000
I have too little chance for promotion in my Institution	125	10.4%	17.6%	20.8%	35.2%	16.0%	3.29	1.230	0.008
The policies and practices in my Institution have increased my chances of job retention	125	26.4%	24.8%	15.2%	15.2%	18.4%	2.74	1.464	0.000
There is capable administration in my Institution	125	6.4%	10.4%	20.0%	45.6%	17.6%	3.58	1.094	0.000
I am satisfied with my current salary	125	4.8%	10.4%	47.2%	28.8%	8.8%	3.26	0.935	0.000
The rewards I receive in my Institution are quite fair	125	4.8%	43.2%	36.8%	14.4%	0.8%	3.64	0.846	0.000
My immediate supervisor treats staff fairly	125	2.4%	7.2%	48.0%	28.0%	14.4%	3.45	0.911	0.000
I have sufficient professional authority and autonomy at work	125	0.8%	4.0%	56.0%	24.0%	15.2%	3.49	0.829	0.000

As highlighted in Table 6.24 above, the Fisher's Exact Test revealed a strong significant difference in the scoring patterns of respondents in all the statements that addressed their job satisfaction at  $p < 0.001$ . For instance, when asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the statement "I am satisfied with my current prospects for job advancement in my institution", 32.8% of respondents were in disagreement (strongly disagree=12.0%; disagree=20.8%) and 24.8% were neutral, whilst 44.4% of respondents

were in agreement (agree=35.6%; strongly agree=8.8%) that they were satisfied with their current prospects for job advancement. The high percentages of respondents (44.4%) who noted being satisfied with the current prospects for job advancement in their various institutions could be attributed to the prospects for personal growth in the institution. This view is supported by 54.4% of the respondents who positively agreed (agree=46.4%; strongly agree=8.0%) that their institutions helped them to pursue their personal growth. This is critical, given that the prospects for personal growth in an organization increases employees' job satisfaction. Surprisingly, and despite the prospects for personal growth, 51.2% of the respondents were in agreement (agree=35.2%; strongly agree=16.0%) with the statement "I have too little chance for promotion in my institution". In light of these, it can be inferred that the prospects for personal growth in an organization does not necessarily translate into career growth.

Moreover, and giving credence to the assertion above as portrayed in Table 6.24, it emerged that more than 40% of the respondents did not believe (strongly disagree=15.2%; disagree= 24.8%) that the policies and practices in their institutions increased their chances of retention. This is understandable, given the limited chance for promotion available in the institutions. Notwithstanding this, most respondents (44%) were in agreement (agree=35.2%; strongly agree=8.8%) when asked if there was capable administration in their institutions.

With regard to the respondents' satisfaction with their current salary, expectedly, the Fisher's Exact Test was highly significant at  $p < 0.001$  as it revealed that the majority of respondents (53.6%) were in disagreement (strongly disagree 23.2%; disagree=30.4%) that they were satisfied with their current salaries. Equally, most of the respondents (40.0%) did not agree (strongly disagree=20.0%; disagree=20.0%) that the rewards they received in their institutions were quite fair. On the contrary, most respondents (72.8%) were in agreement (agree=44.8%; strongly agree=28.0%) that their immediate supervisors treated staff fairly. In addition, an equal percentage of respondents (72.8%) enjoyed sufficient professional authority and autonomy at work (agree=55.2%; strongly agree=17.6%).



### 6.5.3.5 SCORING PATTERNS ON ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

From the previous section, most respondents acknowledged the prospects of personal growth but sadly noted the limitations that existed in their organisations in terms of career promotion. Much of this was noted to revolve around the policies and practices of the institutions. Despite the perceived drawbacks, the majority of respondents strongly expressed that their organisations, particularly their supervisors, treated their staff fairly. From the foregoing, it was pertinent to know the extent to which expatriate academics were loyal to their institutions.

**TABLE 6.25 RESPONDENTS' ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT (N=125)**

Statement	No	Likert scale					Mean	Std.	Fisher's Exact Test p-value
		SD	D	Neutral	A	SA			
I am proud to tell others I am part of this Institution	125	3.2%	8.0%	14.4%	49.6%	24.8%	3.85	0.992	0.000
I am not dedicated to this Institution	125	4.0%	7.2%	12.8%	40.8%	35.2%	3.96	1.066	0.000
I speak highly of this Institution to my friends	125	3.2%	9.6%	18.4%	47.2%	21.6%	3.74	1.007	0.000
This Institution inspires the very best job performance	125	8.0%	16.0%	28.0%	35.2%	12.8%	3.29	1.127	0.000
This Institution is the best of all possible places to work	125	19.2%	21.6%	40.8%	14.4%	4.0%	2.62	1.075	0.000
This Institution's values are not the same as mine	125	8.0%	17.6%	31.2%	32.0%	11.2%	3.21	1.109	0.000
I do not care about the fate of this Institution	125	0.8%	5.6%	16.0%	31.2%	46.4%	4.17	0.948	0.000

As highlighted in Table 6.25 above, the Fisher's Exact Test revealed a strong significant difference in the scoring pattern of respondents in all the statements that addressed respondents' organisational commitment ( $p < 0.001$ ). Amongst the majority of respondents (74.4%), a positive level of agreement was observed in respect of the statement "I am proud to tell others I am part of this institution" (agree=49.6%; strongly agree 24.8%). Given the high percentage of respondents who claimed to be proud of their institutions, it was highly surprising to note that most respondents (76.0%) were not dedicated to their institutions (agree=40.8%; strongly agree=35.2%). Conversely, the Fisher' Exact Test showed a significant difference at  $p < 0.001$  as the majority of respondents (68.8%) were in agreement (agree=47.2%; strongly agree=21.6%) that they spoke highly of their institutions to their friends.

Moreover, as highlighted in Table 6.25 above, the Fisher's Exact Test revealed a significant difference at  $p < 0.001$  as more than half of the respondents agreed that their institutions inspired the very best job performance from them. Irrespective of this, 40.8% of respondents were unsure (neutral) if their institutions were the best of all possible places to work. A similar percentage (40.8%) of respondents were in disagreement (strongly disagree=19.2%=disagree=21.6%) that their institutions were the best of all places to work. Equally concerning, the Fisher's Exact Test was significant at  $p < 0.001$  as most respondents (43.2%) were in agreement (agree=32.0%; strongly agree=11.2%) that their institutions' values were not the same as their own.

Drawing from the foregoing, it is apparent that although respondents claimed to be proud of their institutions, their dedication towards the very same institution remained unsatisfactory. This is evident in the number of respondents (77.6%) who were in agreement (agree=31.2%= strongly agree=46.4%) with the statement "I do not care about the fate of the Institution". This strongly suggests a lack of organisational commitment amongst the majority of expatriate academics.

#### 6.5.3.6 SCORING PATTERNS FOR PERCEIVED JOB OPPORTUNITY

Table 6.26 below summarises the scoring patterns of the respondents regarding their perceived job opportunities in the academic space.

**TABLE 6.26 RESPONDENTS' PERCEIVED JOB OPPORTUNITY (N=125)**

Statement	No	Likert scale					Mean	Std.	Fisher's Exact Test p-value
		SD	D	Neutral	A	SA			
There are quite many good academic jobs that I could apply for	125	4.0%	9.6%	19.2%	41.6%	25.6%	3.75	1.068	0.000
Given the state of the academic job market, finding a job would be very difficult for me	125	6.4%	12.0%	21.6%	38.4%	21.6%	3.57	1.145	0.000
It would be difficult for me to find an academic job that I like as much as my job at this Institution	125	3.2%	19.2%	21.6%	38.4%	17.6%	3.48	1.090	0.000
There is at least one good academic job that I could begin immediately if I were to leave this Institution	125	7.2%	19.2%	31.2%	29.6%	12.8%	3.22	1.119	0.000

As indicated by the Fisher's Exact Test, highly significant statistical differences were noted in all the statements that addressed perceived job opportunity ( $p < 0.001$ ). Moreover, a positive level of agreement was observed amongst the majority of respondents. For instance, in response to the statement "There are quite a lot of good academic jobs that I could apply for", the Fisher's Exact Test was significant at  $p < 0.001$  as the majority of respondents (67.2%) were in agreement (agree=41.6%; strongly agree=25.6%). Similarly, in response to the statement "Given the state of the academic job market, finding a job would be very difficult for me", a positive agreement (agree=38.4%; strongly agree=21.6%) was observed in a high proportion of respondents (60.0%). Equally, there was a positive level of agreement (agree=38.4%; strongly agree=17.6%) amongst more than half of the respondents (56.0%) who reported that "it would be difficult for me to find an academic job that I like as well as my job at this Institution".

Drawing from the above, it can be deduced that finding a new academic job may become a difficult task for these respondents. Nevertheless, the Fisher's Exact Test revealed a significant difference in scoring patterns at  $p < 0.001$  as 42.4% of the respondents were upbeat that there was at least one good academic job that they could begin immediately if they were to leave their institutions. This strongly suggests that despite limited job opportunities in the academic space, the respondents were confident of securing at least one academic job elsewhere. Much of this may be attributed to the presence of scarce skills and fewer PhD holders in South Africa, making it possible to secure an academic job.

### 6.5.3.7 SCORING PATTERNS ON PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

Table 6.27 below highlights the scoring pattern of the respondents regarding their views on organisational justice in their institutions. As indicated by the Fisher's Exact Test, highly significant statistical differences were noted in all the statements that addressed organisational justice ( $p < 0.001$ ).

**TABLE 6.27 RESPONDENTS' PERCEIVED ORGANISATION JUSTICE IN THEIR INSTITUTIONS (N=125)**

Statement	No	Likert scale					Mean	Std.	Fisher's Exact Test p-value
		SD	D	Neutral	A	SA			
My Institution has formal channels in place that allow employees to express their views and opinions before decisions are made	125	9.6%	16.8%	27.2%	36.0%	10.4%	3.21	1.138	0.000
Formal procedures exist in my Institution to ensure that officials do not allow personal biases to affect their decisions	125	8.0%	17.6%	31.2%	35.2%	8.0%	3.18	1.071	0.000
There are formal means by which employees in my Institution can challenge decisions that they feel are erroneous	125	6.4%	16.0%	27.2%	44.0%	6.4%	3.28	1.021	0.000
My Institution has formal procedures to ensure that officials have accurate information on which to base their decisions	125	8.0%	5.6%	35.2%	44.8%	6.4%	3.36	1.979	0.000
My immediate supervisor treats me in a polite manner	125	2.4%	3.2%	8.8%	49.6%	36.0%	4.14	1.883	0.000
My immediate supervisor treats me with dignity	125	1.6%	4.8%	9.6%	47.2%	36.8%	4.13	1.889	0.000
My immediate supervisor treats me with respect	125	1.6%	5.6%	7.2%	49.6%	36.0%	4.13	1.889	0.000
My immediate supervisor refrains from improper remarks or comments about staff	125	4.0%	4.8%	17.6%	43.2%	30.4%	3.91	1.016	0.000

Thus, with reference to the statement "My Institution has formal channels in place that allow employees to express their views and opinions before decisions are made", the Fisher's Exact Test was significant at  $p < 0.001$ . The Fisher's Exact Test revealed that 26.4% of the respondents were in disagreement (strongly disagree=9.6%; disagree=16.8%), 27.5% were neutral, while 46.4% were in agreement (agree=36.0%; strongly agree=10.4%) that their institutions had formal channels in place that allowed

employees to express their views and opinions before decisions were made. Similarly, the Fisher's Exact Test showed a significant difference at  $p < 0.001$  as 25.6% of respondents were in disagreement (strongly disagree=8.0%; disagree=17.6%), and 17.6% were neutral, while 43.2% were in agreement (agree=35.2%; strongly agree=8.0%) that formal procedures existed in their institutions to ensure that officials did not allow personal biases to affect their decisions.

With regard to the statement "There are formal means by which employees in my institution can challenge decisions that they feel erroneous", the Fisher's Exact Test revealed a significant difference at  $p < 0.001$ . It was noted that 22.4% were in disagreement (strongly disagree=6.4%; disagree=16.0%), and 27.2% were neutral, while half of the respondents (50.4%) were in agreement (agree=44.0%; strongly agree=6.4%) that there were formal means by which employees in their institutions could challenge decisions that they felt were biased. Equally important, most respondents (51.2%) were in agreement (agree=44.8%; strongly agree=6.4%) that their institutions had formal procedures to ensure that officials had accurate information on which to base their decisions. Additionally, with regard to the relationship with their supervisors, the Fisher's Exact Test portrayed in Table 6.27 revealed that the majority of respondents (85.6%) agreed that their immediate supervisors treat them in a polite manner, with dignity (84.0%) and with respect (85.6%), respectively. Significantly, it also emerged that 73.6% of the respondents were in agreement (agree=43.2%; strongly agree=30.4%) that their immediate supervisors refrained from improper remarks or comments about staff.

### 6.5.3.8 SCORING PATTERNS ON THE ADEQUACY OF THE RETENTION STRATEGIES OF THE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Table 6.28 below presents the scoring patterns of respondents regarding the adequacy of the retention strategies of their institutions. As indicated by the Fisher's Exact Test, highly significant statistical differences were noted in all the statements that address the adequacy of the retention strategies employed in their institutions ( $p < 0.001$ ).

**TABLE 6.28 RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE RETENTION STRATEGIES OF THEIR INSTITUTIONS (N=125)**

Statement	No	Likert scale					Mean	Std.	Fisher's Exact Test p-value
		SD	D	Neutral	A	SA			
My institution is making provision for better career paths	125	7.2%	11.2%	29.6%	46.4%	5.6%	3.32	0.997	0.000
I feel that career promotion is based on merit and performance	125	8.0%	16.8%	23.2%	42.4%	9.6%	3.29	1.106	0.000
My institution provides better pay in correlation with the effort I put in.	125	16.0%	37.6%	28.0%	15.2%	3.2%	2.52	1.036	0.000
My institution offers better pay in comparison with other institutions	125	19.2%	34.3%	35.2%	8.0%	3.2%	2.42	0.993	0.000
My institution offers perks, allowances and other fringe benefits that are up to my expectations	125	16.0%	36.8%	28.8%	16.0%	2.4%	2.52	1.021	0.000
I feel the top management always listens to the concerns of employees	125	16.8%	25.6%	40.8%	13.6%	3.2%	2.61	1.023	0.000
The terms and conditions of my job bring on better safety and security	125	7.2%	18.4%	35.2%	34.4%	4.8%	3.11	1.002	0.000
I feel that the achievements at work are well recognised	125	6.4%	21.6%	28.0%	38.4%	5.6%	3.15	1.032	0.000
The leaders in this institution are very supportive	125	6.4%	20.8%	34.4%	32.0%	6.4%	3.11	1.018	0.000
I feel that the management/leadership is motivating	125	11.2%	17.6%	36.0%	29.6%	5.6%	3.01	1.074	0.000
This institution has sufficient talent management policies	125	7.2%	16.8%	36.8%	35.2%	4.0%	3.12	1.980	0.000
There is sufficient cultural diversity in this institution	125	6.4%	7.2%	15.2%	47.2%	24.0%	3.75	1.097	0.000

With regard to the statement “My institution is making provision for better career paths”, most respondents (52.0%) positively agreed (agree=46.4%; strongly agree=5.6%) that their institutions were providing better career paths. Equally, the majority of respondents (52.5%) were in agreement (agree= 42.9%; strongly agree=9.6%) that career promotion was based on merit and performance. On the other hand, as depicted in Table 6.28 above, the Fisher’s Exact Test revealed a significant difference in scoring patterns at  $p<0.001$ . The Fisher’s Exact Test revealed that most respondents (53.6%) were in disagreement (strongly disagree=16.0%; disagree= 37.6%) that their institutions provided better pay in correlation with the effort they put in.

Interestingly, the Fisher’s Exact Test showed that 53.6% of respondents were also in disagreement (strongly disagree=19.2%; disagree=34.4%) that their institutions offered better pay in comparison to other institutions. Moreover, there was a similar disagreement (strongly disagree=16.0%; disagree= 36.85) by a high proportion of respondents (52.8%) regarding the statement “My institution offers perks, allowances and other fringe benefits that are up to my expectations”.

In terms of their response to the statement “I feel that top management always listen to the concerns of employees”, 40.8% of respondents were neutral, and 42.4% were in disagreement, while only 16.8% were in agreement with the statement. Regardless of the low numbers who noted that management always listens to employees’ concerns, the Fisher’s Exact Test revealed a significant difference in the scoring pattern at  $p<0.001$  as 39.2% of the respondents believed that the terms and conditions of their jobs brought better safety and security.

Furthermore, Table 6.28 shows that 28.0% of respondents were neutral, and 28.0% were in disagreement, while 44% were in agreement that their achievements at work were well recognised. Moreover, a mixed reaction was noted when the respondents were asked if the leaders at their institutions were supportive. The Fisher’s Exact Test showed that 27.2% of the respondents were in disagreement, 34.4% were neutral and 38.4% were in agreement that the leaders in their institutions were very supportive. However, it cannot be conclusively assumed that leaders were supportive. Equally essential to note is that the analysis showed that 28.8% of the respondents were in disagreement, 36.0% were

neutral and 35.2% were in agreement that management/leadership was motivating. A similar pattern of response was observed with regard to the statement “This institution has sufficient talent management policies”. The Fisher’s Exact Test was significant at  $p < 0.001$  as 24% of the respondents were in disagreement, 36.8% were neutral, while 39.2% were in agreement that their institutions had sufficient talent management policies.

From the foregoing, it is reasonable to assume that expatriate academics were not so satisfied with the retention strategies in place at their institutions. Moreover, mixed expressions were noted in the responses regarding the leadership, management support and motivational abilities. Despite these findings, the majority of respondents (71.2%) were in agreement (agree 47.2%; strongly agree= 24.0%) that there was sufficient cultural diversity in their institutions on Fisher’s Exact Test at  $p < 0.001$ .

## **6.6 HYPOTHESIS TESTING AND VALIDATION OF THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

Jackson (2016:178) refers to hypothesis testing as the process in which the researcher determines if a hypothesis is substantiated by the findings of the research study. The following section presents the different statistical tests that were conducted to test the hypotheses and to validate the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) of this study, entitled “Conceptual Framework on the Predictors of Turnover Intention of Expatriate Academics at Selected Universities in KwaZulu-Natal”. Therefore, Table 6.29 presented below shows the statistical analyses used in testing the hypotheses. One may observe that this study used both parametric and non-parametric statistical tests so that one can cater for cases where the data of the tested variables are not normally distributed, nor ordinal. Thus, non-parametric tests (the Mann-Whitney U test and the Kruskal-Wallis H test) were used to test the linkages between the demographic items and the other variables of this study, while parametric tests (Correlation, regression analysis, structural equation modelling) were conducted to test the relationships between the different Likert-scale variables of this study and to identify the predictors of turnover intention. Each of the following sub-sections therefore starts by testing the hypothesis stated, followed by the validation of the interlinkages in the conceptual framework, then the discussion.



**TABLE 6.29 PRESENTATION OF THE STATISTICAL TESTS USED**

Statistical tests	Purposes	Hypotheses
Mann-Whitney U	To assess the turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics in both institutions under study	H1
Regression analysis	To assess the influence of demographic variables on turnover intentions	H2
Mann-Whitney U Kruskal-Wallis H	To assess the difference between the biographical characteristic groups and turnover intentions (H3a-H3i)	H3
Correlation	To assess the relationship between independent variables and turnover intentions	H4-H10
Multiple Regression	To assess, amongst the independent variables, the one that predict expatriate academics' turnover intentions	H11
Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)	To assess the strength of the relationship between the independent variables and turnover intention	
Regression Analysis	To test the mediating effect of job satisfaction in the relationship between turnover intention and other independent variables (H12a-H12f)	H12

### 6.6.1 ASSESSING TURNOVER INTENTIONS AMONGST EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL AND THE UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND

**H1:** There are significant high turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics of both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand.

In order to assess the turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics of both institutions, the Mann-Whitney U test was conducted.

**TABLE 6.30 TURNOVER INTENTIONS OF EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS OF BOTH INSTITUTIONS (N=125)**

Institution		N	Mean Rank	Mann-Whitney U	P-value
Turnover intention	UKZN	116	62.81	500.5	0.842
	UNIZUL	9	65.39		
	Total	125			

\*Mann-Whitney ( $U$ )=0.842; Mean ( $\mu_1$ )=62.81 and ( $\mu_2$ )=65.39;  $p < 0.05$

As depicted in Table 6.30 above, the Mann-Whitney U test failed to show significant differences beyond the 0.05 interval level ( $p > 0.05$ ), although the mean rank for UNIZUL (65.39) respondents' turnover intentions was slightly higher than that of UKZN (62.81). This suggests that the institution where expatriate academics worked did not necessarily influence their turnover intention. Therefore, the hypothesis H1 is rejected.

## 6.6.2 ASSESSING THE INFLUENCE OF THE BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES ON EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS

**H2:** There is a significant influence of expatriate academics' biographical variables (age, gender, origin, marital status, tenure status, academic rank, experience in academia, qualifications and years of experience in the institution) on turnover intentions.

A regression analysis was conducted to test hypothesis H2. It is also worth highlighting that hypothesis H2 assessed the linkage between the demographics (Section A) and the criterion 'turnover intention', presented with the double arrow labelled A in the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1).

**TABLE 6.31 MODEL SUMMARY OF DEMOGRAPHICS AND TURNOVER**

Model Summary <sup>b</sup>					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Sig.
1	.428 <sup>a</sup>	0.183	0.119	6.62767	0.004
a. Predictors: (Constant): Origin, NbYrsInInst, MaritalStatus, Gender, TenureStatus, HighestQual, AcadRank, NbYrsInAcad, Age					
b. Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention					

As depicted in Table 6.31 above, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient showed a significant positive relationship ( $r=0.428$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). This suggests that the biographical variables correlated with expatriate academics' turnover intentions. Notwithstanding this, the correlation value does not conclusively indicate that all the demographics contributed substantially to the predictive power of the regression (turnover intention). Furthermore, Table 6.32 below shows the values of the Beta coefficients of the demographic variables. Thus, as observed in Table 6.32, the Beta coefficients for gender ( $\beta = -0.056$ ), highest qualification ( $\beta = 0.152$ ), marital status ( $\beta = -0.078$ ), number of years in Institution ( $\beta = -0.098$ ), tenure status ( $\beta = 0.149$ ), academic rank ( $\beta = 0.163$ ) and origin ( $\beta = -0.170$ ) had a minor contribution in the regression. However, based on the Beta coefficient values of age ( $\beta = -0.277$ ) and of the number of years of experience in academia ( $\beta = 0.271$ ), significant at

$p < 0.05$ , it can be concluded that age and the number of years of experience in academia were the only factors influencing turnover intention. Hence, Hypothesis H2 is partially substantiated.

**TABLE 6.32 COEFFICIENT VALUES OF DEMOGRAPHICS AND INTENTION TO LEAVE**

Coefficients <sup>a</sup>						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	18.507	7.295		2.537	0.013
	Age	-2.054	0.928	-0.277	-2.213	0.029
	Gender	-1.028	1.690	-0.056	-0.608	0.544
	HighestQual	2.314	1.433	0.153	1.616	0.109
	MaritalStatus	-1.003	1.222	-0.078	-0.820	0.414
	NbYrsInInst	-0.613	0.645	-0.098	-0.951	0.344
	TenureStatus	1.166	0.786	0.149	1.484	0.140
	NbYrsInAcad	1.422	0.625	0.271	2.277	0.025
	AcadRank	1.150	0.834	0.163	1.380	0.170
	Origin	-1.647	0.927	-0.170	-1.776	0.078
a. Dependent Variable: Turnover Intentions						

Regarding the age of the respondents as influencing their turnover intentions, a negative influence was observed ( $\beta = -0.277$ ;  $P < 0.05$ ), which suggests that as the age increases, the turnover intentions lessen. These findings coincide with the findings of other scholars who also reported on the negative influence of expatriate academics' age on their intention to leave (FitzGerald and Clark, 2012:374; Awang *et al.*, 2016:151).

However, as depicted in Table 6.32 above, a significant positive influence was noted between the number of years in academia and turnover intention ( $\beta = 0.271$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ). This suggests that as the number of years in academia increases, their turnover intentions increase and vice versa. The findings are in line with those of Park (2015:69) in the study conducted on international academics employed at the Urban Public Research University in the USA.

### 6.6.3 DIFFERENCE IN TURNOVER INTENTIONS BETWEEN DIFFERENT BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLE GROUPS

The previous section found that there is a positive relationship between demographics and turnover intentions ( $r=0.428$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). This section examines if the perceived turnover intentions differ amongst expatriate academics from different biographic groups. Hence, hypothesis three is articulated below.

**H3:** There is a significant difference in turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics from different biographical variable groups (age, gender, origin, marital status, tenure status, academic rank, experience in academia, qualifications and years of experience in the institution).

Thus, to test the difference in turnover intentions amongst different demographic groups, Hypothesis 3 has been sub-divided into nine different sub-hypotheses as follows:

#### 6.6.3.1 DIFFERENCE IN GENDER GROUPS AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS

**H3a.** There is a significant difference in turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics from different gender groups.

To test hypothesis H3a, the Mann-Whitney U test was conducted.

**TABLE 6.33 GENDER GROUPS AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS (N=125)**

Gender		N	Mean Rank	Mann-Whitney U	P-value
Turnover intention	Male	103	65.35	891.000	0.116
	Female	22	52.00		
	Total	125			

\*Mann-Whitney ( $U$ )=0.116; Mean ( $\mu_1$ )=65.35 and ( $\mu_2$ )=52;  $p<0.05$ .

Table 6.33 above shows that there was no significant difference in turnover intention amongst male and female expatriate academics ( $p>0.05$ ). As a result, Hypothesis H3a was rejected.

The results concur with those of Lawrence, *et al.* (2014:518) who found no gender differences amongst Asian international academics employed in USA's research universities. The results are also in line with those of Awang, *et al.* (2016:151), as well as the findings of Lee, *et al.* (2016:24) who reported no difference in turnover intentions amongst male and female expatriate academics. In contrast, the findings are in contradiction with the study by Habhad and Smith (2014:10) and the study by Spark (2015:68), which revealed that female expatriate academics were more inclined to leave their institutions than their male counterparts.

### 6.6.3.2 DIFFERENCE IN AGE GROUPS AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS

**H3b.** There is a significant difference in turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics from different age groups.

The Kruskal-Wallis H test was run to assess if there is a difference in turnover intentions between age groups.

**TABLE 6.34 AGE GROUPS AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS (N=125)**

Age		N	Mean Rank	df	Kruskal-Wallis H	P-Value
Turnover	20-29	6	65.08	4	13.145	0.011
	30-39	43	74.06			
	40-49	46	65.26			
	50-59	24	43.60			
	60+	6	41.92			
	Total	125				

\*Kruskal-Wallis H= 13.145;  $p = 0.011$ ;  $df=4$ ;  $\mu=(65.08; 74.06; 65.26; 43.60; 41.92)$ ;  $p<0.05$ .

As depicted in Table 6.34 above, the Kruskal-Wallis H test revealed a statistically significant difference in the age groups of academic expatriates and their turnover intentions ( $p<0.05$ ). Therefore, Hypothesis H3b was supported. Furthermore, based on

the mean ranking ( $\mu=74.06$ ), it was observed that respondents within the age group 30-39 years old had the highest or stronger turnover intentions.

The above findings contradict those of Awang, *et al.* (2016:151) who reported that expatriate academics above 40 years of age showed higher turnover intentions than those below 40 years of age.

### 6.6.3.3 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS

**H3c.** There is a significant difference in turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics with different years of experience in the Institution.

The Kruskal-Wallis H test was used to determine if the different number of years expatriate academics have spent in an institution influenced their turnover intention.

**TABLE 6.35 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN INSTITUTION AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS (N=125)**

NbYsInst		N	Mean Rank	df	Kruskal-Wallis H	P-Value
	0-3	47	64.23	4	10.233	0.017
	4-6	31	68.44			
	7-9	24	73.38			
	10+	23	42.33			
	Total	125				

\*Kruskal-Wallis H= 10.233;  $p = 0.017$ ;  $df=4$ ;  $\mu=(64.23; 68.44; 73.38; 42.33)$ ;  $p<0.05$ .

As depicted in Table 6.35 above, the Kruskal-Wallis H test showed a significant difference between expatriate academics' number of years in the institution and their perceived turnover intentions ( $p<0.05$ ). Therefore, H3c is supported.

The results are in contrast with the findings of Hassam and Hashim's (2011:89) study that revealed no difference in the number of years spent in the institution and turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics working in four public Malaysian Universities.

Furthermore, as shown in Table 6.35, the Mean Rank Value of  $\mu=73.38$  suggests that expatriate academics with seven to nine years of experience in the institution had a high intention to leave.

#### 6.6.3.4 DIFFERENCE IN TENURE STATUSES AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS

**H3d.** There is a significant difference in turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics with different tenure statuses.

As portrayed below, the Kruskal Wallis H test was conducted to assess hypothesis H3d.

**TABLE 6.36 DIFFERENCE IN TENURE STATUSES AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS (N=125)**

Tenure Status		N	Mean Rank	df	Kruskal-Wallis H	P-Value
Turnover	Permanent	73	55.05	2	13.354	0.001
	Temporary	14	92.43			
	Contract	38	67.43			
	Total	125				

\*Kruskal-Wallis H= 13.354;  $p = 0.001$ ;  $df=2$ ;  $\mu=(55.05; 92.42; 67.43)$ ;  $p<0.001$ .

Table 6.36 above shows that a significant difference was found by the Kruskal-Wallis H test between different tenure statuses and expatriate academics perceived turnover intentions ( $p<0.001$ ). Consequently, Hypothesis H3d is supported.

These findings are in tandem with the study of Zhou and Volkwein (2004:4) who revealed that non-tenure academics had a higher tendency to leave than those with tenured status. However, the study of Noor (2011:243) found no significant difference in this regard. In addition, Table 6.36 shows that expatriate academics employed on a temporary contract had a high turnover intention, with a Mean Rank Value of  $\mu=92.43$ .



### 6.6.3.5 DIFFERENCE IN MARITAL STATUS AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS

**H3e.** There is a significant difference in turnover intentions amongst single, married, divorced and widowed expatriate academics.

The Kruskal-Wallis H test was run to examine if there are differences in turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics with different marital statuses.

**TABLE 6.37 DIFFERENCE IN MARITAL STATUSES AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS (N=125)**

Marital		N	Mean Rank	df	Kruskal-Wallis H	P-Value
Turnover	Single	29	70.53	3	4.359	0.225
	Married	90	61.45			
	Divorced	4	65.13			
	Widow	2	19.25			
	Total	125				

\*Kruskal-Wallis H= 4.359;  $p = 0.225$ ;  $df=3$ ;  $\mu=(70.53; 60.45; 65.13; 19.25)$ ;  $p>0.05$ .

As illustrated in Table 6.37 above, the Kruskal-Wallis showed no significant difference in turnover intentions amongst single, married, divorced and widowed expatriate academics ( $p>0.05$ ). As a result, the Hypothesis H3e is rejected. These findings concur with the study by Lawrence, *et al.* (2014:518) that reported no difference in turnover intentions between expatriate academics with different marital statuses. Awang, *et al.* (2016:151) also found no difference in their study that assessed the impact of academic factors on turnover intentions. In contrast, the study by Park (2015:69) revealed that married international academics were less inclined to leave than those who were single.

### 6.6.3.6 DIFFERENCE IN ACADEMIC RANK GROUPS AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS

**H3f.** There is a significant difference in turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics with different academic ranks.

In order to validate hypothesis H3f, the Kruskal-Wallis H test was conducted.

**TABLE 6.38 DIFFERENCE IN ACADEMIC RANK GROUPS AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS (N=125)**

AcadRank		N	Mean Rank	df	Kruskal-Wallis H	P-Value
Turnover	Professor	24	44.31	3	10.975	0.012
	Senior Lecturer	20	67.18			
	Lecturer	57	62.95			
	Researcher Only	24	78.33			
	Total	125				

\*Kruskal-Wallis H= 10.975;  $p = 0.012$ ;  $df=3$ ;  $\mu=(44.31; 67.18; 62.95; 78.33)$ ;  $p<0.05$ .

As shown in Table 6.38, the Kruskal Wallis H test revealed a significant difference in turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics with different academic ranks ( $p<0.05$ ). Additionally, the mean value of  $\mu=78.33$  recorded in Table 6.38 shows that expatriate academics with the rank of 'researcher' had a high intent to leave. Therefore, the Hypothesis H3f is accepted. These findings contradict scholars who reported that expatriate academics with the rank of professors had high intention to leave (Lawrence *et al.*, 2014:518; Awang *et al.*, 2016:151).

### 6.6.3.7 DIFFERENCE IN THE LEVELS OF QUALIFICATIONS AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS

**H3g.** There is a significant difference in turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics with different qualification levels.

The hypothesis H3g was tested through a Kruskal-Wallis H test, presented in Table 6.39 below.

**TABLE 6.39 DIFFERENCE IN LEVELS OF QUALIFICATIONS AND TURNOVER INTENTION (N=125)**

Qualification		N	Mean Rank	df	Kruskal-Wallis H	P-Value
Turnover	Honours Degree	1	74.00	2	0.093	0.954
	Masters Degree	33	62.92			
	Doctoral Degree	91	62.91			
	Total	125				

\*Kruskal-Wallis H= 0.093;  $p = 0.954$ ;  $df=2$ ;  $\mu=(74.00; 62.92; 62.91)$ ;  $p>0.05$ .

As presented in Table 6.39 above, the Kruskal-Wallis H test found no significant difference in turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics from different qualification levels ( $p>0.05$ ). Therefore, the Hypothesis H3G is rejected. These findings contradict the study by Zhou and Volkwein (2004:16) that showed that academics with a Doctorate degree reported a higher tendency to leave than those with a Masters degree or less.

### 6.6.3.7 DIFFERENCE IN YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN ACADEMIA AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS

**H3h.** There is a significant difference in turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics with different years of experience in academia.

**TABLE 6.40 DIFFERENCE IN YEARS IN ACADEMIA AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS (N=125)**

NbYrsInAcad		N	Mean Rank	df	Kruskal-Wallis H	P-Value
Turnover	0-2	9	45.33	4	8.486	0.075
	3-4	14	78.50			
	5-6	17	74.29			
	7-8	15	70.63			
	9+	70	57.79			
	Total	125				

\*Kruskal-Wallis H= 8.486;  $p = 0.075$ ;  $df=4$ ;  $\mu=(45.33; 78.50; 74.29; 70.63; 57.79)$ ;  $p>0.05$ .

The result of the Kruskal-Wallis H test presented in Table 6.40 above showed no significant difference in turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics with different years of experience in academia ( $p>0.05$ ). Therefore, the Hypothesis H3h is rejected.

### 6.6.3.8 DIFFERENCE IN ORIGINS AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS

**H3i.** There is a significant difference in turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics from different origins.

**TABLE 6.41 DIFFERENCE IN ORIGINS AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS (N=125)**

Origin		N	Mean Rank	df	Kruskal-Wallis H	P-Value
Turnover	African (SADC)	36	62.74	2	7.819	0.020
	African (non SADC)	59	70.75			
	Others	30	48.07			
	Total	125				

\*Kruskal-Wallis H= 7.819;  $p = 0.020$ ;  $df=2$ ;  $\mu=(62.74; 70.75; 48.07)$ ;  $p<0.05$ .

The Kruskal Wallis H test depicted in Table 6.41 above shows a significant difference in turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics from different origins ( $p < 0.05$ ). Additionally, it is shown that African expatriate academics of non-SADC origin had a high intention to leave, with a mean value of  $\mu = 70.75$ . Hence, Hypothesis H3i is accepted. The results are in contradiction with many scholars who reported no significant difference between origin and turnover intentions (Popoli *et al.*, 2012:859; Regassa and John, 2016:89).

In sum, with regard to hypothesis H3, the statistical tests revealed a significant difference in turnover intentions between the age groups, the number of years spent in an institution, the tenure statuses, the different academic ranks and the origins of expatriate academics. However, no significant difference in turnover intentions were reported in gender groups, as well as in the levels of qualifications, or in the number of years of experience in academia. Likewise, the statistical tests showed no significant difference in turnover intentions amongst single, married, divorced and widowed expatriate academics. Therefore, the hypothesis H3 is partially supported.

## **6.7 ASSESSING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE INDEPENDENT VARIABLES AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

This section presents the results of the Pearson Correlation Coefficient performed by this study as part of the validation of its conceptual framework on the relationship between the turnover intentions of expatriate academics and their perceptions of the characteristics of their institutions, their organisational commitment, their job satisfaction, their cultural and social adjustment, their perception of job opportunities, as well as the level of organisational justice and the adequacy of the retention strategies in their institutions. Furthermore, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient analysis was conducted in order to test Hypotheses H4 to H10 related to the variables of the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1).

With regard to the Pearson Correlation Coefficient, Jackson (2016:149) states that the correlation between 0.70-1 is strong; 0.30-0.69 is moderate; and the correlation between 0.1-0.29 is too weak. Thus, as shown in the composite Table 6.42 below, the Pearson correlation value found that the dependent variable 'turnover intentions' correlates with all the above-mentioned independent variables, except for the variable 'perceived job opportunities'. In addition, the relationships found between the independent variables are also depicted in Table 6.42. Hence, the results obtained from the Pearson Correlation Coefficient are highlighted in the subsequent sections, followed by the validation of hypotheses and the discussion. However, it is worth mentioning that besides reporting on the correlation between turnover intentions and the independent variables, only the correlations between the independent variables with a value above  $r = 0.4$ , significant at  $p < 0.01$  interval level are further discussed.

**TABLE 6.42 PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT ON THE FACTORS STIMULATING TURNOVER INTENTIONS AMONGST EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS (N=125)**

		Institutional characteristics	Cultural and social adjustment	Job satisfaction	Organisational commitment	Perceived job opportunity	Organisational justice	Adequacy of retention strategies of the institution	Turnover intention
Institutional characteristics	Pearson Correlation	1	0.065	.590**	.561**	0.126	.505**	.572**	-.358**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.473	0.000	0.000	0.161	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
Cultural and social adjustment	Pearson Correlation	0.065	1	.294**	.187*	0.085	.188*	.373**	-.254**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.473		0.001	0.037	0.349	0.036	0.000	0.004
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.590**	.294**	1	.661**	-0.012	.609**	.828**	-.557**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.001		0.000	0.891	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
Organisational commitment	Pearson Correlation	.561**	.187*	.661**	1	0.173	.474**	.701**	-.375**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.037	0.000		0.053	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
Perceived Job opportunity	Pearson Correlation	0.126	0.085	-0.012	0.173	1	0.086	0.010	0.074

	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.161	0.349	0.891	0.053		0.339	0.911	0.412
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
Organisational justice	Pearson Correlation	.505**	.188*	.609**	.474**	0.086	1	.564**	-.338**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.036	0.000	0.000	0.339		0.000	0.000
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
Adequacy of the retention strategies of the institution	Pearson Correlation	.572**	.373**	.828**	.701**	0.010	.564**	1	-.493**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.911	0.000		0.000
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
Turnover intention	Pearson Correlation	-.358**	-.254**	-.557**	-.375**	0.074	-.338**	-.493**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.004	0.000	0.000	0.412	0.000	0.000	
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
**. Correlation is significant at the P<0.01 level (2-tailed).									



### 6.7.1 CORRELATION BETWEEN THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE INSTITUTION AND EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS

The following section tests the hypothesis H4 below and validates the linkage between the characteristics of the institution (Section B), depicted in the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) and the variable 'turnover intention'; presented with the double arrow labelled B.

**H4:** There is a significant relationship between the characteristics of the institution and expatriate academics' turnover intentions.

The Pearson Correlation Coefficient Test (Table 6.42) revealed a significant relationship between the characteristics of the institution and expatriate academics' turnover intentions. Thus, hypothesis H4 is supported.

The negative moderate correlation between the characteristics of the institution and expatriate academics' turnover intentions ( $r = -0.358$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ) suggests that the more the characteristics of the institution met the expectations of expatriate academics, the less their intention to leave. The findings of this study support Smart's (1990) Causal Model of Faculty Turnover Intentions and Hom, *et al.*'s (2012) Proximal Withdrawal States and Destinations Model of Turnover that hypothesized the relationship between the characteristics of an institution and turnover intentions. Additionally, these results are consistent with the findings of Tourangeau, *et al.* (2013:7) in a study conducted among 650 nurse faculty members in Canadian universities. However, the study conducted on tenured and non-tenured academics employed in USA universities reported a negative correlation between the characteristics of institutions and turnover intentions of tenured academics, as well as no correlation between intention to leave and non-tenured academics (Zhou and Volkwein, 2004:10).

With regard to the relationship between the characteristics of the institution and other independent variables as portrayed in Table 6.42, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient Test revealed a moderate positive relationship between institutional characteristics and job satisfaction ( $r = 0.590$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ). This suggests that as the institutional characteristics improve to meet expatriate academics' expectations, job satisfaction increases. Concerning turnover intentions, Smart (1990:410), as well as Johnsrud and

Rosser (2002:528) have established the linkage between turnover intentions and institutional characteristics, mediated by job satisfaction.

Furthermore, as shown in Table 6.42, a moderate positive correlation was observed between institutional characteristics and organisational commitment ( $r=0.561$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). This suggests that as the characteristics of the institution meet the expectations of expatriate academics, the more they are willing to commit to the institution. Similarly, it was observed that institutional characteristics had a moderate correlation with organisational justice ( $r=0.505$ ;  $p<0.01$ ), implying that characteristics such as diversity, unionization, decentralization and incentives as characteristics of institutions have an influence on expatriate academics' perception of fairness. A moderate positive correlation was also found between the adequacy of talent retention strategies and the characteristics of the institution ( $r=0.572$ ;  $p<0.01$ ) suggesting that the more pleased expatriate academics are with the characteristics of the institution, the more they wanted to remain with the institution.

#### **6.7.2 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURAL AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT AND EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

The following section tests hypothesis H5 as part of the validation of the conceptual framework of this study (Figure 4.1) on the relationship between turnover intention and cultural and social adjustment (Section H).

**H5:** There is a significant relationship between cultural and social adjustment and expatriate academics' turnover intentions.

As depicted in Table 6.42, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient found a significant relationship between cultural and social adjustment and expatriate academics' turnover intentions. Hence, hypothesis H5 is supported.

The weak negative correlation found between cultural and social adjustment and turnover intentions ( $r= -0.254$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ) suggests that the more expatriate academics are adjusted to the cultural and social environment of the host country, the less they intend to leave, and vice versa. The findings above concur with those of Richardson, *et al.* (2006:889) when investigating the effect of adjustment on turnover intentions amongst 182 expatriate teachers employed in government schools in the Caribbean Island.

Equally, the study by Zhu, *et al.* (2015:559), as well as the study by Kim, *et al.* (2016:7) reported a negative correlation between expatriates' cultural and social adjustment and turnover intentions. In contrast, the study by Tenova and Ajayi (2016:47) found no relationship between social and cultural adjustment and turnover intentions amongst 85 expatriate academics working in North Cyprus Universities. Similarly, the study conducted by Parnian, *et al.* (2013:124) did not find a correlation between cultural and social adjustment and turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics employed at Universiti Teknologi Malaysia. The difference in findings of the relationship between social and cultural adjustment and expatriates' turnover intentions can be attributed to many factors, such as expatriates' experiences, their feelings and their daily encounters in the foreign country. Hence, as pointed out by McKenna (2010:281), a holistic perspective needs to be considered in order to understand how expatriates adjust in the host country.

### **6.7.3 CORRELATION BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

This section tests hypothesis H6 in order to validate the relationship between the turnover intention of expatriate academics and job satisfaction depicted in Section E of the conceptual framework of this study (Figure 4.1).

**H6:** There is a significant relationship between expatriate academics' job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

The Pearson Correlation Coefficient Test (Table 6.42) showed a negative moderate correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intention ( $r=-0.557$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). This suggests that as job satisfaction decreases, turnover intention increases and vice versa. Thus, hypothesis H6 is supported.

The relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions have been over-emphasized in the literature. Various models on turnover intentions have hypothesized on the influence of job satisfaction on turnover intentions (Zhou and Volkwein, 2004:14; Rosser and Townsend, 2006:129). Moreover, many empirical studies reported that job satisfaction negatively correlated with turnover intention. For instance, the study conducted by Richardson, *et al.* (2006:888) on 182 expatriate

academics working in the Caribbean Islands revealed that satisfaction with pay negatively correlated with turnover intentions. A study by Akhtar, *et al.* (2015:655) also revealed a negative correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics working in private business schools in Pakistan. Lawrence (2014:519) as well as Ababneh (2016:20) found similar results in their empirical studies. In contrast, a study by Habhab and Smith (2014:10) found that satisfaction with pay positively correlated with expatriate academics' turnover intentions, implying that the more satisfied expatriate academics were with their pay, the more they intended to leave their institutions (i.e. the increase in pay did not lessen their intention to leave). However, the study by Puangyoykeaw and Nishide (2015:107) found that there was no correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Furthermore, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient illustrated in Table 6.42 above revealed that job satisfaction positively correlated with other independent variables, except for 'perceived job opportunities'. Thus, as portrayed in Table 6.42, a positive correlation was found between job satisfaction and organisational commitment ( $r=.661$ ;  $p<0.01$ ), suggesting that as job satisfaction increases, expatriate academics' level of commitment increases. Likewise, many scholars reported a positive correlation between organisational commitment and turnover intentions (Austin *et al.*, 2014:138; Saridakis and Cooper, 2016:45). A positive moderate correlation was also revealed between job satisfaction and organisational justice ( $r=.609$ ;  $p<0.01$ ), implying that the perception of fairness increases job satisfaction. Similar results were reported in a study by Kaur, *et al.* (2013:1225) as well as in the study by Bayarçelik and Findikli (2016:406). Additionally, as depicted in Table 6.42 above, job satisfaction strongly and positively correlates with the adequacy of retention strategies of the institution ( $r=.828$ ;  $p<0.01$ ) and vice versa. Furthermore, a moderate positive correlation was also found between job satisfaction and the characteristics of the institution ( $r=.590$ ;  $p<0.01$ ), implying that improving the features of the institution increased job satisfaction. Zhou and Volkwein's (2004:10) study reported on the influence of institutional characteristics on job satisfaction leading to turnover intention.

#### **6.7.4 CORRELATION BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

This section tests hypothesis H7 for the validation of the relationship between Organisational Commitment (Section D) and turnover intention presented in the conceptual framework in Figure 4.1.

**H7:** There is a significant relationship between expatriate academics' level of organisational commitment and turnover intention.

The Pearson Correlation Coefficient presented in Table 6.42 above revealed a negative relationship between organisational commitment and expatriate academics' turnover intentions. Therefore, hypothesis H7 is supported.

The moderate negative relationship between organisational commitment and expatriate academics' turnover intentions ( $r=-0.375$ ;  $p<0.01$ ) suggests that the more committed expatriate academics were to their institutions, the less they intended to leave. These findings support Price and Mueller's (1986) Causal Turnover Model that assumed a direct relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intentions. Similar findings were reported in the study conducted by Hassan and Hashim (2011:90) on expatriate academics employed in selected Malaysian universities. Furthermore, in the study by Spark (2015:75) on expatriate academics working in Urban Public Universities in USA also found a negative correlation between organisational commitment and intentions to leave amongst international academics. Likewise, the study by Goodwin and Preiss (2010:55), as well as the study by Lawrence, *et al.* (2014:521) found a negative correlation between organisational commitment and expatriates' turnover intentions. However, the findings of Wang, *et al.* (2016:151) reported a positive correlation between organisational commitment and turnover intentions.

With regard to other independent variables, namely organisational justice and talent retention strategies, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (Table 6.42) showed a positive correlation between organisational commitment and organisational justice ( $r=0.474$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). This positive correlation implies that the more expatriate academics perceived practices to be fair, the more they bonded with their institutions. Bluedorn (1982:28) and Price and Mueller (1986) postulated on the interlinkage between

organisational commitment and organisational justice when claiming that the perception of fairness had a great influence on the level of employees' commitment to their organisation.

Table 6.42 also shows a strong positive correlation between organisational commitment and the adequacy of the talent retention strategies of the institution ( $r=0.701$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). This result implies that the more expatriate academics perceived strategies to retain talent to be adequate, the higher their commitment to their institutions.

### **6.7.5 CORRELATION BETWEEN PERCEIVED JOB OPPORTUNITIES AND EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

The section below tests hypothesis H8 for the validation of the relationship between Perceived job opportunities (Section G) and turnover intention portrayed in the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1).

**H8:** There is a significant relationship between perceived job opportunities and expatriate academics' turnover intentions.

As depicted in Table 6.42 above, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient showed no significant relationship between perceived job opportunities and turnover intentions. Therefore, hypothesis H8 is rejected.

The Pearson Correlation Coefficient result implies that the availability of external jobs has no effect on the turnover intentions of expatriate academics. These findings contradict the Theory of Organisational Equilibrium of March and Simon (1958) and the Alternative Job Opportunity Model of Gerhart (1990:36), which claimed that the availability of jobs influences turnover intentions. The findings of this study are also incongruent with the findings of the empirical study of Nyamubarwa (2013:87), which revealed a positive relationship between alternative job opportunities and academic librarians' turnover intentions. However, the study of Zhou and Volkwein (2004:17) revealed that external job opportunities had little effect on turnover intentions.

The findings of this study may be attributed to many causes, such as the age of expatriates, the high competition in the academia or to the fact that expatriate

academics are confident in the portability of their scarce skills which are sought after by Higher Education Institutions.

Furthermore, as shown in Table 6.42 above, perceived job opportunities did not correlate with any variable of the study. These findings differ from the Intermediate Linkage Model of Mobley (1977) that claimed that the relationship between the availability of job opportunities and turnover intentions is better explained by job satisfaction.

#### **6.7.6 CORRELATION BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE AND EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

The following section tests the hypothesis H9 below as part of the validation of the linkage between Organisational justice (Section C) and turnover intention presented in the conceptual framework of this study (Figure 4.1).

**H9:** There is a significant relationship between organisational justice and expatriate academics' turnover intentions.

As presented in Table 6.42 above, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient showed a moderate negative correlation between organisational justice and expatriate academics ( $r = -.338$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ). Therefore, Hypothesis H9 is supported.

This moderate negative correlation suggests that the more expatriate academics perceived fairness in the procedures that yield outcomes and in their interactions with their supervisors, the less they intended to leave their institutions. These findings support Daly and Dee's (2006:781) Conceptual Model of Intention to Stay that validated a direct relationship between distributive justice and intent to leave or to stay. Moreover, the findings of this research study are in tandem with the results of Hassan and Hashim (2011:84) in the same study conducted on expatriate academics working in Malaysian Institutions.

Likewise, a similar study conducted by Park (2015:78) on international academics also found a negative correlation between organisational justice and turnover intentions. Furthermore, the same findings were reported in the study by Omari, *et al.* (2008:37).

Concerning the relationship between organisational justice with other independent variables (characteristics of the institution, job satisfaction, Perceived job

opportunities, organisational commitment), the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (Table 6.42) revealed a moderate positive correlation between organisational justice and the adequacy of talent retention strategies ( $r=.564$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). The positive correlation suggests that the more expatriate academics perceived retention strategies to be adequate, the more they perceived fairness in the organisation. Furthermore, as depicted in Table 6.42 and as mentioned above, a moderate positive correlation was revealed between organisational justice and institutional characteristics ( $r=.505$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). Additionally, a moderate positive correlation was found between organisational justice and job satisfaction ( $r=.609$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). Similarly, a moderate positive correlation was also reported between organisational justice and organisational commitment ( $r=.474$ ;  $p<0.01$ ).

#### **6.7.7 CORRELATION BETWEEN THE ADEQUACY OF TALENT RETENTION STRATEGIES AND EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

The section below tests hypothesis H10 to validate the relationship between the adequacy of retention strategies (Section F) and turnover intention as depicted in the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1).

**H10:** There is a significant relationship between the retention strategies (i.e. Compensation, reward, involvement, recognition and career development) and expatriate academics' turnover intentions.

The Pearson Correlation Coefficient revealed a moderate negative significant correlation between the adequacy of talent retention strategies and turnover intentions ( $r=-.493$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). Thus, hypothesis H10 is accepted.

As explained earlier, the negative correlation implies that the more expatriate academics perceived strategies to retain talent to be adequate, the less they intended to leave their institutions. This also strongly suggests that turnover intentions will increase with poor retention strategies in their institutions. Many scholars claimed that implementing the above-mentioned strategies are not only inclined to attract and retain talent, but to substantially decrease turnover intentions (Ashraf and Joarder, 2010:172; Kusnin and Rasdi, 2014:345; Kontoghiorghes, 2016:1839).



Overall, it can be summarized that from the Pearson Correlation Coefficient illustrated in Table 6.42 above, most of the afore-mentioned independent variables, except for 'perceived job opportunities', negatively correlated with expatriate academics' turnover intentions. Hence, as assumed in the conceptual model (Figure 4.1), the linkages between turnover intention and the following variables: institutional characteristics, cultural and social adjustment, job satisfaction, perceived job opportunities, adequacy of retention strategies, organisational commitment and organisational justice were proven to exist. Moreover, it can be perceived in Table 6.42 that job satisfaction and the adequacy of talent retention strategies strongly correlated with turnover intentions, as compared to other independent variables. Arising from this analysis, the next section further explores in depth the possible factors that could promote expatriate academics' turnover intentions.

## 6.8 ASSESSING THE PREDICTORS OF TURNOVER INTENTIONS

The previous section has shown that job satisfaction, institutional characteristics, adequacy of retention strategies, organisational justice, organisational commitment, and cultural and social adjustment negatively impact on turnover intention. Of interest, and as argued by Howell (2010:246), correlation does not in any way imply causation. Further, Kinnear and Gray (2014) point out that in a situation where everything correlates with everything else, it is highly difficult to attribute variance in the dependent variable unequivocally to any one independent variable. Consequently, Howell (2010:246) claims that regression analysis is appropriate in determining the prediction of a variable. Given the drawbacks of correlation, regression analysis was used to further gain insight into the predictors of turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics. Hence, the hypothesis tested below shows a more lucid approach to reinforce the analysis.

**H11:** The independent variables (job satisfaction, institutional characteristics, cultural and social adjustment, organisational commitment, perceived job opportunities, organisational justice, talent retention strategies) significantly predict turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics.

**TABLE 6.43 REGRESSION MODEL SUMMARY OF THE PREDICTORS OF TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.574 <sup>a</sup>	.330	.289	5.95371	.330	8.215	7	117	.000
a. Predictors: (Constant), B18, B16, B13, B17, B11, B15, B14									

As shown in Table 6.43 above, the results of the multiple regression analysis revealed that the correlation coefficient is  $R = .574$  and the effect of size  $R^2 = 28.9\%$ , suggesting a large size effect. Notwithstanding this, the correlation value does not conclusively indicate that all the variables contribute substantially to the predictive power of the regression (turnover intention).

**TABLE 6.44 BETA COEFFICIENTS OF THE PREDICTORS OF TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

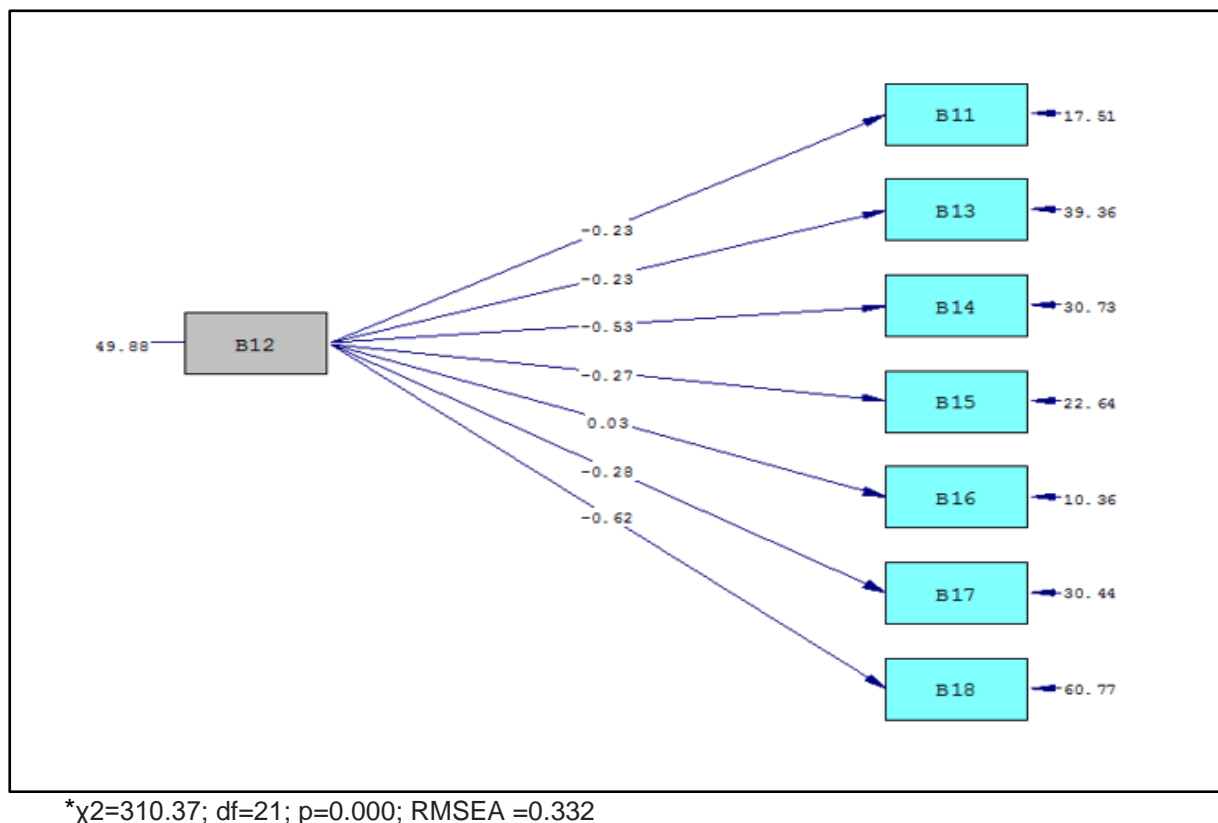
Coefficients <sup>a</sup>						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	43.721	4.871		8.976	.000
	Institution's Characteristics (B11)	-.123	.161	-.078	-.760	.449
	Cultural and Social adjustment (B13)	-.122	.092	-.112	-1.327	.187
	Job Satisfaction (B14)	-.473	.155	-.447	-3.045	.003
	Organisational commitment (B15)	-.014	.158	-.010	-.086	.932
	Perceived Job opportunity (B16)	.194	.174	.089	1.115	.267
	Organisational Justice (B17)	.015	.119	.013	.127	.900
	Adequacy of the retention strategies of the retention (B18)	-.030	.121	-.038	-.246	.806
a. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention						

Thus, as depicted in Table 6.44 above, it can be observed that the small Beta coefficients measured for institutional characteristics ( $\beta = -.078$ ); cultural and social adjustment ( $\beta = -.112$ ); organisational commitment ( $\beta = -.010$ ); perceived job opportunity ( $\beta = .089$ ); organisational justice ( $\beta = .013$ ); and adequacy of talent retention strategies ( $\beta = -.038$ ) showed that the aforesaid variables play minor parts in the regression. In contrast, the strong Beta coefficient measured for job satisfaction ( $\beta = -.447$ ) means that job satisfaction significantly contributes to the regression ( $p < 0.01$ ). Hence, it is sufficient to say that job satisfaction strongly predicted expatriate academics' turnover intentions. As a result, Hypothesis H11 is partially substantiated.

## 6.9 STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELING (SEM)

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was further computed using Lisrel (linear structural relationship software 9.1) to identify if any causal relationship exists between the latent construct (dependent variable) 'turnover intention' and manifest variables (Independent variables) of this study.

**FIGURE 6.26 SEM DIAGRAM OF EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS' TURNOVER INTENTION FACTORS**



As depicted in Figure 6.26 above, the Chi-Square Goodness of Fit revealed a significant association between the variables ( $\chi^2=310.37$ ;  $p<0.05$ ). For instance, a causal relationship was observed between turnover intention and Job satisfaction ( $r=-0.53$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), with the effect size of 31.0% and the Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) of 0.332. This suggests that as the Job satisfaction increases, expatriate academics' turnover intentions decrease by 31.0%. Likewise, a strong causal relationship was observed between turnover intention and adequacy of the retention strategies of the institution ( $r=-0.62$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), with an effect size of 31.0%. It is worth mentioning that although a causal relationship was found between turnover intention and the following variables, namely institutional characteristics, cultural and

social adjustment, organisational commitment and organisational justice, the measured Correlation Coefficient found a weak relationship between the above-mentioned variables. Hence, this could have little impact in reducing or increasing turnover intention amongst academic expatriates. Overall, Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) visibly confirmed the relationship that exists between Job satisfaction and turnover intention, thus affirming support of the regression model.

## 6.10 ASSESSING THE MEDIATING EFFECTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

In attempting to validate the effect of job satisfaction in stimulating other variables and turnover intentions, the Stepwise Regression Analysis was performed to test the regression power of other variables by adding job satisfaction to the model. Hence, hypothesis 12 below is formulated to test this outcome.

**H12:** The relationship between turnover intentions and the following variables, namely institutional characteristics, cultural and social adjustment, organisational commitment, organisational justice and adequacy of retention strategies is mediated by job satisfaction.

Thus, in order to assess the mediating effect of job satisfaction in the relationship between the above-mentioned variables and turnover intention, the hypothesis H12, was subdivided.

**H12a.** Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between institutional characteristics and turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics.

**TABLE 6.45 INSTITUTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS MODEL SUMMARY**

Mo del	R	R Squa re	Adjus ted R Squa re	Std. Error of the Estimat e	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Chang e	df 1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.358 <sup>a</sup>	.128	.121	6.62131	.128	18.088	1	123	.000
2	.558 <sup>b</sup>	.311	.300	5.90953	.183	32.414	1	122	.000
a. Predictors: (Constant), B11									
b. Predictors: (Constant), B11, B14									

The predicting effect of job satisfaction in stimulating the relationship between institutional characteristics and turnover intentions is presented in Table 6.45 above. It can be noted that the correlation coefficient (R) increased from 0.358 to 0.558 after the addition of job satisfaction to the model. Hence, hypothesis H12a is accepted.

The mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between the characteristics of an institution and turnover intentions was hypothesized in the Causal Model of Faculty Turnover Intentions of Smart (1990:58) depicted previously in Figure 2.26. Similarly, the study by Zhou and Volkwein (2004:14) also reported that job satisfaction intervenes in the relationship between institutional characteristics and turnover intentions. Zhou and Volkwein (2004:14) reported that the characteristics of an institution had a great influence on job satisfaction and subsequently stimulated turnover intentions.

**H12b.** Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between cultural and social adjustment and turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics.

**TABLE 6.46 CULTURAL AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT MODEL SUMMARY**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df 1	df 2	Sig. F Change
1	.254 <sup>a</sup>	.065	.057	6.85850	.065	8.499	1	123	.004
2	.565 <sup>b</sup>	.319	.308	5.87677	.254	45.528	1	122	.000
a. Predictors: (Constant), B13									
b. Predictors: (Constant), B13, B14									

The mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between cultural and social adjustment and turnover intention is demonstrated in Table 6.46. It can be observed that the correlation coefficient (R) increased from 0.254 to 0.565 after the addition of job satisfaction to the model. This indicates that the relationship between social and cultural adjustment is mediated by the expatriate academics' job satisfaction. Therefore, H12b is supported.

The results presented in Table 6.46 above further suggest that the influence of social and cultural adjustment on turnover intention can be explained by the level of expatriate academics' job satisfaction. These findings support the results of Naumann (1993) as cited by Alshammari (2013:69) who found that poor adjustment to the host country led to low job satisfaction and in turn resulted in the expatriates' failure in their assignment. Similarly, Jonasson, *et al.* (2016:14) found that the linkage between expatriate academics' intercultural adjustment and intention to remain with the Institution was better mediated by job satisfaction.

**H12c.** Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organisational commitment and expatriate academics' turnover intentions.

**TABLE 6.47 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT MODEL SUMMARY**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.375 <sup>a</sup>	.141	.134	6.57423	.141	20.116	1	123	.000
2	.557 <sup>b</sup>	.310	.299	5.91500	.169	29.945	1	122	.000
a. Predictors: (Constant), B15									
b. Predictors: (Constant), B15, B14									

From Table 6.47, it can be observed that the correlation coefficient (R) increased from 0.375 to 0.557 after the addition of job satisfaction to the model. Therefore, hypothesis H12C is supported.

The mutual influence of job satisfaction and organisational commitment with regard to turnover intentions has been emphasized by many scholars (Mosadeghrad, Ferlie and Rosenberg, 2008:213). In relation to this study, job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organisational commitment and expatriate academics' turnover intentions. These findings concur with Vandenberghe and Tremblay (2008:282) who highlighted that job satisfaction enhances the level of attachment and loyalty to the organisation and subsequently lessens turnover intentions.

**H12d.** Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between perceived organisational justice and expatriate academics' turnover intentions.

**TABLE 6.48 ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE MODEL SUMMARY**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df 1	df 2	Sig. F Change
1	.338 <sup>a</sup>	.114	.107	6.67443	.114	15.852	1	123	.000
2	.557 <sup>b</sup>	.310	.299	5.91534	.196	34.593	1	122	.000
a. Predictors: (Constant), B17									
b. Predictors: (Constant), B17, B14									

The predicting effect of job satisfaction to stimulate the relationship between organisational justice and turnover intention is presented in Table 6.48. It is shown that the correlation coefficient (R) increased from 0.338 to 0.557 after the addition of job satisfaction to the model. Thus, hypothesis H12d is supported.

These findings confirm Price's (1977) Causal Model, as well as Bluedorn's (1982:138) Unified Model of Turnover that assumed that the perception of unfairness affects job satisfaction and therefore results in turnover intentions. The findings are also consistent with those of Kaur. *et al*, (2013:1225) as well as the findings of Bayarçelik and Findikli (2016:406).



**H12e.** Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between the adequacy of retention strategies and turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics.

**TABLE 6.49 ADEQUACY OF THE RETENTION STRATEGIES MODEL SUMMARY**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df 1	df 2	Sig. F Change
1	.493 <sup>a</sup>	.243	.236	6.17174	.243	39.392	1	123	.000
2	.560 <sup>b</sup>	.313	.302	5.90154	.071	12.521	1	122	.001
a. Predictors: (Constant), B18									
b. Predictors: (Constant), B18, B14									

The mediating effect of job satisfaction in the relationship between adequacy of the talent retention strategies and turnover intention is demonstrated in Table 6.49. It is perceived that the correlation coefficient (R) increased from 0.338 to 0.557 after adding job satisfaction to the model. Hence, hypothesis H12e is supported.

According to various scholars, the key strategies to retain talent include adequate compensation, sound training and development, fair promotion and career advancement policies (Ashraf and Joarder, 2010:171; Kusnin and Rasdi, 2014:345). Given that the above-mentioned retention strategies also determine job satisfaction, it is justifiable to conclude that failure to implement the aforesaid retention strategies will likely affect job satisfaction and consequently stimulate turnover intentions.

**H12f.** Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between perceived job opportunities and turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics.

**TABLE 6.50 PERCEIVED JOB OPPORTUNITIES MODEL SUMMARY**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df 1	df 2	Sig. F Change
1	.074 <sup>a</sup>	.005	-.003	7.07204	.005	.678	1	123	.412
2	.561 <sup>b</sup>	.314	.303	5.89600	.309	54.962	1	122	.000
a. Predictors: (Constant), B16									
b. Predictors: (Constant), B16, B14									

The intervening effect of job satisfaction in the relationship between perceived job opportunities and turnover intention is demonstrated in Table 6.50 above. The Pearson correlation (Table 6.42) found no relationship between expatriate academics' turnover intentions and perceived job opportunities at  $p > 0.05$ . However, as depicted in Table 6.50, the correlation coefficient (R) increased from 0.074 to 0.561 and was significant at  $p < 0.05$  after adding job satisfaction to the model. Therefore, job satisfaction mediates the relationship between perceived job opportunities and turnover intentions. Hence, hypothesis H12f is substantiated.

In sum, from the above Stepwise Analysis of the mediating effect of job satisfaction, it can be observed that the regression coefficient consistently increased when adding job satisfaction to the model. It can therefore be conclusively affirmed that job satisfaction plays a major part in the regression of expatriate academics' turnover intentions and in mediating the relationship between the above-mentioned factors and turnover intentions. Therefore, Hypothesis H12 is supported.

**TABLE 6.51 SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES AND RESULTS**

H1. There are significant high turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics of both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand.	Rejected
H2: The demographic variables (age, gender, origin, marital status, tenure status, academic rank, experience in academia, qualification and years of experience in the institution) significantly influence expatriate academics' turnover intentions.	Partially Supported
H3. There is a significant difference in turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics from different demographic groups (age, gender, origin, marital status, tenure status, academic rank, experience in academia, qualification and years of experience in the institution).	Partially Supported
H4. There is a significant relationship between the characteristics of the institution and expatriate academics' turnover intentions.	Accepted
H5. There is a significant relationship between the cultural and social adjustment and expatriate academics' turnover intentions.	Accepted
H6. There is a significant relationship between expatriate academics' job satisfaction and turnover intentions.	Accepted
H7. There is a significant relationship between expatriate academics' level of organisational commitment and turnover intentions.	Accepted
H8. There is a significant relationship between perceived job opportunities and expatriate academics' turnover intention.	Rejected
H9. There is a significant relationship between organisational justice and expatriate academics' turnover intentions.	Accepted
H10. There is a significant relationship between the retention strategies (i.e. compensation, reward, involvement, recognition and career development) and expatriate academics' turnover intentions.	Partially Supported

H11.The independent variables (job satisfaction, institutional characteristics, cultural and social adjustment, organisational commitment, perceived job opportunities, organisational justice and talent retention strategies) significantly predict turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics.	Partially Supported
H12. The relationship between turnover intentions and the following variables, namely institutional characteristics, cultural and social adjustment, organisational commitment, organisational justice and adequacy of retention strategies is mediated by job satisfaction.	Accepted

## 6.11 SUMMARY OF THE LINKAGES FOUND IN THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

One of the objectives of this research study was to develop and validate, through the hypotheses, the conceptual framework of this study (Figure 4.1) entitled: “Conceptual Framework on The Predictors of Turnover Intention of Expatriate Academics at Selected Universities in KwaZulu-Natal”. For the purpose of this study, the researcher only assessed the direct and indirect linkages between turnover intentions and the following variables (institutional characteristics, job satisfaction, perceived job opportunities, organisational commitment, organisational justice, adequacy of talent retention strategies, social and cultural adjustment). Thus, as illustrated in Figure 4.1, the linkage between demographic variables (Section A) and turnover intention tested through hypothesis H2 was partially proven. It was observed that only three biographic factors, namely age, academic rank and number of years of experience in the institution were found to influence expatriate academics’ turnover intentions. Equally, the linkage between the institutional characteristics (Section B) and turnover intention tested through hypothesis H4 was proven as it was revealed that the characteristics of the organisation negatively correlated with expatriate academics’ turnover intentions ( $r=-358$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). Likewise, the connection between organisational justice (Section C) and turnover intention, assumed in the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) and validated through Hypothesis H9, was proven. It was found that organisational justice negatively correlated with expatriate academics’ turnover intentions ( $r=-338$ ;  $p<0.01$ ).

Furthermore, hypothesis H5 tested the relationship between cultural and social adjustment (Section H) and turnover intention. The statistical analyses showed that cultural and social adjustment negatively correlated with expatriate academics' turnover intentions ( $r=-0.254$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). The linkages between job satisfaction (Section E) and turnover intention tested through hypothesis H6 has been proven ( $r=-0.557$ ;  $p<0.001$ ). It was further found that job satisfaction strongly predicted expatriate academics' turnover intentions. Similarly, the linkage between organisational commitment (Section D) and turnover intentions tested through hypothesis H7 was proven ( $r=-0.375$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). However, the relationship between perceived job opportunities (Section G) and turnover intention tested through hypothesis H8 was disproven. However, the linkage between the adequacy of talent retention strategies (Section F) and turnover intention tested through Hypothesis H10 was validated ( $r=0.493$ ;  $p<0.01$ ).

Moreover, the indirect linkages tested through Hypothesis H12 showed that job satisfaction mediated the relationship between turnover intention and the following variables, namely organisational commitment, organisational justice, perceived job opportunities, adequacy of talent retention strategies, social and cultural adjustment and institutional characteristics. Hence, the indirect linkages portrayed with dashed arrows D1 to D6 in Figure 4.1 were validated. Overall, the results obtained from the statistical tests and from hypotheses testing indicated that the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) developed for this study was empirically validated.

## 6.12 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The main limitations of the study are listed hereunder.

- The absence of an explicit source list or a data base of expatriate academics in both HE Institutions (i.e. the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand) made it arduous to draw a random sample from the identified expatriate academics of 133 respondents and would have proved a futile exercise given the small size of the final identified target respondents.
- The study adopted snowball sampling as a non-parametric sampling technique, which involved the practice of identifying and qualifying a set of initial potential respondents who in turn helped the researcher to identify additional respondents with similar characteristics as other expatriate academics for homogeneity of the sampling frame for this study. This is also known as “referral sampling’. This could be perceived as one of the limitations of the study.
- The researcher’s only recourse was to adopt a quantitative research design and not the mixed methods approach, which includes a qualitative component with an Interviewing Schedule. This was due to the fact that the identified expatriate academics in both HE Institutions (UKZN and UNIZUL) were reluctant to take part in a one-on-one or focussed group interview for the qualitative paradigm.
- The researcher found very limited research studies on turnover intentions of expatriate academics in South African HE Institutions or Universities. Hence, the researcher relied on the available literature of expatriate academics employed in other HE Institutions internationally to authenticate the factors predicting turnover intentions.
- Given these limitations, the empirical findings for this study cannot be generalised to other HE Institutions/Universities in South Africa. However, the results could be beneficial to other scholars researching other themes on the perceptions of expatriate academics in other HE Institutions in South Africa.

## **6.13 CONCLUSION**

This chapter has provided a thorough explanation of how the data obtained for this study was analysed. Frequencies were used to describe the demographics of this study, as well as portraying the scoring patterns of the respondents regarding the variables. Furthermore, inferential statistics were conducted to test the hypotheses of this study and the findings were explained with relevant literature. Additionally, the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) developed for this study was validated. The main findings of this study include the influence of age and tenure status on intention to leave; the significant relationships found between most of the independent variables and turnover intention; the significant predicting effect of job satisfaction on expatriate academics' turnover intentions; and the mediating effect of job satisfaction in the linkages between several independent variables and turnover intentions. The next chapter provides the conclusion and recommendations of this research study. This could prove to be valuable in the management and retention of talented expatriate academics. Furthermore, the suggestions for future research directions are also provided in the next chapter.

## **CHAPTER 7**

### **CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this chapter is threefold, namely to draw a conclusion on the research study; to provide recommendations to the top management of both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand based on the empirical findings; and to suggest areas that should be further explored for the management and retention of expatriate academics. The main aims of this exploratory study were to identify the antecedents of turnover intentions amongst expatriate academics and to propose strategies that can help deter turnover intentions and retain talented expatriate academics. The study was conducted in both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand. A non-probability snowball sampling method was utilised to acquire the target respondents. One hundred and twenty-five usable questionnaires were captured and analysed using SPSS version 25. The study began with a thorough review of the literature on turnover intentions coupled with a review of the existing theories and models on turnover intentions. The literature review and the analysis of the theoretical paradigms in the context of the work and the lives of expatriate academics led to the formulation of twelve (12) hypotheses and to the development of the conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) of the predictors of turnover intentions of expatriate academics. These predictors of turnover intentions include demographics, job satisfaction, institutional characteristics, organisational commitment, organisational justice, social and cultural adjustment, adequacy of retention strategies and perceived job opportunities. The eight aforementioned antecedents of turnover intention were subjected to various statistical tests that confirmed or rejected their predicting effects. The conclusion of the study and the recommendations drawn from the findings are presented in the following sections.



## 7.2 CONCLUSION

This research study has contributed to the literature of International Human Resource Management and to the literature on turnover intention by investigating the turnover intention of expatriate academics. The study was conducted on expatriate academics employed by the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand. Its main purpose was to examine the factors that predicted the turnover intentions of expatriate academics in order to propose retention strategies. The study adopted a systematic and scientific theory grounded on the Positivist research philosophy. The review of various empirical studies and turnover intention models provided a platform of many predictors of turnover intention, in which eight (8) variables were examined by this study. A quantitative survey strategy was conducted on 125 valid questionnaires that were subjected to various statistical analyses. The main findings of the statistical analyses revealed that many expatriate academics intended to leave their institutions. They were dissatisfied with the compensation as well as the promotion policies. Hence, they were not committed to their institutions. The study also revealed that retention strategies such as leadership support, perks and benefits were inadequate.

In sum, this research study has achieved the objectives set out in chapter one. An intensive literature review was conducted on the turnover intention phenomenon and models underpinning turnover intentions were thoroughly explored. A conceptual framework (Figure 4.1) depicting the predictors of turnover intentions was validated. The various hypotheses formulated were tested with the use of statistical tests. Thus, based on the results of this study, the next section provides tentative recommendations and strategies that can be valuable in the management and retention of skilled expatriate academics. The recommendations made can only be generalised to the two HE Institutions under study, namely the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand.

### **7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Based on the findings of the empirical study, the following recommendations are proposed to the management of the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand in relation to the management and retention of their talented expatriate academics.

#### **7.3.1 CONDUCTING A TURNOVER INTENTION SURVEY**

The empirical study revealed that more than half of the respondents (50.4%) indicated that they did not have a desire to keep on working with their institutions. Therefore, the top management of both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand should conduct a turnover intention survey to uncover the factors that may stimulate expatriate academics' turnover intentions. The turnover intention survey may also reveal the causes of high turnover intention amongst millennial expatriate academics (age group 30-39).

#### **7.3.2 DEVELOPING STRATEGIES TO MANAGE MILLENNIAL EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS**

The results of the study found that high turnover intention was prevalent amongst expatriate academics from the age group 30-39 years old. Consequently, it is imperative for the top management of both HE Institutions to develop strategies to manage this category of expatriate academics as they appear to be the second largest group (34%) in the study. However, this requires the top management of the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand to firstly identify the main characteristics of millennial expatriate academics, their aspirations and their values. Thus, below are some of the strategies that both HE Institutions can implement to effectively manage and retain their millennial expatriate academics:

- Provide a flexible working environment that allows millennial expatriate academics to balance their work and personal lives.
- Recognize their effort and provide them with guidance and regular feedback on their performance.
- Promote collaboration by encouraging group and teamwork.

- Provide support in their career growth and groom them for leadership positions.
- Provide tailored-made benefits and rewards that meet the needs of millennial expatriate academics.

### **7.3.3 DEVELOPING SOUND RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION STRATEGIES**

The recruitment and selection of expatriates are complex processes whose outcomes can give hints on the applicant's adaptability and resilience levels to remain with the organisation. Therefore, the top management of the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand should use a strategic approach with set criteria during the recruitment and selection process in order to assess and evaluate the expectations of expatriate academics. For instance, adopting a Universalist strategic approach during the recruitment and selection process can help the Human Resource Management of both HE Institutions to select the best expatriate academics for the job. Furthermore, the implementation of a strategic approach may also help uncover the profiles of expatriate academics job-seekers, either as Explorer, Mercenary, Architect or Refugee as defined by Richardson and McKenna (2002:71). This can ultimately predict if an expatriate academic will remain with the institution for a substantial time period.

### **7.3.4 ENHANCING EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS' JOB SATISFACTION**

The findings revealed that many expatriate academics were not satisfied with their salaries. The rewards they received were not fair. Thus, to enhance the job satisfaction of expatriate academics, the top management of both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand should implement the following suggestions:

- Offering *competitive remuneration packages* to their expatriate academics. The top management of the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand should benchmark to determine how other HE Institutions remunerated their international academics.
- Developing and implementing *effective compensation systems* that are attractive and tailored to different categories of expatriate academics. For instance, competency-related pay and contribution-related pay frameworks could be designed and adopted by the Human Resource Management departments of

both institutions. These types of compensation systems reflect fairness in terms of pay and rewards as they entail remunerating an expatriate academic according to his or her performance. Armstrong (2014:91) states that both competency-related pay and contribution-related pay provide for employees to be paid according to the results they produce and to their level of competence.

- Promoting *open communication* with expatriate academics and timeously renegotiating the compensation package with expatriate academics in order to meet their expectations and keep them satisfied.
- Engaging expatriate academics with *their job* as well as with their institutions. The top management of both HE Institutions should recognize, value and discuss the knowledge, skills and talents that expatriate academics bring to the institution. Armstrong (2014:196) contends that engaged employees are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs.
- Formulating and implementing rewards policies that are *fair, attractive and customized* to suit the expectations of expatriate academics. Furthermore, the top management of the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand should also ensure that the promotion of their staff is based on merit.
- Promoting *participation and involvement* of expatriate academics in the strategic decisions of the institution to increase their job satisfaction and ultimately deter the intention to leave the institution.

### **7.3.5 REVIEW OF PROMOTIONAL POLICIES**

The results of this study indicated that many expatriate academics felt that they had very little opportunities for promotion. Furthermore, this study found that many of them were employed in junior positions, even though most of them were PhD holders. This therefore calls for the review of the promotion policies in the two Universities under study for the enhancement of fairness, job satisfaction and career growth of their expatriate academics employees.

### **7.3.6 IMPROVING EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS' LEVEL OF COMMITMENT TO THEIR INSTITUTIONS**

A significant number of expatriate academics (40.8%) indicated that their institution was not the best place to work. Likewise, a considerable number of expatriate academics (77.6%) stated that they do not care about the fate of their institutions. These declarations should prompt the top management of both institutions to firstly identify the causes of the lack of commitment amongst expatriate academics and thereafter develop strategies to improve and enhance the levels of commitment of expatriate academics to their institutions. The top management of both institutions should also foster a culture of trust and openness that promotes communication and encourages expatriate academics to voice their opinions. This could provide valuable insights and reasons on why there is a significant lack of commitment amongst expatriate academics in these two HE Institutions.

### **7.3.7 IMPLEMENTATION OF SOUND TALENT RETENTION STRATEGIES**

The study revealed that many expatriate academics felt that the strategies to manage and retain talents were insufficient. They mentioned that the pay did not correlate with their inputs and that they received little recognition for their efforts. Furthermore, leaders were not motivating. The retention of talented academics is a growing concern for many HE Institutions. Employing talented academics appears to be one of the critical factors for the growth and the reputation of universities. Moreover, with the internationalisation of institutions, having skilled international academics constitutes a competitive advantage (Van Damme, 2001:418). Thus, the top management of the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand should develop and implement adequate retention strategies that will enhance the commitment, engagement and job satisfaction of expatriate academics, hence deterring their turnover intentions. The retention of skilled expatriate academics should be regarded as a process that begins from their recruitment to their exit, which involves not only the top management, but line management as well as the expatriate academics themselves. However, the process of attracting and retaining talented expatriate academics should be mainly co-ordinated by the Human Resource Management department of the above-mentioned institutions. Thus, the top management of both HE Institutions should align the following strategies for the retention of their talented expatriate academics:

- Implementing adequate and objective monetary (competitive pay and bonuses) and non-monetary incentives (work schedules, flexible hours, paid sabbaticals, etc.) to motivate their talented expatriate academics.
- Recognizing expatriate academics with critical skills and acknowledging those that have made a valuable contribution to the institution. Such recognition may include providing attractive incentives such as bonuses, annual increments, awards, etc.
- Fostering a servant leadership style of management to promote a culture of trust, fairness, openness, empathy and participation. The servant leadership style not only leads to a high retention of employees (Caffey, 2012), but also reduces turnover intentions (Ng, Long and Soehod, 2016:103).
- Formulating and implementing talent development programmes such as mentoring, coaching and the regular monitoring of developmental activities that aim at developing and enhancing the career growth of expatriate academics.
- Providing and empowering informal learning interventions to enhance the skills of expatriate academics and to foster an appropriate learning culture.
- Designing customized retention programmes to fit the needs and expectations of each expatriate academic. Thus, the top management of both HE Institutions should promote informal meetings between line managers and expatriate academics, as well as provide regular performance appraisals in which the appraisers can identify the needs and aspirations of the expatriate academic. Furthermore, the top management of the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand should conduct periodic retention surveys in order to develop strategies that may prevent talented expatriate academics from leaving the institution.
- Promoting an 'open-door' policy that entails openness, communication, inclusiveness, transparency and engagement of staff.

- Providing equal opportunity in the employment of both male and female expatriate academics, as the study found that very few women expatriate academics were employed in both HE Institutions.
- Employing expatriate academics on a permanent basis to enhance their commitment and deter their turnover intention as the study found that many of them were employed on limited contract.

### **7.3.8 PROMOTION OF THE EMPLOYMENT OF FEMALE EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS**

The study found that very few female expatriate academics (18%) were employed in both HE institutions under study. Although the study examined the turnover intention of expatriate academics in general, it was found that female expatriate academics consulted job advertisements less than male expatriate academics. As a result, the top management of both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand should attract female expatriate academics as much as they can for gender balance, equity and stability.

### **7.3.9 INVOLVEMENT OF THE INTERNATIONAL OFFICES IN THE ADJUSTMENT OF EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS**

The International Offices of both HE Institutions should contribute to the management of expatriate academics. Even though expatriate academics claimed to be well adjusted in the host country, their spouses were not satisfied with the healthcare facilities and the cost of living of the host country. Given the impact that the expatriate's spouse has in the success of the expatriate assignment, the International Offices of the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand should provide information about the healthcare facilities and the cost of living to facilitate the adjustment of expatriate academics and families.

### **7.3.10 IMPLEMENTING DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMMES FOR LOCAL ACADEMICS**

The empirical findings revealed that many expatriate academics showed high intentions to leave as the majority of respondents indicated that they did not have a strong desire to continue working in their present Institutions. Thus, the management of both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand should adopt a proactive approach with a policy framework approved by Senate. This should also include implementing development programmes such as mentoring, coaching and training that will attract, prepare and enable many aspiring local academics to take up academic positions in HE institutions in South Africa.

### **7.3.11 CONDUCTING EXIT INTERVIEWS ON EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS**

It would be advisable for both the HE Institutions under study (UKZN and UNIZUL) to embark on exit interviews of expatriate academics. Exit interviews will provide more insight into and a better understanding of the perceptions of expatriate academics intention to leave. Thus, they can take strategic remedial action in relation to recruitment, management and retention of expatriate academics. In this way the expatriate academics will be well informed and more importantly remain committed with their current positions in these two HE Institutions and they would feel valued. The researcher expresses this recommendation with caution as other HE institutions in South Africa may already have strategies for expatriate academics' retention in place as this study only focussed on the two HE Institutions in KwaZulu-Natal (i.e. UKZN and UNIZUL).

## **7.4 DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

The main significant finding of this study was that the turnover intentions of expatriate academics were high. Consequently, that may have affected their job satisfaction and their level of commitment to their institutions. Thus, further research can be undertaken in both HE Institutions to identify the factors that could affect job satisfaction, as well as on the commitment of expatriate academics. Furthermore, the turnover theories and models hypothesized on many factors that predicted turnover intentions. However, this study only assessed eight (8) of these factors. Thus, a future study can be conducted to examine the impact that other factors such as local economic



conditions, collegiality, professionalism, kinship responsibility, etc. have on expatriate academics' turnover intentions.

Additionally, the present study was confined to two HE Institutions in South Africa, i.e. UKZN and UNIZUL. Therefore, further comparative studies can be undertaken on expatriate academics employed in other HE Institutions in South Africa.

This study found that job satisfaction was the main predictor that impacted on the turnover intentions of expatriate academics. Given this new environment under which HE Institutions in South Africa are faced, for example, the fees must fall campaign by students and staff protests for higher salary, could play a mitigating role for retaining expatriate academics in HE Institutions in South Africa. It would therefore prove useful to conduct further research on how the top management of HE Institutions in South Africa manage these challenges and their symbiotic impact on the job satisfaction of expatriate academics and their retention at the same Institution.

Furthermore, other predictors such as the role of transformation in the HE Institutions could also be investigated and how this variable together with other predictors could influence top management in relation to the retention of expatriate academics in HE Institution in South Africa.

Future research may also be carried out to overcome some of the limitations of this research study. Thus, given the use of the quantitative design adopted in this study, a qualitative method using one-on-one interviews or focussed group interviews (i.e. the use of the mixed methods approach) with an Interviewing Schedule can be used as an important tool to provide probing insights and to uncover other factors that influence expatriate academics' turnover intentions.

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## Annexure A

### LETTER OF INFORMATION

**Title of the Research Study:** An Exploratory Study on The Predictors of Turnover Intentions Among Expatriate Academics and Talent Retention Strategies at Selected Universities in Kwazulu-Natal in South Africa

**Principal Investigator/s/researcher:** Edwige Pauline Ngo Henha

**Co-Investigator/s/supervisor/s:** Prof D.C. Jinabhai

<b>ASSISTANCE: QUESTIONNAIRE COMPLETION – RESEARCH</b>
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Dear Respondent,

I am currently undertaking a research project as part of my studies towards a PHD in Human Resources Management at the Durban University of Technology. I humbly request your assistance in completing the attached questionnaire entitled: **An Exploratory Study On The Predictors Of Turnover Intentions Among Expatriate Academics And Talent Retention Strategies At Selected Universities In Kwazulu-Natal In South Africa.**

The aim of the study is to assess the perceived factors affecting turnover intention of expatriate academics at selected higher education institutions in KZN, in order to propose new retention and talent management strategies in an attempt to contribute towards solving the problem of the high costs associated with the turnover of expatriate academics.

I shall be most grateful if you could please complete the attached questionnaire and return same to me as I would be personally collecting the completed questionnaire returns. The questionnaire would take about 10-15 minutes to complete and only requires you to tick the relevant pre-coded response in an objective manner. Please answer all questions and do not leave any blank. Please be assured that your responses will be treated with the utmost confidentiality and will not be divulged to any other party. Your name should not be mentioned on the questionnaire and you will remain anonymous. Your participation is merely voluntary and there is no coercion or undue influence in completing this questionnaire. In addition, the responses to the questionnaire, once collated, will be used for statistical purposes only. I shall personally collect the questionnaires once completed. (Or if it was mailed: Please return the completed questionnaire at your earliest convenience in the self-addressed envelope to the researcher).

Your co-operation in assisting me with this important component of my study is highly appreciated and I look forward to a speedy return of the questionnaire. If there are any queries, please do not hesitate to contact me or my supervisor Prof Dinesh Jinabhai on 031 373 6798 or Jinabhai@dut.ac.za I take this opportunity of again thanking you in advance in for enabling me to complete this research project. Many thanks and kind regards.

Sincerely,

Mrs P.E. NGO HENHA (0836708065/0313736796)/ PaulineEyono@yahoo.com

## Questionnaire+

**Topic:** AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF THE PREDICTORS OF TURNOVER INTENTIONS AMONG EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS AND TALENT RETENTION STRATEGIES AT SELECTED UNIVERSITIES IN KWAZULU-NATAL, SOUTH AFRICA

### Instructions to Respondents

**(All responses will be treated in the strictest confidence)**

1. Place one tick (v) for each question/statement.
2. Answer all questions/statements.
3. Please do not leave questions or statements blank.
4. The questions/ statements are rated in the Likert scale below, ranging from strongly disagree **1** to strongly agree **5**. Select and tick one response only.

**1= Strongly disagree (SD)**

**2= Disagree (D)**

**3= Neutral (N)**

**4= Agree (A)**

**5= Strongly agree (SA)**

## Section A

### **1. Individual Characteristics**

**Instruction:** Please place a tick (v) in the appropriate block

#### **1. Age (in years)**

1.1	20-29	1
1.2	30- 39	2
1.3	40-49	3
1.4	50-59	4
1.5	60+	5

#### **2. Gender**

2.1	Male	1
2.2	Female	2

#### **3. Institution**

3.1	UKZN	1
3.2	UNIZUL	2

#### **4. Highest Qualification**

4.1	Undergraduate	1
4.2	Honours degree	2
4.3	Masters degree	3
4.4	Doctoral degree	4

#### **5. Marital status**

5.1	Single	1
5.2	Married	2
5.3	Divorced	3
5.4	Widowed	4

**6. Number of years in the institution**

6.1	0-3	1
6.2	4-6	2
6.3	7-9	3
6.4	10+	4

**7. Tenure status**

7.1	Permanent	1
7.2	Temporary	2
7.3	Contract	3

**8. Number of years in Academia**

8.1	0-2 years	1
8.2	3-4 years	2
8.3	5-6 years	3
8.4	7-8 years	4
8.5	9+ years	5

**9. Academic Rank**

9.1	Professor	1
9.2	Senior Lecturer	2
9.3	Lecturer	3
9.4	Researcher only	4

**10. Origin**

10.1	African (SADC)	1
10.2	African (non SADC)	2
10.3	Others	3

**SADC:** Southern African Development Community

**UKZN:** University of KwaZulu-Natal

**UNIZUL:** University of Zululand

## **Section B**

### **11. Institution's Characteristics**

The following statements assess how you perceive/describe your institution. Please state how strongly you agree or disagree with the statements below.

No	STATEMENT	SD 1	D 2	N 3	A 4	SA 5
11.1	My Institution is quite big.					
11.2	My Institution has a very good reputation.					
11.3	My Institution is quite diverse.					
11.4	My Institution is very unionized.					
11.5	My institution is highly decentralized.					
11.6	My Institution offers many subsidies and benefits to its staff, including expatriate academics.					
11.7	My institution has a friendly internal environment.					

### **12. Turnover intention**

The following statements assess if you intend to leave your present institution within the next year. Please state how strongly you agree or disagree with the statements below.

No.	STATEMENT	SD 1	D 2	N 3	A 4	SA 5
12.1	I intend to leave my present institution.					
12.2	I have a strong personal desire to continue working for my current institution. (R)					
12.3	I would be reluctant to leave this institution. (R)					
12.4	Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave this institution before I retire. (R)					
12.5	If I had a choice, I would leave my current institution as soon as I can.					
12.6	I usually consult job advertisements.					
12.7	I always subscribe to recruitment networks.					
12.8	I always update my CV in anticipation of a new job opportunity.					

### 13. Cultural and Social adjustment

The statements below require you to agree or disagree with how well you and your family have adjusted in the host country with regard to living conditions, healthcare facilities, local food, spousal job opportunities, children's education, interaction with host country nationals and the cost of living.

No.	STATEMENT	SD 1	D 2	N 3	A 4	SA 5
13.1	I am well adjusted to the living conditions of the host country.					
13.2	The healthcare facilities in the host country are accessible.					
13.3	I enjoy local food as it tastes the same as my home food.					
13.4	The cost of living in the host country is cheaper than at home.					
13.5	I interact well with country nationals as they are friendly to interact with.					
13.6	My spouse/partner has adjusted to the local food.					
13.7	My spouse/partner is satisfied with the healthcare					
13.8	My spouse/partner interacts well with host nationals.					
13.9	My children enjoy their new school.					
13.10	My children have made many friends in their new school.					
13.11	Overall, my family and I are well adjusted to the host country.					



## 14. Job Satisfaction

Please indicate the extent to which you are satisfied with the implementation of policies and practices in your institution with regards to salary, promotion, workload, autonomy, rewards and career advancement.

No.	STATEMENT	SD	D	N	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
14.1	I am satisfied with my current prospects for job advancement in my institution.					
14.2	My institution helps me to pursue my personal growth.					
14.3	I have too little chance for promotion in my institution. (R)					
14.4	The policies and practices in my institution have increased my chances of job retention.					
14.5	There is capable administration in my institution.					
14.6	I am satisfied with my current salary.					
14.7	The rewards I receive in my institution are quite fair.					
14.8	My immediate supervisor treats staff fairly.					
14.9	My required workload reduces the quality of performance. (R)					

## 15. Organisational Commitment

The statements below assess the extent to which you are loyal to your institution.

No.	STATEMENT	SD	D	N	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
15.1	I am proud to tell others I am part of this institution.					
15.2	I am not dedicated to this institution. (R)					
15.3	I speak highly of this institution to my friends.					
15.4	This institution inspires the very best job performance from me.					
15.5	This institution is the best of all possible places to work.					
15.6	This institution's values are not the same as mine. (R)					
15.7	I do not care about the fate of the institution. (R)					

## 16. Perceived Job opportunity

The statements below assess your perception on job opportunities beyond your institution.

No.	STATEMENT	SD	D	N	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
16.1	There are quite many good academic jobs that I could apply for.					
16.2	Given the state of the academic job market, finding a job would be very difficult for me. (R)					
16.3	It would be difficult for me to find an academic job that I like as well as my job at this institution. (R)					
16.4	There is at least one good academic job that I could begin immediately if I were to leave this institution.					

## 17. Organizational justice (Procedural and Interactional justice)

Please state the extent to which you think top management treats staff with politeness, dignity, respect and explain to employees why procedures are used in a certain way or why outcomes are distributed in a certain fashion.

No.	STATEMENT	SD	D	N	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
17.1	My institution has formal channels in place that allow employees to express their views and opinions before decisions are made.					
17.2	Formal procedures exist in my institution to ensure that officials do not allow personal biases to affect their decisions.					
17.3	There are formal means by which employees in my institution can challenge decisions that they feel are erroneous.					
17.4	My institution has formal procedures to ensure that officials have accurate information on which to base their decisions.					
17.5	My immediate supervisor treats me in a polite manner.					
17.6	My immediate supervisor treats me with dignity.					
17.7	My immediate supervisor treats me with respect.					
17.8	My immediate supervisor refrains from improper remarks					

## 18. Adequacy of the retention strategies of the Institution

Please state the extent to which you feel that the retention strategies of your institution are adequate or not.

No.	STATEMENT	SD	D	N	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
18.1	My institution is making provision for better career paths.					
18.2	I feel that career promotion is based on merit					
18.3	My institution provides better pay in correlation with the effort I put in.					
18.4	My institution offers better pay in comparison with other institutions.					
18.5	My institution offers perks, allowances and other fringe benefits that are up to my expectations.					
18.6	I feel that top management always listens to the concerns of employees.					
18.7	The terms and conditions of my job bring on better safety and security.					
18.8	I feel that achievements at work are well recognized.					
18.9	The leaders in this institution are very supportive.					
18.10	I feel that the management leadership is motivating.					
18.11	This institution has sufficient talent management policies.					
18.12	There is sufficient cultural diversity in this institution.					

**Thank you for your participation**



## Annexure C

### CONSENT

#### Statement of Agreement to Participate in the Research Study:

- I hereby confirm that I have been informed by the researcher, \_\_\_\_\_ (name of researcher), about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of this study - Research Ethics Clearance Number: \_\_\_\_\_,
- I have also received, read and understood the above written information (Participant Letter of Information) regarding the study.
- I am aware that the results of the study, including personal details regarding my sex, age, date of birth, initials and diagnosis will be anonymously processed into a study report.
- In view of the requirements of research, I agree that the data collected during this study can be processed in a computerised system by the researcher.
- I may, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw my consent and participation in the study.
- I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and (of my own free will) declare myself prepared to participate in the study.
- I understand that significant new findings developed during the course of this research which may relate to my participation will be made available to me.

\_\_\_\_\_

**Name (Optional/Not compulsory)**

**Date**

**Time**

**Signature**

I, Pauline, herewith confirm that the above participant has been fully informed about the nature, conduct and risks of the above study.

**Full Name of Researcher**

**Date**

**Signature**

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

**Full Name of Witness (If applicable)**

**Date**

**Signature**

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

**Full Name of Legal Guardian (If applicable)**

**Date**

**Signature**

## Annexure D



28 January 2016

Mrs PE Ngo Henha Epse Eyono  
Faculty of Management Sciences  
DUT  
Email: [paulinen@dut.ac.za](mailto:paulinen@dut.ac.za)

Dear Mrs Eyono

### RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Gatekeeper's permission is hereby granted for you to conduct research at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN), provided Ethical clearance (from UKZN) has been obtained. We note the title of your research project is:

*"An exploratory study on the predictor of turnover intentions among expatriate academics and talent retention strategies at selected Universities in KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa".*

It is noted that you will be constituting your sample by handing out questionnaires to foreign academic staff members at UKZN.

Please ensure that the following appears on your notice/questionnaire:

- Ethical clearance number;
- Research title and details of the research, the researcher and the supervisor;
- Consent form is attached to the notice/questionnaire and to be signed by user before he/she fills in questionnaire;
- gatekeepers approval by the Registrar.

You are not authorized to contact staff and students using 'Microsoft Outlook' address book.

Data collected must be treated with due confidentiality and anonymity.

Yours sincerely

  
**MR SS MOKOENA**  
**REGISTRAR**

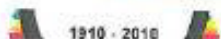
---

#### Office of the Registrar

Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban, South Africa

Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 8005/2206 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 7824/2204 Email: [registrar@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:registrar@ukzn.ac.za)

Website: [www.ukzn.ac.za](http://www.ukzn.ac.za)



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## Annexure E



**UNIVERSITY OF  
ZULULAND**

University of Zululand, Private Bag X1001, KwaDlangezwa, 3886

W: [www.unizulu.ac.za](http://www.unizulu.ac.za)

T: +27 35 902 6887 F: +27 86 616 7707 E: [ManqeleS@unizulu.ac.za](mailto:ManqeleS@unizulu.ac.za)

*Deputy Vice-Chancellor: Research and Innovation Office*

Mrs. Pauline Edwige Ngo Henha  
Department of Human Resource Management  
Faculty of Management & Sciences  
Durban University of Technology  
Per email: [paulinen@dut.ac.za](mailto:paulinen@dut.ac.za)

14 June 2017

Dear Mrs. Ngo Henha

**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT UNIZULU "AN EXPLORATORY STUDY ON THE PREDICTORS OF TURNOVER INTENTIONS AMONG EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS AND TALENT RETENTION STRATEGIES AT SELECTED UNIVERSITIES IN KWAZULU-NATALA IN SOUTH AFRICA"**

Your letter to me, dated 01 June 2017, refers.

I hereby grant approval for you to conduct part of your research at UNIZULU, as per the methodologies stated in your research proposal and in terms of the data collection instruments that you have submitted. I note also that the Durban University of Technology, has issued an ethical clearance certificate and having read the documentation, I am happy to accept that certificate.

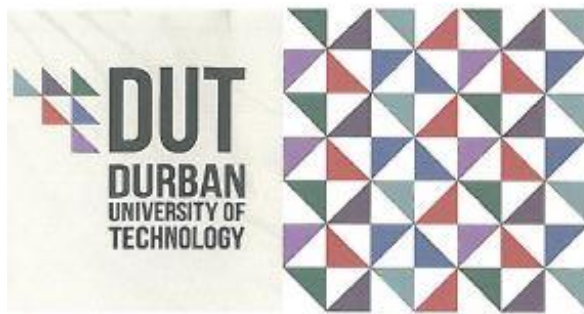
You may use this letter as authorization when you approach the appropriate persons. Please note that permission is based on the documentation that you have submitted. Should you revise your research instruments, or use additional instruments, you must submit those to us as well.

I wish you well in your research.

Yours sincerely,

  
Professor Gideon De Wet  
Chairperson: University of Zululand Research Ethics Committee  
Deputy Vice-Chancellor: Research and Innovation  
cc: Mr. D Van Rensburg- Registrar  
cc: Mr. M Kheswa – Deputy Registrar Secretariat & Policy Development





Institutional Research Ethics Committee  
Research and Postgraduate Support Directorate  
2<sup>nd</sup> Floor, Berwyn Court  
Gate 1, Steve Biko Campus  
Durban University of Technology

P O Box 1334, Durban, South Africa, 4001

Tel: 031 373 2375  
Email: [lwishod@dut.ac.za](mailto:lwishod@dut.ac.za)  
[http://www.dut.ac.za/research/institutional\\_research\\_ethics](http://www.dut.ac.za/research/institutional_research_ethics)  
[www.dut.ac.za](http://www.dut.ac.za)

1 June 2017

IREC Reference Number: **REC 30/17**

Mrs P E Ngo Henha  
21 Florence Road  
Sarnia  
Pinetown

Dear Mrs Ngo Henha

**AN EXPLORATORY STUDY ON THE PREDICTORS OF TURNOVER INTENTIONS  
AMONG EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS AND TALENT RETENTION STRATEGIES AT  
SELECTED UNIVERSITIES IN KWAZULU-NATAL IN SOUTH AFRICA**

I am pleased to inform you that Provisional Approval has been granted to your proposal REC 30/17 subject to:

- Piloting of the data collection tool and
- Obtaining and submitting the necessary gatekeeper permission/s to the IREC.

Full approval is subject to meeting the above conditions.

The Proposal has been allocated the following Ethical Clearance number **IREC 038/17**. Please use this number in all communication with this office.

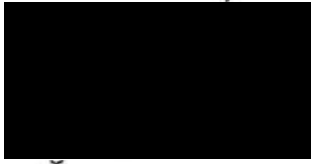
Approval has been granted for a period of two years, before the expiry of which you are required to apply for safety monitoring and annual recertification. Please use the Safety Monitoring and Annual Recertification Report form which can be found in the Standard Operating Procedures [SOP's] of the IREC. This form must be submitted to the IREC at least 3 months before the ethics approval for the study expires.

Any adverse events [serious or minor] which occur in connection with this study and/or which may alter its ethical consideration must be reported to the IREC according to the IREC SOP's.

Please note that any deviations from the approved proposal require the approval of the IREC as outlined in the IREC SOP's.

**Please note that you may continue with validity testing and piloting of the data collection tool. Research on the proposed project may not proceed until IREC reviews and approves the final document. If there are no changes to the data collection tool, kindly notify the IREC in writing.**

Yours Sincerely



Professor J K Adam  
Chairperson: IREC





**RELIABILITY**

```

/VARIABLES=B11.1 B11.2 B11.3 B11.4 B11.5 B.11.6 B.11.7
/SCALE('InstitutionCharacteristis') ALL
/MODEL=ALPHA.

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**Scale: InstitutionCharacteristis**Scale: InstitutionCharacteristis - Case Processing Summary

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	125	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	125	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

**Scale: InstitutionCharacteristis**Scale: InstitutionCharacteristis - Reliability Statistics

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.738	7

**RELIABILITY**

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**Scale: TurnoverIntention**Scale: TurnoverIntention - Case Processing Summary

Case Processing Summary

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Cases	Valid	125	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	125	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

## Scale: TurnoverIntention

### Scale: TurnoverIntention - Reliability Statistics

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
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#### RELIABILITY

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## Scale: Adjustment

### Scale: Adjustment - Case Processing Summary

Case Processing Summary

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Cases	Valid	125	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	125	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

## Scale: Adjustment

### Scale: Adjustment - Reliability Statistics

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.814	11

#### RELIABILITY

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/MODEL=ALPHA.
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## Scale: Job Satisfaction

### Scale: Job Satisfaction - Case Processing Summary

Case Processing Summary

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Cases	Valid	125	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	125	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

## Scale: Job Satisfaction

### Scale: Job Satisfaction - Reliability Statistics

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
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#### RELIABILITY

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## Scale: Commitment

### Scale: Commitment - Case Processing Summary

Case Processing Summary

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Cases	Valid	125	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	125	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

## Scale: Commitment

### Scale: Commitment - Reliability Statistics

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
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## RELIABILITY

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/MODEL=ALPHA.
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## Scale: Job opportuniies

Scale: Job opportuniies - Case Processing Summary

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	125	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	125	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

## Scale: Job opportuniies

Scale: Job opportuniies - Reliability Statistics

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
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## RELIABILITY

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## Scale: OrganizationalJustice

Scale: OrganizationalJustice - Case Processing Summary

Case Processing Summary

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	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	125	100.0

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## Scale: OrganizationalJustice

### Scale: OrganizationalJustice - Reliability Statistics

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
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#### RELIABILITY

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## Scale: RetentionStrategies

### Scale: RetentionStrategies - Case Processing Summary

Case Processing Summary

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	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	125	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

## Scale: RetentionStrategies

### Scale: RetentionStrategies - Reliability Statistics

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
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