UNIVERSITY OF STIRLING

EMPLOYEE RETENTION STRATEGIES, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS.

BY

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Dedication

To my late parents, Aroni Bwadene Lwagula Masiga and Mary Macho Bwadene; and my children, Victor Enoch Wanyama Masiga, Mary Angel Macho Budakha, Aaron Bwadene Junior Wanyama, and Abel Wesonga Wanyama.

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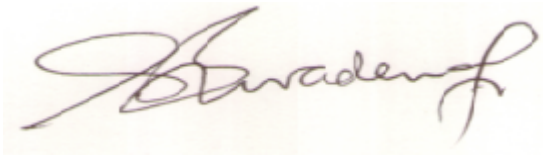
Declaration

I *Seperia Bwadene Wanyama* do declare that this is my own original PhD work, and it has never been submitted to any other institution for any award. Due acknowledgement in form of citation of authorities has been duly done where other people's ideas have been used.

Signed: 

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Abstract

The retention of employees is a particular challenge for organizations in developing economies and elsewhere. This thesis examines employee retention strategies, organizational commitment and turnover intentions. While focusing on Uganda, its results are considered to be more generally applicable to both developing and developed economies. Retention varies with context, and therefore requires a context relevant model with adaptive features for general application. The study enquired into: the main components of a general model for employee retention; the factors that explain turnover intention and how such factors are related to turnover intention; variation in turnover intentions; and the results of applying the model in Uganda.

The study employed a systematic literature review, and exploratory sequential mixed-methods as supported by the pragmatic paradigm. A sample of 26 key informants was selected purposively for in-depth qualitative interviews, while 387 (64.5%) out of a survey sample of 600 employees selected using multi-stage cluster and systematic sampling across the public, the private, and the NGO sectors, responded. The results reveal some unique factors for the model of employee retention. Such factors include job entry and on-the job retention strategies, emotional and occupational job demands, emotional and occupational engagement, and moral, emotional and continuance commitment. It also confirms others such as, perceived organizational and supervisor support. On-the-job retention strategies, perceived organizational support, supervisor support, emotional job demands, emotional engagement, job satisfaction, moral and emotional commitment, are significantly correlated with and also predict turnover intentions. Job-entry strategies, skill discretion, co-worker support, employee expectations, occupational job demands, occupational engagement and continuance commitment; are all correlated to, but not associated with turnover intentions. Decision authority is positively and significantly associated with turnover intentions. The overall model explains 52% of the variation in turnover intentions.

The thesis contributes to the development of the methodology of systematic literature reviews with regard to systematic literature search. It also provides a context adaptive model emphasizing the national, organizational and individual variables, for general application. It further contributes to the knowledge of employee retention, retention strategies, employee perceptions, job satisfaction, employee engagement and organizational commitment, from a developing country context. Trust and control are emphasized if decision-making is to have meaningful influence on turnover intentions, while the state of the person in terms of emotional feelings, and the nature of the work in terms of the occupation, are important for job demands and employee engagement. Further studies to validate the findings in other contexts, and time-lag studies to establish actual turnover are recommended.

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1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 1.1 Introduction

This study examines employee retention strategies, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions in a developing country context. While specific reference is to the Uganda's public, private, and NGO sectors, with particular emphasis on the health and education industries, the study develops a general model that can apply to both the developing and developed economies. Most of the organizations simply focus on the development of standard HR systems and processes (Lwamafa 2008) yet, retention generally goes beyond simply creating documented optimal HR practices and systems, to focusing on factors that affect employee retention (Budhwar and Bhatnagar 2007). This can be effectively achieved when such factors enhance organizational commitment by building a strong bond between the employees and their organizations, to influence turnover intentions and subsequently actual retention (Mellor et al. 2001; Meyer and Parfyonova 2010).

Retention factors vary with context, sector, and organization, as well as individual factors (Juhdi et al. 2013). In Uganda, Mitala (2003) reveals that the reforms in the civil service have resulted into loss of job security in its traditionally perceived sense of continuity in employment, while Lwamafa (2008) decries low pay as causing staff not to devote all their energies to the service of the public as they seek other means to supplement their pay. The private sector, on the other hand, although perceived to be paying relatively better, often has limited opportunities for career progression, security of tenure, terminal benefits and pensions (Lwamafa 2008), all of which are also decried in the voluntary sector (Nickson et al. 2008), thereby affecting employee retention.

The overall aim of this study is to understand employee retention by particularly examining retention strategies, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover/retention in a developing country context. The remainder of this chapter provides the theoretical background (1.2), empirical context (1.3), the research problem (1.4), aims, objectives and research questions (1.5), and an outline/structure of the thesis (1.6).

1.2 Theoretical Background

A theoretical gap exists in explaining organizational commitment and employee retention generally across contexts, but most specifically in developing economies such as Uganda. Firstly, most of the reviewed models are reported to originate from the developed world, which is a different context from that of the developing economies. There are differences in both organizational and societal cultures, as well as

organizational practices and strategies (Ko et al. 1997; Lee et al. 2001; Wang et al. 2011). Differences also exist in individual aspects such as kinship responsibility, education qualifications, age and sex compositions; all of which explain variations in attitudes and behaviours (de Reuver and van Woerkom 2010; Elst et al. 2011; Karatepe and Demir 2014). This necessitates having models that are relevant to the developing world (Frimousse et al. 2012) and with adaptability features.

Secondly, the conditions, processes and practices in the public, the private, and the NGO sectors differ, yet most theories/ models and studies focus on either the private (Mignonac and Richebe 2013; Robinson and Reio Jr. 2012) or the public sector (Brunetto et al. 2012b). Very few studies that have been available to the researcher, focus on the NGO sector (Alatrista and Arrowsmith 2004; Hurrell et al. 2011; Nickson et al. 2008). A few studies have further combined the public and the private sectors (Brunetto et al. 2012a; Major et al. 2013); while hardly any study has developed and tested a model or simply examined employee turnover intention and/ or organization commitment in all the three sectors (Tumwesigye 2010). Kamoche (2002) for example emphasizes the need for organizations to consider specific circumstances of their workforce in the design and implementation of HR strategies and pactices.

Thirdly, some models such as the three-component model continue to receive concerns over conceptualization. For example, it is pointed out that organizational identification and organizational commitment have been used together in both definitions and measurements, yet the two are different constructs, thereby affecting results (Edwards 2005). The three-component model of organizational commitment (Allen and Meyer 1990; Allen and Meyer 1996; Meyer and Allen 1991) reveals varying findings in its application (Jaros 1997; Jaros and Culpepper 2014). Some studies have examined the two sub-components of continuance commitment (high sacrifice and low alternatives) as independent components in addition to affective and normative commitment hence producing four-components (Blau 2009; Iverson and Buttigieg 1999). At the same time suggestions exist for dropping low alternatives as a sub-component (and from the measurement scale), to considering it as an antecedent of continuance commitment (Lee et al. 2001; Powell and Meyer 2004). On the same note, the correlations or associations across the three components pose concerns about the independence of the different components, with some scholars (Jaros 1997; Solinger et al. 2008) considering only affective commitment as the real meaning of organizational commitment. Variations also exist in application of the model across different contexts (Lee et al. 2001), and in a few studies in the developing world (Addae et al. 2008; Karatepe 2013a), hence not being a general model (Solinger et al. 2008).

Fourthly, some models especially High-Performance Work Systems (HPWS) and Job demands-resources (JD-R) model are perceived to have indirect effects, and being unsupportive of employees (Jensen et al. 2013; Kehoe and Wright 2013; Kroon et al. 2009). Effects of employee experiences of unfriendly and highly demanding situations are reported as affecting job satisfaction, employee engagement, and thus organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Social exchange theories on their part have been criticised for ignoring the social context that imposes limitations on people's behaviours (Brunetto et al. 2012a; Chen et al. 2014). Treating people with expectation for reciprocity is seen as resulting in perceptions of unending obligations as opposed to support without hidden intentions, which is likely to be perceived as being more genuine to the beneficiaries. Overall, positive reports of employee attitudes and behaviours have only been evident where employees are empowered, given job control and autonomy, yet these are seen as being eroded under some of the models, for example JD-R, and HPWS that are said to be mainly exploitative of employees (Jensen et al. 2013; Kehoe and Wright 2013; Kroon et al. 2009).

Lastly, a few of the studies and models focusing on turnover intention/turnover and retention do not examine the mechanisms through which employees can be influenced by strategies to actually stay (Meyer et al. 1993; Yalabik et al. 2013), with different key employee attitudes such as perceptions and job satisfaction being emphasised in the study of employee behaviours (Blau 2009; Iverson and Buttigieg 1999). Consideration of different retention strategies such as job entry, and on-the-job retention strategies, and how such strategies are perceived to influence employee attitudes, for example job satisfaction, employee engagement and organizational commitment is important in understanding the behavioural outcome across different contexts.

1.3 Empirical Context

Employee turnover has ills such as loss of key skills, costs of recruitment and training, disruption in normal routine, and loss of institutional memory. The importance of focusing on retention strategies in retaining valuable employees is emphasized mainly in the developed world (Hom and Xiao 2011; Ito et al. 2013). Although Allen and Meyer (1996) posit that commitment in all its three components has direct implications for employees' stay with an organization through employees' strong attachment to, identification with, and loyalty to an organization, and while some studies establish significant relationships supporting this line of argument (Meyer et al. 1993; Tumwesigye 2010), others do not (Ko et al. 1997; Lee et al. 2001).

Retention and organizational commitment are less researched in the developing economies, a scenario that creates a knowledge gap. Indeed, a few studies originating from the developing world (Addae et al. 2008; Tymon Jr et al. 2011; Whiteoak 2007) together with some from the developed world (Allen and Meyer 1996; Powell and Meyer 2004) have recognized the need for more studies on organizational commitment, turnover intention and retention in the context of developing economies.

There is a challenge of employee retention in Uganda as there is labour exodus across different sectors as job security is no longer assured in the public, the private and, the NGOs. Several reforms of 1992, 1995, and 2005 are cited as having seemingly eroded the traditionally cherished permanent and pensionable terms in the public sector (Mitala 2003), thereby considerably experiencing employee retention challenge comparable to the other two sectors (Lwamafa 2008). This is different from Jiang's (2012) finding that the public sector provides more secure and less risky jobs than the private sector.

Variations in HR practices and strategies across and within the different sectors, ministries and departments (Mitala 2003) have implications for retention thereby creating a need for a holistic focus on the three main employment sectors (the public, the private and the third sector). In Uganda's case as Mitala (2003) recognized, there are longstanding, wide differences in the pay of employees belonging to the different public institutions (such as Government Authorities and Agencies for example, KCCA and the Auditor General Office, vis-à-vis those in the mainstream civil service), yet getting the money from the same source, which greatly undermines retention efforts by the mainstream public service. Lwamafa (2008) on his part demonstrates variations in pay between the private and public service. He revealed that that pay in the Uganda's public service is only 42 percent of the pay in the private sector. This, however, varies across professions or service sectors, for example, the public service pays teachers and nurses better than the private sector (Lwamafa 2008). Every NGO just like the private companies determines its HR policies and pay structure, and hence this results in pay differences.

Additionally, employee perception of retention strategies varies across sectors and departments and thus differently affects employee attitudes and behaviours. Whereas employee perception of strategy is linked to job satisfaction (Back et al. 2011; Kuvaas and Dysvik 2010) as well as employee engagement (Alfes et al. 2013; Karatepe 2013b; Karatepe and Demir 2014), and then to organizational commitment, there are also variations in the association of job satisfaction with employee engagement, and their influence on commitment and turnover intention/turnover (Currivan 1999). For example, staying employees were found to have low satisfaction and commitment in South Africa (Lee and Rwigema 2005), while commitment was established to result in engagement as opposed to the reverse, in the UK (Yalabik et al.

2013). Such variations suggest further studies especially in the developing world (Addae et al. 2008; Frimousse et al. 2012), to unearth the mechanisms through which different HR strategies and practices impact on individual behaviours (Alfes et al. 2013). There are also suggestions to use multiple sources and in-depth data (Alfes et al. 2013; Swailes 2002), and focusing on different sectors (Dewettinck and van Ameijde 2011; Porter et al. 1974). Such empirical accounts and the theoretical gap point to a research problem as expounded upon in the next section.

1.4 Statement of the Problem

A range of concerns including costs of recruitment and training, loss of organizational specific skills and memory, disruption in normal routine, and the effect on organizational competitiveness, have been generally been raised in respect of turnover. Organizations have been accordingly challenged to not only focus on factors believed to cause turnover, but also those believed to affect organizational commitment and employee retention (Budhwar and Bhatnagar 2007; De Vos and Meganck 2008). It is argued that such efforts result in shared values and goals thereby creating a bond between the employees and organizations, and thus employees' willingness to stay longer (Boles et al. 2007).

While there have been studies and explanations linking some of the HR strategies and practices to commitment, and also showing that commitment influences turnover intention and turnover/retention; *firstly*, little is known from the developing world generally and Uganda in particular, yet anecdotal reports indicate that employees are always on the look elsewhere for better terms as there are variations across sectors (Lwamafa, 2008; Mitala, 2003). NGOs for example, are perceived to provide participatory management with flatter and informal structure as opposed to the public and the private sectors. The public service, on the other hand, is believed to provide more job security and continuity in employment, while the private sector is perceived to be paying better salary than the public sector. The stated factors, however, remain points of contention as it is also revealed, for example that jobs in the public service are no longer secure in the traditional sense of permanent and pensionable (Mitala, 2003). *Secondly*, there are variations in theoretical explanations (for example, the three-component model, HPWS, job demand-resources model, and the social exchange theories) across contexts with very limited studies of such models in the developing country context (Frimousse et al. 2012; Ko et al. 1997; Lee et al. 2001). Recommendations are evident for similar studies in the developing world and Sub-Saharan Africa in particular (Addae et al. 2008; Karatepe 2013a).

Thirdly, little attention has been paid to examining the mechanisms through which different retention strategies can result into commitment and thus influence turnover intentions and actual turnover.

Employee perception of retention strategies has been emphasized, yet it has also been observed that management's actual implementation of any strategy may actually vary from the initial intention (Kehoe; Alfes et al., 2013). *Fourthly*, the NGO sector has been given limited attention in available literature, yet it has developed into a formidable employment sector amidst general concerns of organizational commitment and employee retention (Alatrista and Arrowsmith 2004; Tumwesigye 2010). Understanding retention strategies and their effectiveness as well as other attitudinal factors in explaining turnover intention in a comparative study involving the three employment sectors is strongly supported (MacLeod and Clarke 2009), all of which fit in the aim of this study.

1.5 Aims, objectives and research questions

1.5.1 Aim of the study

The overall aim of this study is to improve the understanding of employee retention generally, but more particularly in the context of a developing country such as Uganda. The study examines employee retention strategies, perception of strategies, employee engagement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention as the immediate predictor of turnover/retention, in the public, the private, and the NGO sectors in Uganda as a developing economy. The study aims at providing a general understanding of retention that is applicable to all contexts, both the developing and the developed economies. Within this thesis, the overall aim is broken down into a set of three specific research objectives.

1.5.2 Objectives of the Study

1 To improve the understanding of employee turnover intention, intention to stay, and retention.

2 To develop a model of employee retention that is applicable to a developing country context, with particular reference to Uganda.

3 To apply a model of employee retention to a developing country context.

In order to achieve the above objectives, the study seeks to answer a number of key research questions.

1.5.3 Research Questions

1 What are the main components of a model to explain employee turnover intention, intention to stay, and turnover/retention in a developing economy, specifically Ugandan?

2 What are the factors that explain turnover intention/ intention to stay, and thus turnover/retention; and how are they related?

3 How do the different factors explain for variation in turnover intentions/intentions to stay, and turnover/retention?

4 What are the results of applying such a model in a developing country context, specifically in Uganda?

1.5.4 Approach to the research questions

To answer the above questions, several approaches were taken that included systematic literature and theoretical reviews, and both qualitative and quantitative methods. In response to question one, the components explaining employee turnover intention and subsequently turnover/retention were identified through systematic literature and integrated into a theoretical model.

Research questions two to four were addressed through both in-depth qualitative interviews, and quantitative survey. Qualitative interviews fed into the model and helped explain quantitative findings, while survey research examined *firstly*, the factorial structure of the different components of the model as per our data, *secondly*, correlations, and *thirdly*, the prediction of turnover intention by the different factors as guided by the hypotheses and the equation model under section 6.5.

1.6 Relevance and contribution of the study

There is increasing emphasis of the need to focus on factors aimed at retention since the reasons for leaving and those for staying are different (De Vos and Meganck 2008; Nijhof et al. 1998). This study is justified and relevant to examine applicable retention strategies and their influence on turnover intentions (Luna-Arocas and Camps 2008; Lwamafa 2008; Mitala 2003).

The current study contributes to addressing the knowledge gap on models and empirical studies on retention in the developing world, and particularly the Sub-Saharan Africa or more specifically Uganda. This follows recommendations for studies to focus on the developing world, more so the Sub-Saharan Africa (Frimousse et al. 2012; Karatepe 2013a; Meyer et al. 2002).

The study answers some of the concerns about the conceptualization of organizational commitment (Edwards 2005; Jaros and Culpepper 2014) while confirming that its application varies with context (Jaros et al. 1993; Lee et al. 2001). The study confirms that organizational commitment is a three

component construct in line with some studies (Allen and Meyer 1990; Meyer and Allen 1991), different from some (Blau 2009; Iverson and Buttigieg 1999; Lapointe et al. 2011) that conceptualize it as a four dimensional construct. The current study, however, reveals moral and emotional (in place of affective and normative commitment) in addition to continuance commitment, with a non-significant prediction of turnover intention by continuance as opposed to moral and emotional commitment.

This study provides explanations accounting for relationships among variables (Swailes 2002). Just as there are studies emphasising causal relationships (Currivan 1999) and the underlying processes (Kumar and Bhatnagar 2010), growing evidence in the study of employee attitudes and behaviours points to the need for in-depth data that can provide explanations of issues (Rahman and Nas 2013; Swailes 2002). This study adopts a mixed-method approach that provides a balance of different types of evidence to allow for triangulation (Morse et al. 2008; Onwuegbuzie and Leech 2005) with one approach reinforcing the other (Creswell 2009).

The broad coverage of the three sectors allows this study to provide broad knowledge. With some studies calling for cross-sector studies (Brunetto et al. 2010; Kuvaas et al. 2014; Major et al. 2013; Park 2012), the current study is one of a kind to examine retention strategies, organizational commitment, and turnover intention across the three employment sectors. This strongly underpins the theoretical relevance to study diverse organizations (Ko et al. 1997; MacLeod and Clarke 2009) while collecting data from multiple sources (Alfes et al. 2013) that are heterogeneous for comparison.

Furthermore, examining the different retention strategies and their effect on turnover intention from the perspective of employee perceptions and how such perceptions influence job satisfaction, employee engagement, organizational commitment, and turnover intention, provides a unique conceptualization. Varying HR strategies are reported to have varying effects on employees (Godard 2004; Jensen et al. 2013; Kroon et al. 2009). While there is some evidence that the perception of HR strategies and practices affects organizational commitment (Probst 2003), little is known on how different HR retention strategies are perceived, and how their perceptions influence commitment. The qualitative element of the mixed-method approach has provided insights on how retention strategies and their perception by employees affect employee attitudes and behaviours, without which, as Kumar and Bhatnagar (2010) argue, such efforts and results would remain brief.

Lastly, this study develops a model based on research across different contexts, sectors and diverse organizations, which should increase its generalizability (Ko et al. 1997). Most of the existing models for example, the three component model (Allen and Meyer 1990; Meyer and Allen 1991) have been found to

be culturally and contextually bound (Ko et al. 1997; Lee et al. 2001; Wang et al. 2011). The developed model considers contextual, organizational and individual variations, and it accounts for 52% of the variation in turnover intention. Similarly, with some scholars such as Frimousse et al (2012) emphasising the need for hybridization, it does not only provide a long missing model from the developing country context, but one with the potential for adaptability to general contexts.

1.7 The structure of the thesis

Chapter one – The current chapter provides the overall introduction to the study providing the topic, theoretical background and empirical context as well as the research problem. It also includes the main aim of the study, together with the research objectives and research questions, and the relevance and contribution of the study.

Chapter two – presents the approach taken towards the systematic literature review. Systematic literature search involved a myriad of approaches including database searches that followed carefully developed search protocols, and yielded various articles across the three searched databases. The results provide implications for the choice of search databases, and the recommendations made.

Chapter three – Presents the systematic literature review based on the systematic approach explained in chapter two. The chapter provides conceptual definitions (3.2), the literature on key employee retention strategies (3.3), the relationships and influence of variables for example, employee perceptions, job satisfaction, employee engagement, organizational commitment and turnover intentions (3.4). Also reviewed are individual, organizational and contextual factors such as age, gender, position, tenure, and education.

Chapter four – Chapter four provides a theoretical review and the model of employee retention. Key theories including the three-component model of organizational commitment, the job demands-resources model (JD-R), social exchange theories, High-Performance Work Systems (HPWS), conservation of resources (CoR) model, and equity theory are critically reviewed. A theoretical model is developed and presented.

Chapter five - provides Uganda's context by examining the background information about the country, for purposes of contextualizing the study. The general trend of development in Uganda, specifically the political and socio-economic aspects and their effect on employment are explored to put the challenge of turnover/retention in context.

Chapter six – provides the overall research design including the philosophical foundation for the study, the methodology and methods. Justifications for the paradigm and methodological choices are made, and the specific steps for the research methods are explained including sampling, data collection and data analysis.

Chapter seven – presents the findings of exploratory factor analysis based on principal component analysis of the different components of the theoretical model of employee retention. Careful preliminary analysis of the requirements for conducting factor analysis is reported. Both varimax and direct oblimin rotation methods were explored for examining the most appropriate method. The extracted factors, item loadings, reliability values (Cronbach's alpha), and the explained variance are presented.

Chapter eight – presents and examines the quantitative results by focusing on descriptive statistics (8.2), correlations (8.4), and association of variables with turnover intentions (8.5). The chapter tests the set hypotheses (6.5.1) and responds to the research questions in order to meet the objectives of the study. Data were checked for basic assumptions of normality, correlations, and testing for association of variables. The chapter also established the overall model fit.

Chapter nine – mainly presents qualitative findings while reflecting on the quantitative findings from chapter eight, and then expounds on such findings with illustrative explanations. It examines qualitative data from in-depth interviews, providing some verbatim quotations to illustrate the points and provide meaning to quantitative results. For confidentiality, pseudonyms are used in reference to the respondents.

Chapter ten – discusses the findings by linking both qualitative and quantitative results to existing literature. The implications of the results are discussed with particular emphasis on the contribution of this study.

Chapter eleven – provides the conclusions and implications of the study for both theory and practice. The chapter discusses the components and factors of the employee retention model (11.2) basing on the findings of chapters seven to nine. The refined theoretical model of employee retention is presented. The relevancy of our model is noted, and the need for context adaptive features emphasized. The limitations of the study, with the recommendations for further studies are emohasized. The remainder of the document presents each of the above chapters in detail.

2 TOWARDS A SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

There is a considerable increase in the use of systematic reviews in Human Resource Management (HRM) research (Kim and Kao 2014; Zacharatos et al. 2007; Meyer et al. 2002; Morrell et al. 2001; Griffeth et al. 2000). It is argued that these studies provide robust (i.e. strong), rigorous and replicable methods that lead to a knowledge base of the best available evidence, especially for precisely defined topics, and more so for particular subject areas such as medicine (Denyer and Neely 2004 p.3; Tranfield et al. 2003). Several search methods, including searching databases, checking reference lists and contacting experts in the area (Rattrie and Kittler 2014; Papaioannou et al. 2010; McManus et al. 1998), have been advanced with emphasis on following systematically documented research protocols or procedures that are replicable and without bias in the selection and inclusion of articles in a study (Mallett et al. 2012; Papaioannou et al. 2010; Milne 2007).

However, database searches seem to be widely used in preference to other search methods such as reference checks, contacting experts, and physical searches (Green et al. 2006; Webster and Watson 2002), due to their ability to access literature from a wide range of locations in a short time and with a degree of uniformity and objectivity in the application of search protocols. While demanding rigour in the review method, the selection of bibliographic database(s) is often influenced by convenience and availability (such as availability in the researcher's organization or library) rather than being based on an informed assessment and understanding of their appropriateness or quality (Reeves and Bednar 1994). This can limit the robustness of the findings despite a systematic application of widely accepted protocols for search and selection processes (Wolfswinkel et al. 2013; Macpherson and Holt 2007). This is more so where the topics being searched are broad, and with a large proportion of qualitative studies with broader, sometimes less precisely defined findings than in topics dominated by quantitative studies. It is unclear how many databases are required for an acceptable or adequate search in a systematic review, in addition to the degree to which the returned results may vary between databases; and little is known about the perceived quality of journal articles retrieved by such databases (Falagas et al. 2008; Bosman et al. 2006). This paper contributes to these questions, adding unique insights into the issue of how the quality of sources identified varies across databases in HRM.

This chapter compares the results retrieved from three large electronic repositories (Scopus, EBSCO and Web of Knowledge) for a systematic literature search concerning relatively common search terms related to human resources retention strategies, organization commitment and employee turnover. It examines:

first, the degree to which our results from these databases are common; *second*, the quality of the returned results as measured by the respective journal impact factors and journal rankings; and *third*, the differences in the search algorithms of the three databases. The next section (2.2) reviews the use of databases in retrieving articles. Section 2.3 presents the methods used for this study followed by the findings in section 2.4, then a discussion (2.5) and, finally, conclusions and recommendations (2.6).

2.2 The use of search databases

Electronic databases are commonly used as the starting point in literature searches as they are considered more efficient (Green et al. 2001; Petticrew and Roberts 2006; Petticrew 2009). Despite the limitations of access for example, due to fees or actual databases subscribed to by an institution's library (Falagas et al. 2008)[1], electronic databases are simply preferred for their convenience for the researcher to access several journal articles from several sources while seated in one location. Morris et al (2009) demonstrate how databases make it easier to locate and access articles as compared to systematically working through the laborious paper indexes and different journal series. However, only half of such output may be relevant to a study (McManus et al. 1998) and hence adding an unnecessary burden.

Concerns exist about database searches, including the sufficient number of databases and their selection for a systematic search (Leseure et al. 2004; Green et al. 2001); appropriateness of the selected database(s) to a subject area of research (Rosenstreich and Wooliscroft 2012; Bosman et al. 2006); ability to produce relevant results (Gough et al. 2012); ability to produce common results with other databases (Bosman et al. 2006); and the quality of returned results in terms of their ratings (Bosman et al. 2006).

While some studies have used three databases (Leseure et al. 2004), others have recommended two relevant ones in the area of the study as being appropriate for reasonable breadth and depth on a particular topic (Green et al. 2001; Rattrie and Kittler 2014). Webster and Watson (2002) recognize that a search process will miss some articles, but it should accumulate a relatively complete census of literature by reaching saturation, and if any missing articles are critical to the study, they should be identified by experts reading the paper before submission. It is therefore strongly suggestive that researchers should target more than one database (Green et al. 2001) in addition to other sources such as contacting experts (Milne 2007; Mirza and Jenkins 2004; McManus et al. 1998) and 'hard copy' searches.

[1] *Various search databases have different characteristics and commercial interests, with some of them e.g. Scopus and Web of Science requiring access fees while others such as Google Scholar are part of a public search engine (Falagas et al. 2008).*

The relevance and appropriateness of databases varies by subject area, topic and research objectives (Daigneault et al. 2014; Phelps et al. 2007). For example, Medline features prominently in the medical field, but as suggested above (Green et al 2001), it alone is not adequate. Rosenstreich and Wooliscroft (2012) show how EBSCO, SSCI, JCR and Scopus are not representative of the field of management, while they also disproportionately cover US-based journals in terms of international comparison. Their findings even revealed worse coverage of places such as Africa and Canada. For example, EBSCO, JCR and Scopus did not identify any article while Ulrich hosted only 3% and 1% for Africa and Canada respectively out of the total number established by their study. Web of Science, on the other hand, retrieved more journal articles than Scopus when using search key terms in the social sciences (Bosman et al. 2006) although Scopus is revealed to have had broader overall coverage than Web of Science in terms of journals and number of documents (Falagas et al. 2008; Bosman et al. 2006). Such variations call for critical decisions in respect of search databases depending on subject areas and context of the study.

Electronic search databases also vary in their ability to retrieve and produce relevant results. Databases have been criticized for retrieving many studies that require judgment when sifting through in order to select only the relevant ones (Gough et al. 2012). Similarly, other studies have selected databases on the basis of the number of returns following the use of particular basic keyword searches (Macpherson and Holt 2007). However, Gough (2012) explains how searches focus on studies with similar research terms but not similar focus, hence retrieving irrelevant ones as well. Obtaining relevantly applicable search keywords or strings is in itself a challenging task that is achieved after several search trials with adjustments following resultant returns (Leseure et al. 2004). However, caution is needed when refining search keywords so as not to narrow them too much and so exclude relevant studies (Falagas et al. 2008). As Petticrew and Roberts (2006) and (Leseure et al. 2004) explain, database searches and systematic reviews pose a substantial challenge as the whole process is a craft demanding skills and knowledge not usually taught to researchers.

Additionally, the level of overlap or number of common results across different search databases (Bosman et al. 2006) is unpredictable. Different databases have their own characteristics and commercial interests that define their business. For example, Web of Science is reported to cover more older publications because of its indexing and archiving that go back to 1900, while Scopus includes publications from 1966, but with citation analysis information being available only for articles published after 1996 (Falagas et al. 2008; Bosman et al. 2006). Secondly, while Scopus is rated higher than Web of Science in covering more journals and publications, Web of Science is considered as holding journals in

the top quality segment (Falagas et al. 2008; Bosman et al. 2006). This last point is examined further in the following section.

The quality of the papers retrieved from databases has received much less attention in the literature. Some reviews only select articles for inclusion after meeting certain quality standards (Macpherson and Holt, 2007) as perceived by different measures such as Impact Factor and ABS Journal Quality Guide (Morris et al. 2009; Rosenstreich and Wooliscroft 2012). While the limitations with such measures are acknowledged, for example focusing on journal quality rather than individual articles, we observe a trend in research that is being driven by such journal rankings. In their review of the coverage and functionality of citation database Scopus in comparison with Web of Science and Google Scholar, Bosman et al (2006) argue that for long, Web of Science had been considered to represent top rated journals. This is further supported by their finding that Scopus had more non-academic articles, a finding also established by Falagas et al (2008), further reporting that Google Scholar, on the other hand, offers results of inconsistent accuracy. As academic research emphasizes the quality of publications, the generally perceived measure of quality is likely to be a benchmark for assessing customer subscription and trust in particular databases. Researchers are therefore likely to seek high impact journals and thus use similar yardsticks for choosing search databases.

This study makes a contribution by specifically examining the commonality and quality of search results of three databases on a relatively important HRM topic with wide ranging themes of human resource retention strategies, employee perceptions, employee engagement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover.

2.3 Databases and method

Building on our preliminary research, we developed a list of search keywords and strings as guided by commonly observed themes on our study topic (de Menezes and Kelliher 2011; Tranfield et al. 2003). We systematically searched for relevant articles using three databases: Scopus, Web of Science and EBSCO (through the University of Stirling research gateway, Stirgate that accesses other databases through EBSCO, e.g. Business Source Premier, Science Direct, Cinahl, JSTOR, informit Humanities & Social Sciences collection). The search process took place between October and November 2014. In line with Randolph's (2009) suggestion for pilot testing, we refined our search strings over time with different searches and discussions in our review meetings. The search strings we used in our final search are provided in Appendix 2.1. The searches were based on title, abstract and keywords (Beelmann and Daigneault 2009; Thorpe et al. 2005). The entire process was documented for each search and any

refinements were recorded. For example, we kept the years open, refined for peer-reviewed articles (Keupp et al. 2012; Thorpe et al. 2005), and included articles in press.

In analyzing the findings, first, we examined the results of each search by particular search strings for each of the respective databases, being stored in subfolders. An 'Overall Total' folder was created combining all references from all searches and all databases. Next, after deleting duplicates within subfolders, we exported the remaining records to a spreadsheet, and using codes 1-7 we identified the source of each record in terms of its host database (1= Scopus only, 2= EBSCO only, 3= Web of Knowledge only, 4= Scopus and EBSCO, 5= EBSCO and Web of Knowledge, 6= Scopus and Web of Knowledge and, 7= across the three databases). We were therefore able to organize records as appearing in only *one*, *two* of the *three* or all of the *three* databases.

In the second step, the perceived quality of the retrieved articles was assessed by *journal* impact factors and rankings using the SC Imago journal ranking list 2010 (based on quantitative measures), the ABS journal list 2010 and the ERA list 2010, both combining quantitative measures and expert opinion to achieve the rankings (Morris et al. 2009). The journal titles were matched against the different 'quality' lists (using journal serial numbers).

The third step was to use other frequently used search methods (hand and internet searching and surveying expert networks (Green et al. 2001; Leseure et al. 2004; Webster and Watson 2002) to identify significant or seminal contributions to the topic (coded as 8) and compare them to the database results.

Lastly, we examined the search pages for each of the databases to compare their search features. Key parameters such as indexing and archiving period, searching parameters, subject areas, document types, and indexed search databases that determine the output of the results were examined.

2.4 Findings

The findings consider the number, quality and specific publications identified in our review. First, to address the issue of quantity/number of obtained articles, we initially retrieved 4,872 articles across all the three databases using a range of word/phrase strings (see figure 2.1 below).

Step/Action	Searched databases					Refinement criteria/ Limiters
Displayed Results per search per database	Search string	Web of Science	EBSCO	Scopus	**Total**	Title, abstract, key words
	1	1488	70046	1090	**72624**	
	2	773	1488	516	**2777**	
	3	2428	6605	1332	**10365**	
	4	1329	3560	1021	**5910**	
	5	83	138	46	**267**	
	6	294	407	94	**795**	
	Total	**6395**	**82244**	**4099**	**92738**	
Refine results per search string for each database	Search string	Web of Science	EBSCO	Scopus	**Total**	Peer review journals, academic journals, articles, relevance of the journal field/subject
	1	626	993	978	**2597**	
	2	465	362	483	**1310**	
	3	1388	1110	1268	**3766**	
	4	655	634	1013	**2302**	
	5	26	23	39	**88**	
	6	75	57	86	**218**	
	Total	**3235**	**3179**	**3867**	**10281**	
Selected and saved Records	Search string	Web of Science	EBSCO	Scopus	**Total**	Full article, relevance to the study subject areas/ themes
	1	275	180	347	**802**	
	2	330	227	327	**884**	
	3	756	605	638	**1999**	
	4	395	334	360	**1089**	
	5	19	2	9	**30**	
	6	32	13	23	**68**	
	Total	**1807**	**1361**	**1704**	**4872**	
Screening Results from each database		Web of Science	EBSCO	Scopus	**Total**	Using RefWorks & manual scrutiny, 730 duplicates & anonymous records removed
		1049	905	1025	**2979**	
Clean results from the 3 databases		2979	Less	712	**2267**	Unique records coded as 1-7 categories[2] (1 record per publication)

Figure 2.1 A flow diagram showing results at different stages of screening

[2] *See figure 2.2 and table 2.1 for the distribution of the final records. Also see appendix 2.1 for search words and strings.*

The initial number was reduced to 2,997[3] articles by the deletion of duplicates within each database and further condensed to 2,267 unique articles after allocating each article uniquely to one of the codes 1-7 (i.e. deleting duplicates across the three databases, see table 2.1).

Table 2.1 and Figure 2.2 reveal that only 130 unique articles (5.7%) appear in all the three databases (category 7), 452 articles (20.0%) are found in *two* of the three (categories 4-6,) and 1,685 articles (74.3%) appear in *only one* of the three (categories 1-3). Only a quarter (25.7%, n=582) of the unique articles appeared in more than one database. Hence, the findings indicate that the decision on how many bibliographic databases to search can have a major impact on the results.

Table 2.1 Number of records by databases

Code of database(s)	No. of articles	Percent	Cumulative percent
1 - Scopus Only	512	22.6	22.6
2 - EBSCO Only	518	22.8	45.4
3 - Web of Knowledge Only	655	28.9	74.3
4 - Scopus & EBSCO	188	8.3	82.6
5 - EBSCO & Web of Science	69	3.0	85.7
6 - Scopus & Web of Science	195	8.6	94.3
7 - Scopus + EBSCO + Web of Science	130	5.7	100.0
Total	2267	100.0	

[3] *Clean records after deleting duplicates within databases using RefWorks, but a manual analysis identified and deleted other 18 duplicates among results from the same databases, leaving 2979 records. Such records had minor variations e.g. one record missing Issue Number. A total of 730 records (18+712) were deleted as duplicates within the databases*.

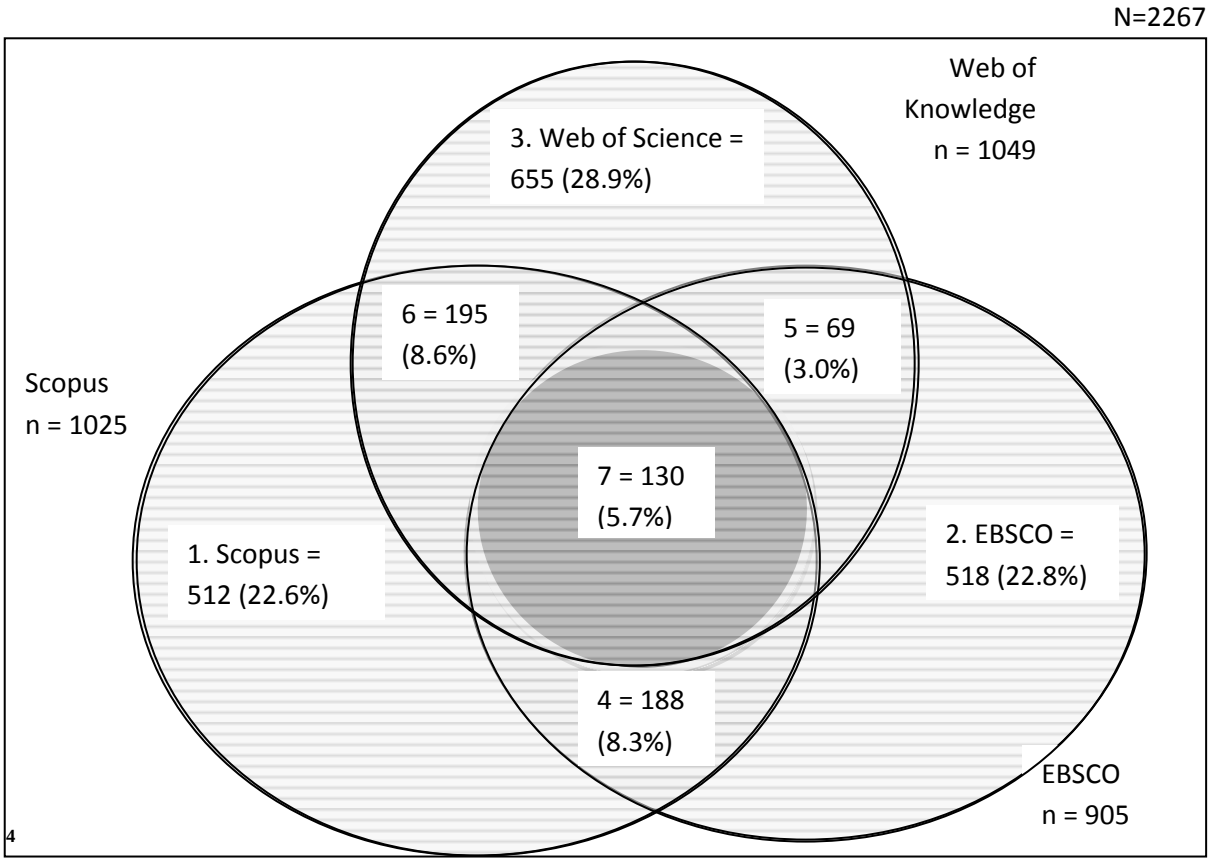

Figure 2.2 Venn diagrams showing the distribution of results across the 3 databases

Second, the quality of the retrieved articles was considered using journal impact factors and journal rankings, and a total of 1,926 records out of 2,267 (85.0%) had an impact factor on the SC Imago list. Overall on average, the Web of Science database hosted relatively more articles in highly ranked journals (mean=1.91) closely followed by the EBSCO (1.85), while Scopus had a significantly lower mean impact (1.18) *(see table 2.2)*. Although the quality of an individual article does not always correspond to that of its Journal of publication, we can argue that there is likely to be a correlation between Journal and article quality especially over such a large sample.

[4] *The darkened part at the centre represents the number of common articles to the three databases*

Table 2.2 Impact factor of journal articles by searched databases (Science Imago Impact Factor)

Database(s)	Code of category	Ranked Records	Total Impact factor	Average impact factor (per article)	Unranked Records	Total Records	Average impact including unranked as 0	Difference
Scopus Only	1	453	401.2	0.89	59	512	0.78	0.11
EBSCO Only	2	360	745.8	2.07	158	518	1.44	0.63
WoS Only	3	554	1086	1.96	101	655	1.66	0.3
Scopus + EBSCO	4	176	192.3	1.09	12	188	1.02	0.07
EBSCO + WoS	5	68	179.9	2.65	1	69	2.61	0.04
Scopus + WoS	6	189	292.9	1.55	6	195	1.5	0.05
Scopus + EBSCO + WoS	7	126	229.3	1.82	4	130	1.76	0.06
Totals		***1926***	***3127***	***12.02***	***341***	***2267***	***1.38***	***10.64***

Note: WoS = Web of Knowledge; EBSCO accessed through Stirgate.

Considering common records across different databases, the impact factor of the articles from all the three databases (category 7) was 1.82 (table 2.2). While this was expected to contain the highest ranking articles, it was actually slightly lower than the average impact factor for category 5 covering two of the databases (EBSCO and Web of Knowledge) which was 2.65. Here, and in the results overall, the effects of the lower impact factor of Scopus are evident. These findings are consistent when other perceived 'quality' measures are used - the ABS and ERA journal rankings (tables 2.3 and 2.4).

Table 2.3 ABS based average impact factors per overall 3 database results

	No. per Rank					% per Rank				
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	***Total***	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	***Total***
Scopus	82	143	130	157	***512***	16%	28%	25%	31%	***100%***
EBSCO	65	117	144	213	***539***	12%	22%	27%	40%	***100%***
WoS	44	161	251	288	***744***	6%	22%	34%	39%	***100%***

Note: Totals may not sum to 100% due to rounding, WoS = Web of Science.

Table 2.4 ERA based average impact factor per overall 3 database results

	No per Rank per DB					Percentage per Rank per DB				
Databases	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	***Total***	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	***Total***
Scopus	252	224	198	130	***804***	31%	28%	25%	16%	***100%***
EBSCO	180	168	186	163	***697***	26%	24%	27%	23%	***100%***
WoS	145	218	347	175	***885***	16%	25%	39%	20%	***100%***

Third, an examination of the search procedures of the three databases reveals considerable differences that affect the outcome of the searches. The indexing time span varies across databases. While Web of Science core collection search spans from 1900 to date, Scopus stretches only from 1960, with EBSCO not specifically providing its time coverage on its search page, but with results display-page showing results can be refined to stretch as far as back as 1401. With all the three databases claiming coverage of different subject areas including Business Management, Social Science, Social Work, and Arts and Humanities; Web of Science and EBSCO provide more options for limiting the searches to specific subject areas. The results-display page suggests that Scopus covers more of the Natural Sciences than the Social Sciences. Additionally, the 'search by' parameters point to variations across the three database. While it is optional with EBSCO to select the focus of the search in the document for the defined search words; searching by topic, and by article title, abstract, and key words are the default search options for Web of Science and Scopus respectively. However, whereas Scopus has an option for searching by 'all fields' in addition to authors, article title, abstract, and key words among others, EBSCO allows searching all text, but with other search options such as author, title, and abstract operating independently. Ironically, while Scopus and EBSCO provide options for broader search for the specified words through all the fields and all texts respectively, Web of Science's broadest search focus is by topic or title. Finally, Scopus allows the researcher to refine results by year, author's name, subject area, document type, for example article, review, or conference paper. EBSCO allows limiting the search to full article, and peer reviewed documents, while source type can be restricted to one or more of academic journals, reports, news, magazines and trade publications. Web of Science on its part refines results by highly cited or hot papers in the field, year, web of science categories (disciplines), and document type. Such variations (time span, subject areas, document type, and search target for the key words) mean differing findings, and hence affect the numbers and the quality of the returned journal articles as discussed above.

Fourth, we conducted other frequently used search methods (paper based search, reference checks, internet searching and contacting expert networks) to identify significant or seminal contributions. This multi-method approach to the literature search showed that some key works (e.g. Meyer and Allen 1991; Mathieu and Zajac 1990; Allen and Meyer 1996; Edwards 2005; Allen and Meyer 1990) were omitted from all the three databases despite the rigorous application of systematic review procedures. This omission of seminal work (coded as 8, different from the database codes 1-7 in reference to the source of our articles) confirms earlier findings on the shortcomings of single method approaches when identifying key literature (McManus et al. 1998). Not only is relying on one database inadequate for systematic literature search; but even when multiple databases are searched, they should be complemented with other methods such as contacting experts and checking citations and reference lists.

2.5 Discussion

Systematic reviews have developed over time as best evidence-based practice especially in medicine, to gathering, selecting and critically analyzing relevant studies from broad sources while emphasizing objectivity and transparency. Consistently following pre-determined search protocols as well as inclusion and exclusion criteria (Pittaway et al. 2004; Randolph 2009; Tranfield et al. 2003) is emphasized. The benefits of systematic reviews can generally be large (Baumeister 2013; Green et al. 2006; e.g. Randolph 2009; Tranfield et al. 2003), but its knowledge is limited. As different subjects embrace systematic reviews, they need to appreciate the different approaches to literature search with both their strengths and limitations.

Systematic reviews face a number of challenges ranging from the adequacy of search sources to criteria for inclusion and exclusion of studies for review (Petticrew 2009; Phelps et al. 2007). This is amidst claims of extensive search with maximum objectivity and transparency while avoiding bias, and documenting decisions taken at all stages. The current study has suggested that databases, while presenting a basis for apparently better organized and objective searches, generate results, at least in HRM, that are likely to vary in terms of number, uniqueness and quality of returned search articles, partly accounted for by the differences in database procedures.

The limited overlap of journal articles across different databases (only 5.7% across the three databases, with 20% between two of the three) signals very limited sharing of journal articles. Indeed, the 25.7% of all articles examined that appeared in two or all the three databases are lower in percentage in comparison to articles that appeared in Web of Knowledge alone at 28.9% (655). Contrary to some studies (Bosman et al. 2006; Falagas et al. 2008) that found Scopus returning more results, Web of Science in our case came out strongly. Previous studies made clear that Scopus had more of non-article material, while the current search was restricted to articles.

Our results suggest that relying on one database alone is not adequate; a finding that supports some recommendations (Green et al. 2006; Greenhalgh 1997). Searching more databases and triangulating such results with other methods like checking for seminal papers in the area, contacting experts (Daigneault et al. 2014; Papaioannou et al. 2010) and checking reference lists (Rattrie and Kittler 2014) should not only improve on the number of results, but also ensure that such results are strong.

Similarly, some reviewers base their systematic reviews on perceived journal quality as a basis for the quality of the review under the notion of ‘quality evidence-based research’ (Keupp et al. 2012; Randolph

2009; Thorpe et al. 2005; Tranfield et al. 2003). This study emphasizes that the perceived quality of such journal articles varies with database, and hence believers in the notion of quality evidence based research ought to be cautious in their choices (Falagas et al. 2008). Studies delving in methodologies of assessing individual article quality could make considerable contributions in line of the current study.

The perceived quality of journal articles varies across databases as evidenced by variations in the ranking of different journal articles. This finding was at both individual database level and also for database shared articles. A database that returned highly ranked journals that are unique to it (for example Web of Science) had highly ranked journal articles shared only with some other databases. The opposite was true for a database with low journal ranked articles (Scopus). This finding is therefore relevant not only for researchers, but also for all journal databases in making decisions for journal hosting.

2.6 Conclusions

This chapter suggests a number of key findings relevant to systematic reviews generally, and in the field of HRM in particular. Findings show that databases have differences in their search processes, their search results vary in terms of number and perceived quality, and that databases largely host unique articles from each other. The findings have significant implications for researchers and libraries as well as the providers of the bibliographic databases themselves. Our results suggest that for the types of searches common in areas such as HRM, and qualitative studies more generally, where the search terms are relatively broad, searches focusing on only one or two databases are likely to miss a number of articles (Green et al. 2001; Webster and Watson 2002) and vary in the quality of results retrieved. The use of search terms and the types of studies to be covered in systematic reviews need careful consideration, but the findings here also suggest that using multiple databases, more than two, is essential.

It is observed that choosing articles covered by all the searched databases may create some common ground for the databases, but will still result in omission of some articles with potentially high relevance and impact. Different results may also be achieved if the focus of the search includes books or grey literature in addition than academic articles. This, therefore, confirms the need to use more methods for literature search rather than relying on databases alone. Supplementary search strategies, such as contacting experts in the area and checking reference lists for seminal articles, enrich the review beyond the results from databases only.

Despite the concerns over journal quality measures, institutions and researchers may find it difficult to subscribe to several databases, thereby necessitating quality assurance as researchers are increasingly

focusing on high quality and high impact research. Large databases need to balance between quantity and quality to contribute to impact creating research.

While systematic reviews can provide clear and replicable results, they must be treated with some care. While these findings give an interesting insight for the path dependency resulting from the choice for a particular database or set of databases, they are bound to the context of our search on employee retention strategies and turnover with the intermediate variables of employee engagement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention. Further research is needed to show whether this phenomenon will hold for a wider HRM-context and beyond.

While this chapter mainly contributes to the literature search process, it also contributes to the methods of selecting articles for inclusion in the actual review. We suggest the inclusion criteria that are integrative of the search strategy, for the actual articles for the review. For example, while emphasizing the relevancy of the article to the thematic scope of the study, we considered firstly, articles common to the three databases; secondly, the perceived quality; thirdly, the citation indices after the reference checks; and fourthly, recommendations by the established contacts. Such a multifaceted approach facilitates triangulation by enabling one approach to complement the other and hence address the limitations of relying upon only one method. It also gives the desired rigour to the study. We use the codes 1-8 (as explained under section 2.3) againt the citations in the systematic review, to denote the source of each article. Code 8 applies to materials which are not part of the database searches, while citations without a code are the common ones to all the three databases (otherwise coded as 7).

3 SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a systematic literature review of organizational commitment and employee retention. The chapter provides definitions and explanations of key concepts, followed by a review of employee retention strategies. Relationships between employee retention strategies, employee perception of retention strategies, job satisfaction, and employee engagement are examined and linked to organizational commitment, employee turnover intentions, and actual turnover. It is reflected that employee perception of retention strategies affects job satisfaction and engagement thereby influencing organizational commitment, which in turn influences turnover intentions and subsequently actual turnover. Chapter 4 considers specific models of the relationships between the factors. The key sections of the chapter include: conceptual definitions (3.2), employee retention strategies (3.3), the relationships of variables with, and influences on turnover intention (3.4). It further examines contextual, organizational and individual factors (3.5), and gives conclusions and implications for a developing economy (3.6). As explained under sections 2.3, 2.4 and 2.6, the citations in this chapter (systematic literature review) are identified in terms of their source by the codes 1-6 and 8 for purpose emphasising our systematic approach as explained in chapter two. Citations without a code are those that were common to all the three databases (otherwise coded as 7, which formed our first inclusion criteria as explained under section 2.6), while code 8 applies to materials which were not part of the database searches, for example, those obtained through reference checks and recommendations by experts. Codes 1-6 (as well as 7) are well explained under section 2.3 and 2.4. The next section addresses conceptual definitions and explanations.

3.2 Conceptual Definitions and Explanations

The considered concepts include employee retention, employee turnover, turnover intention, organizational commitment, employee perceptions, job satisfaction, and employee engagement. The concepts of the private, the public and the NGOs/third sector are also discussed.

3.2.1 Employee Retention

This is the process of ensuring that the organization keeps longer its productive employees. De Vos and Meganck (2008(8)) explain employee retention as the ability to hold onto and keep longer those employees one wants, than other organizations. Organizations do not only focus on attracting, but also on facilitating productive employees to stay longer while contributing to performance. However, employee

retention capabilities vary across units, making it a concern for each manager to address retention challenges. It is revealed that effective retention goes beyond HR standard practices, to actual retention strategies and managing employees' perceptions (De Vos and Meganck 2008(8)) that influence their attitudes and thus turnover.

3.2.2 Employee Turnover

Employee Turnover can be defined as an act by which employees leave an organization or department within a particular period of time. Employee turnover is two-fold: voluntary turnover, when employees on their individual account initiate their departure from an organization or department (the focus for this research), and involuntary turnover, when employee departure is initiated by management (Iverson and Buttigieg 1999; Koslowsky et al. 2012). Management approaches and actions that are not well received may lead to an employee's decision to leave (hence voluntary turnover) as opposed to management's decision to terminate the services of an employee (involuntary turnover). The above definition further distinguishes between external and internal voluntary turnover, with the latter being less discussed in existing literature (Johnston et al. 1993). External turnover arises when employees choose to leave by crossing the organizational boundary because; 1) they perceive an internal environment as limiting in its support relative to their interests or other opportunities, 2) the external environment offers better alternatives of employment (Allen and Meyer 1990(2); Powell and Meyer 2004(4); Vandenberghe et al. 2011), and, 3) there are political and socio-economic factors such as relocation of the family that impose limitations to a person's continuity in the current job.

Internal turnover, on the other hand, arises when employees face challenges and limitations or, opportunities that make them move to another department or sub-unit without generally ending the employment relationship with their current employer. This is different from the normal transfer arrangements, when management regularly or occasionally transfers its employees across directorates/departments. In all the above scenarios, an employee's leaving of an organization only qualifies as turnover when his/her departure is followed by continued regular employment or at least search for employment as opposed to retirement (Schmidt and Lee 2008). However, turnover is not an immediate occurrence, it first develops and manifests in turnover intention.

3.2.3 Turnover intention

This is when an employee undergoes a process of reflection, thinking and developing the desire to leave a particular organization or department, and planning to act upon such desire, considering both internal and external factors, (Hung-Wen Lee and Ching-Hsiang Liu 2007). The desire to leave gives rise to the

likelihood or probability of leaving the organization or department (Addae et al. 2008), that an employee prepares to act upon before the final decision is made to actually leave (turnover as explained under 3.2.2 above), or stay as such intentions can change (Meyer et al. 1993(3); Porter et al. 1976(2); Somers and Birnbaum 1999). To the contrary, the likelihood of an employee to continue his/her membership to an organization is intent to stay (Currivan 1999). In this regard, substantial literature has examined turnover intention as an immediate predictor of actual turnover (Jiang et al. 2012; Joo 2010; Loi et al. 2006; Maertz Jr. et al. 2007; Yalabik et al. 2013(8)).

However, evidence from longitudinal studies (Meyer et al. 1993(3); Porter et al. 1976(2); Somers and Birnbaum 1999; Yalabik et al. 2013(8)) exemplifies variations in the time of employees' expressions of turnover intention or stay, and actual turnover. Such studies have revealed that intentions are likely to change within six months to the time of behavioural cognitions when working conditions and reasons at the epitome of turnover intentions change before actual turnover. Hence, employees who earlier expressed turnover intentions end up staying while losing those who did not (Lopina et al. 2012; Maertz Jr. et al. 2007; Mignonac and Richebe 2013). Evidence has accordingly recommended employee retention strategies that result in organizational commitment since it is largely seen as strongly influencing turnover intentions and hence turnover (Allen and Meyer 1990(2); Jaros 1997(1); Meyer and Allen 1991(8)).

3.2.4 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is an attitudinal construct concerned with the positive feelings an individual develops towards an organization as a result of shared values and beliefs, which result in loyalty and willingness to stay (Boles et al. 2007). It is generally an attitudinal state that results in an individual's loyalty, identification with, and involvement in an organization, creating a belief in and acceptance of the values and goals; as well as willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, with a strong desire to stay (Armstrong 2009(8); Nickson et al. 2008(8); Porter et al. 1976(2)). Although Edwards (2005(8)) cautions against the continued mix of organization identification with organizational commitment, the seminal works of Porter et al (1974(4), p.604) where organizational commitment is defined as 'the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization' continue to influence subsequent studies (Finegold et al. 2002; Lapointe et al. 2011; Pare and Tremblay 2007).

On their part, Allen and Meyer (1996(8), p.253) define organizational commitment as 'a psychological link between the employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization.' Organizational commitment is regarded as an *affective attachment* to,

perceived costs associated with leaving, and *obligation* to remain with the organization: affective, continuance, and normative commitment respectively (Allen and Meyer 1990(2); Jaros 1997(1); MacLeod and Clarke 2009(3); Meyer and Allen 1991(8); Meyer et al. 1993). The above three dimensions have dominated the current literature of organizational commitment as entrenched in the three-component model, which has been examined by several other scholars with mixed optimism and scepticism (Allen and Meyer 1996(8); Allen et al. 1999; Major et al. 2013; Neves and Caetano 2009). See section 4.2.1 for a more critical discussion of the model and its components.

3.2.5 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an affective state of an individual towards his/her job. It deals with a person's degree of love for or liking the aspects of his/her job, which is actually attached to his/her emotions or attitudes (Currivan 1999). Back et al (2007 p.112) define job satisfaction as 'an affective or emotional response toward one's job.' It provides the degree of positive emotions that an individual has towards aspects of his/her job (Currivan 1999), thereby dealing with an individual's attitudinal evaluation of and responses to different job aspects (Chay and Bruvold 2003). Such an experience has implications for work outcomes. It is important that organizational management pays particular attention to such employee appraisals and responses of the job (Luna-Arocas and Camps 2008). However, individual attitudinal evaluation of the job aspects is internal and likely to vary from one person to another, and across different conditions.

From the existing evidence of the positive influence of job satisfaction on organizational commitment (Back et al. 2011; Boles et al. 2007; Cheung et al. 2009), two implications arise: 1) job satisfaction influences turnover intentions through organizational commitment (Luna-Arocas and Camps 2008), and 2) that job satisfaction has a direct influence on turnover intentions as does organizational commitment (Dewettinck and van Ameijde 2011). It is therefore likely that satisfied workers will be more committed and thus strongly unlikely to leave. However, there also exists evidence denying the existence of a relationship between job satisfaction and commitment although the same authority acknowledges that there is a wealth of research that established the existence of such a relationship (Currivan 1999).

3.2.6 Employee engagement

There is lack of consensus on the definition of employee engagement although there are common aspects between different scholars. In one respect, engagement is concerned with establishing mutuality with a conducive working environment beneficial to all stakeholders who may include employees, employers, clients and customers (MacLeod and Clarke 2009(8)). Important in this definition are the aspects of

mutual respect, recognizing *people's effort, and potential* (*'what people do or can do'*) in a *supportive working environment* (*right context*). It is therefore discernible that engagement is multi-directional; with organizations providing a conducive environment while employees manage work.

An influential definition comes from Schaufeli and Bakker (2004(5), p.295) and Schaufeli et al (2002(8), p.74), who define engagement as 'a positive work fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication and absorption'. Each of these three features is explained as having serious influence on an employee's state of mind. Vigour is seen as involving high levels of energy and intellectual capability for work, as well as ongoing willingness and determination to continue working amidst all forms of challenges. Dedication embodies the importance or meaning of work, the passion and motivation as well as the pleasure (pride) that comes with such challenges. Lastly, Absorption is about 'being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work', with the desire to continue working throughout (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004(5), p.295). In this regard, engagement is highly involving the body and the mind, as well as getting the pleasure out of doing work; and it should influence job satisfaction and organizational commitment and thus influence turnover intentions and hence retention. However, as the aspects of vigour, dedication, and absorption can be refreshing, they are also likely to be physically and mentally draining on the part of the employee.

Truss et al (Truss et al. 2013(3)) explained engagement as, a process by which employees are genuinely physically involved, with cognitive awareness and emotional connections, as opposed to when they physically, cognitively and emotionally uncouple themselves from work aspects. This definition is in line with that of Schaufeli and colleagues, and also Alfes et al (2010(8)). Alfes et al (2010(8), p.5) suggest that engagement is premised on three tenets which are intellectual, affective, and social engagement; and therefore explain employee engagement as a state by which someone 'thinks hard about their work, feels positive when they do a good job and discusses job related matters and improvements with those around them'. In this regard, engagement challenges employees: 1) to use their intellectual capability by being encouraged and hence able to think and find solutions to work problems. 2) The affective state arising out of the job provides a positive feeling and motivation, which in itself has ongoing effects, and 3) there is an interactive work approach (social engagement) which allows employees to discuss work-related issues and desired improvements in their areas of operations. The meaning of engagement, its conceptualization in terms of antecedents and possible outcomes are still matters of debate (Alfes et al. 2013(3); MacLeod and Clarke 2009(8); Truss et al. 2013(3)). Section 3.4.3 provides a detailed discussion, but next, is a definition of employee retention strategies.

3.2.7 Employee Retention Strategies

These are different approaches of a human resource plan, developed and implemented with the aim of ensuring that the organization competitively and continually retains its key employees. It has already been pointed out that employee turnover is costly and it affects organizational competitiveness (Loi et al. 2006; Luna-Arocas and Camps 2008). Evidence reveals that some organizations develop specific strategies for retention (Pare and Tremblay 2007), while others have focused on developing HR systems and practices with a view of achieving improved employee retention (De Vos and Meganck 2008(8)). Examples of HR systems include high-commitment/High-performance-oriented work systems (HPWS) that encompass selective hiring practices, purposeful socialization, training and development, promotion, employee involvement, relatively high compensation, performance based and equitable pay, and job security (Chay and Bruvold 2003; D'Amato and Herzfeldt 2008; Zacharatos et al. 2007). However, it has been argued that retention is not simply about having a pool of practices, but it is about having in place aspects that employees do value that can influence their attitudes and behaviours (De Vos and Meganck 2008(8)). See section 3.3 for the relationships of the strategies with, and their influence upon turnover intentions.

3.2.8 Employee Perception

Human attitudes and behaviours are a result of experiences and the resulting interpretations. This is the reality or sense that employees make of their work and the different strategies. Employees' perceptions of HR strategies are likely to be different from management's intention for implementation (Alfes et al. 2013(3)). The explanations for the variations are mainly two: 1) that the strategies are not good or not trustworthy or deceptive; 2) they are not effectively implemented as planned, and; 3) they are not well interpreted and or experienced by the employees to whom they apply (Alfes et al. 2013(3)). Kehoe and Wright (2013(8), p.370) argued that:

> *"…supervisors may fail to implement intended practices or may employ intended practices in a manner that is inconsistent with the intent of the underlying policy. Finally, employees are likely to differ in how they experience and interpret the HR practices with which they and their co-workers are managed…, thereby reflecting variance in perceived HR practice employment."*

Employees' experiences, interpretations and understanding of work practices or strategies therefore remain important. There is evidence that most employees have negative regard of HR practices for their organizations (Alfes et al. 2010(8)). However, it is also evident that engagement levels are likely to be high when employees positively perceive their line managers as well as the HR practices, and this significantly influences organizational outcomes (Alfes et al. 2013(3); Alfes et al. 2010(8)).

3.2.9 The psychological contract

The psychological contract is a set of expectations and obligations by the employees and employers respectively in the employment relationship (Behery et al. 2012(2); McDonald and Makin 2000(8)). Employees develop a set of expectations from their employers/managers, which becomes employer obligations. While some studies explain that either the fulfilment or the breach of the psychological contract has implications for an employee's attitudes and behaviours (Parzefall and Coyle-Shapiro 2011(8)), it is important to first examine the influence of perceived expectations. The extent to which HR retention strategies are actually expected is important before thinking of their level of fulfilment.

3.2.10 The Public, the private, and the NGO sectors

There are three key sectors that are considered for this study: the public, the private, and the Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs).

The public sector refers to part of the economy that is owned and controlled by the state for the service of its people. It is part of the economy that is constituted of publicly owned or government organizations, institutions and agencies that provide goods and services to the government and the society it serves (Jiang et al. 2012). In respect of employees, Lwamafa (2008(8)) explains the public sector as the totality of organizations, as the executive arm of government whose employees are non-military and non-elective. Article 175 of the 1995 Constitution of Uganda defines the public service as 'any civil capacity of the government the emoluments for which are payable directly from the consolidated fund or directly out of monies provided by Parliament' (Uganda. 1995). Appreciating that elected office bearers and armed officers hold public offices, they are excluded from the traditional meaning of public service employment (Kiapi 1984(8)) because they operate on different terms and conditions of service.

The Public Service in Uganda includes all employees of Government Ministries, and Local Governments, Government Departments, and Authorities (MDAs), undertaking civil government responsibilities for the benefit of the general public (Kiapi 1984(8)).

The Private sector in this context refers to part of the economy that is run for profit, and is made up of companies and organizations that are not under the direct control of the government in their day to day businesses. While government is responsible for establishing an overall supportive environment and regulatory framework; it is not in direct control of the running of the private sector. It is hence that part of the economy that is comprised of private individuals or groups providing goods and services as a means

of pursuing a profit (Jiang et al. 2012). This study, however, appreciates that government in some instances works in partnership with private institutions to provide some services for a profit.

Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) constitute part of the economy that is not-for-profit, and not under the direct control of the government. Its other labels include the third sector, voluntary sector, social economy or charity sector (Nickson et al. 2008(8)). Their main goal is to provide a service to people of a particular community or society for purposes of socio-political and economic development without a profit objective. Such organizations can either have a local or international orientation, but for purposes of this study, we exclude international and multi-national not-for-profit agencies such as those of the United Nations, although they can have a working relationship.

The different sectors tend to have different policies, practices and strategies in respect of employment. Some of the approaches may not necessarily be consistent with employees' values and what shapes their loyalty and identification with the firm/organization (Armstrong 2009(8)). There are variations, for example in pay and pension (Lwamafa 2008(8); Mitala 2003(8)), job security (Jiang et al. 2012; Lwamafa 2008(8); Mitala 2003(8)), and supervisor-subordinate relationship (Brunetto et al. 2010; Brunetto et al. 2012a) across different sectors and organizations, hence affceting employee attitudes and behaviours.

The remainder of the chapter considers key retention strategies (3.3), the established causal relationships (3.4) with the attitudinal variables of perception (3.4.1), job satisfaction (3.4.2), and engagement (3.4.3) in order to explain the link with retention strategies and organizational commitment (3.4.4), which should explain turnover intentions, and subsequently actual turnover. Contextual and individual factors are then reviewed before drawing the conclusion.

3.3 Employee Retention Strategies

Research shows different approaches to the management of employee retention. The approaches have ranged from specific individual HR practices (Kuvaas et al. 2014; Luna-Arocas and Camps 2008; Pare and Tremblay 2007) to a group of practices (Armstrong-Stassen and Schlosser 2010; Campbell et al. 2013; Karatepe 2013a(3)). Some approaches like High-Performance/Commitment Work Systems have evolved to provide practices perceived to be oriented towards commitment, retention and performance (Pare and Tremblay 2007; Zacharatos et al. 2007). Such practices have, however, generated mixed findings and arguments. Some studies (e.g.: Luna-Arocas and Camps 2008; Pare and Tremblay 2007; Zacharatos et al. 2007) support HPWS in achieving commitment and retention, while others like Jensen et al (2013(8)), Godard (2004(8)), Kroon et al (2009(8)) reveal that these practices are exploitative of

employees, resulting in anxiety and loss of job control. Studies of individual approaches have also established varying findings. Thatcher et al (2002) found the links from task identity and feedback to job satisfaction not significant as opposed to the links from task significance, autonomy, and task variety even though the relationship between job-satisfaction as a mediator, with organizational commitment was strongly significant. Alfes et al (2010(8)) reported dissatisfaction of employees with regard to training, career and performance appraisal. Careful examination of different strategies in terms of meaning, intent, and likely results has become a critical point of focus (Alfes et al. 2013(3); Alfes et al. 2010(8); Jensen et al. 2013(8)). The key strategies examined here include: selective hiring practices, purposeful socialization, career development, training and development, promotion, employee involvement, competitive rewards, pension and benefits, and job security.

3.3.1 Selective Hiring Practices

These include recruitment and selection as the 'gate-way' HR practices for many candidates intending to join a particular organization. Recruitment and selection, as two intertwined HR practices should be able to: 1) attract a pool of qualified and competent job candidates (recruitment) and; 2) sieve out those candidates who measure up to job behaviours (DeCenzo and Robbins 2003(8)) or "filter out" those considered inappropriate (Nickson et al. 2005(8)). Organizations should attract, and choose those candidates they predict to be better performers and likely to commit themselves to supporting the organization towards achieving its goals. It is suggested that the approaches should be selective by ensuring that the job requirements are linked with job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Ito et al. 2013), and candidates are assessed for the same. Many organizations experiencing retention problems decry their recruitment and selection processes (Baruch and Winkelmann-Gleed 2002). Cools et al (2009) found a positive correlation (though moderate) between intention to leave and job search behaviour, and emphasized the need to understand individual job satisfactions and consider the same for improved selection and retention.

Many organizations have failed to attract competent candidates with commitment values, simply because the way recruitment information is packaged and selection process managed is not attractive to top class potential candidates (Ito et al. 2013). Quite often, the information provided to the candidates at recruitment and selection stages is not well developed, not highly informative about the organization and the job, or at times not realistic, thus not allowing an individual to assess his/her ability to fit in the new job and organization (Lopina et al. 2012). Similarly, organizational image has been found to influence potential candidates (Love and Singh 2011), yet many organizations have not paid substantial attention to

it. While issues of career, job security and pay are analyzed differently in relation to retention in this study, Nickson et al. (2008(8)) points them out as influencing recruitment, particularly in the third sector.

In their narrative literature review, Lee and Maurer (1997) argue for the need for traditional HR practices including staffing (recruitment and selection) to be analyzed to establish their help in retention. However, variation in contexts and organizational culture requires adaptability of different strategies as emphasized by Frimousse et al. (2012), to include elements of contingency by helping potential candidates to understand the identity of the organization and guide their employment decisions. Socialization should then reinforce such values.

3.3.2 Employee Socialization

This is the process of making sure that new employees successfully learn about their new jobs and organizations. According to DeCenzo and Robbins (2003(8), p.212), it means that 'people know and accept behaviours that the organization views as desirable.' Through socialization, employees learn behaviours that they need to exhibit in the work place in order to feel comfortable and become effective in the performance of their jobs. It is thus a process of adaptation by new employees through a series of targeted adjustments, including adapting to a new environment, work processes and activities, new people at work, and the different standards of performance. Socialization should be an ongoing process throughout one's career, but most profoundly, it takes place during employees' entry to an organization as a process of transiting from being outsiders to becoming insiders. However, many organizations simply provide socialization as a mere ushering in of new employees with little emphasis on the values and ideals that should result in identification, loyalty, attachment and willingness to stay.

Failure to learn and fit in the new organizational setting is found to be stigmatizing (Lopina et al. 2012). HPWS have recognized the essence of socialization (Hom and Xiao 2011) in helping new employees settle in their new jobs and continue learning about the organization and its operations. Despite this recognition, HPWS practices have been criticized for simply aiming at getting more from workers (Godard 2004; Kroon et al. 2009). Empowerment, supportive culture, and job control that have been found to lessen the negative effect of HPWS (Jensen et al. 2013) should be emphasized at socialization.

3.3.3 Employee Training and Development

Training is a way of learning that seeks to have a relatively permanent change in an individual to improve his or her ability to perform in the job (Armstrong 2010(8); DeCenzo and Robbins 2003(8)). This is achieved through a formal process aimed at imparting skills, improving or changing knowledge, attitudes,

or behaviours for effective job performance. Training is also seen as developing employees with certain capabilities and attributes that appeal to customers' senses (Nickson et al. 2005(8)). However, the relative level at which individuals gain necessary skills and satisfactorily perform in their jobs questions the effectiveness and suitability of particular trainings. The planning, identification of candidates and training needs, and the nature of training, vary in effectiveness. Employee development on the other hand, is an ongoing process which 'enables people to progress from a present state of understanding and capability to a future state in which higher-level skills, knowledge and competencies are required' (Armstrong 2010(8), p.217). It is a process by which people gain sound reasoning and ability to understand, interpret and apply knowledge as opposed to imparting specific skills. However, employee ability to express and demonstrate knowledge and leadership potential may depend on trust, autonomy and delegation levels.

Employee training and development is emphasized as a key component of the performance objectives under a quality strategy (Cheng-Hua et al. 2009). Employees are likely to always be encouraged and supported to enrol for training programmes (Love and Singh 2011) to develop skills and knowledge, for example aesthetic skills (Nickson et al. 2005(8)) that enable them to perform their jobs and thus become comfortable and stable. However, it is also observed that having skills does not guarantee an individual's job security with one employer, but becomes a source of attraction to other employers (McQuaid and Lindsay 2005(8)). In relation to this, it is believed that training and development improve one's performance, and hence lead to performance-related pay and thus reduce intentions and willingness to change organizations (Finegold et al. 2002; Hom and Xiao 2011) as these linkages create satisfaction within an employee. Back et al (2011) and Chay and Bruvold (2003) clearly illustrate the role of training as one of the key service quality dimensions (Back et al. 2011) that positively influence job satisfaction, and subsequently organizational commitment, thereby decreasing turnover intention (Joo 2010). Training also leads to role clarity and quality service (Back et al. 2011; Iverson 1999); all of which are believed to influence turnover behaviours. However, the quality of training and ability to apply skills from such trainings (Kuvaas et al. 2014) remain low as it is likely to be perceived as imposing a burden on some employees. Michie and West (2004 p.99) explained that the influence of training is dependent upon 'the relevance of the training content to the individual's job; the quality of the training; the opportunities to apply the training on the job; and the support of the organization for the application of the training.' Training should also not simply be sought as an opportunity to get off daily office routine to travel and make some allowances (*per diem),* but it should be purposeful to both the employee and the organization (Kuvaas et al. 2014).

Employees also tend to associate training with potential promotion and performance (Chang 1999; Finegold et al. 2002), and therefore predicting affective commitment (Chang 1999; Chay and Bruvold 2003). While Michie and West (2004) established a positive linkage between training and human resource outcomes including acquisition and retention of essential employees, employee satisfaction and relations; some employees may expect benefits like promotions and increased salary after a training and development programme, which may not be forthcoming.

Over-qualification is another challenge associated with training and development. Some of the undertaken programmes are quiet often regarded irrelevant to or beyond the minimum job requirements. If training and development are not well considered, they may cause underemployment which in turn influences turnover intentions as a result of job dissatisfaction (Maynard et al. 2006). Similarly, different studies (Chen and Francesco 2000; de Reuver and van Woerkom 2010; Kuvaas and Dysvik 2010) have shown varying influence of skills and education on job satisfaction and commitment. Chay and Bruvold (2003) found no relationship between perceived investment in employee development (PIED) and continuance commitment, and no significant relationship between PIED and turnover intention. They therefore recommended further research in other industries other than health, using in-depth interviews to provide detailed respondents' views by allowing use of quotes as also alluded to by Tymon Jr et al (2011), contrary to most of the reviewed studies that relied on numbers.

3.3.4 Career Development support

Career is an individual's series of related jobs within a particular profession or occupation. According to DeCenzo and Robbins (2003(8)) career is a sequence of positions occupied by a person during the course of a lifetime. People have their career goals and plans, which they intend to meet through organizations or employment. Indeed Chang (1999 p.1258) revealed that 'individuals enter a company with their own career plans and would be attracted to the company if its practices satisfy their career needs.' Career needs should therefore influence an employee's attachment to an organization since it becomes a responsibility of both individual employees and the organization, and both should be concomitant.

Positive relationships have been established between career and perceptions of HR development, performance feedback and challenge (Dong and Rohrbaugh 2011). There is substantial evidence that organizational commitment is positively related to organizational career support (Ito and Brotheridge 2005; Ito et al. 2013; Kidd and Green 2006). It is revealed that career opportunities and programmes that are linked to employees' needs tune such individuals towards winning such openings thus becoming motivated, commitment, and with low turnover intentions (Chang 1999; Dong and Rohrbaugh 2011(3);

Meyer et al. 1993(3)). Such support, however, varies across organizations, and may not be for all employees, yet all wish to have professional opportunities for growth to avoid dissatisfaction (Hu and Schaufeli 2011). Furthermore, to validate such findings and arguments, Hu and Schaufeli (2011) call for inclusion of other measures such as job security, salary, and actual turnover, duly considered here.

Interestingly, career support is an investment which is costly and requires aligning individuals' needs with those of the organization, a practice that may elude many managers, and also fail to be comprehended by employees themselves. Some employees fail to define their career focus and career needs for support. This is contrary to the argument that 'employees are aware of their career paths and the developmental plans associated with movement to the next level' (Love and Singh 2011 p.179). Some employees' career path is actually shaped by management, which may not be positively beneficial to an individual.

Similarly, career development, succession planning, and promotional opportunities (Love and Singh 2011) should be interdependently related. But still, the challenge remains with the availability of those opportunities to a greater number, and the fairness with which they are provided. Fair access to career support and fair advancement procedures remain essential (Campbell et al. 2013; Loi et al. 2006).

3.3.5 Promotional opportunities

Promotion is the elevation of employee(s) from a lower to a higher level position within the organization. It is an internal mechanism of usually recognizing the effort and performance that should come with additional benefits. Research indicates a positive relationship between promotions and perceptions of HR strategy and practice, job satisfaction and/or commitment, and thus turnover intention (Allen et al. 1999; Chang 1999; Ito and Brotheridge 2005; Ito et al. 2013). According to Johnston et al (1993), promoted employees are likely to exhibit higher organizational commitment. D'Amato and Herzfeldt (2008) clearly point out promotion as one of the key tactics organizations can employ to retain their talent.

However, not all individuals will value upward advancement (Johnston et al. 1993), and additionally, Boles et al (2007) argue that promotion is likely to have more effect on men than women. Promotion as a retention strategy has implications for both employees and organizations. Additionally, the process of promotion may cause concerns between the promoted and non-promoted if it is perceived as unfair (Campbell et al. 2013; Loi et al. 2006). Considerable analysis is required to ascertain if promotions are done on merit and with the fairness they deserve within the context of equity theory (Huseman et al. 1987(8); Pritchard 1969(8)) and reciprocity norm under the social exchange theory (Eisenberger et al. 2002(8)). Promotions at times could be successful at positively influencing employee attitudes and

behaviours, but they could at the same time be detrimental and cause tension and disharmony within an organization (Campbell et al. 2013; Loi et al. 2006). An assessment of promotion calls for contextual and perceptual analysis.

3.3.6 Performance Management

This is a process by which employees and their managers/supervisors set and agree on performance standards and the required support to work towards the achievement of set goals. According to Armstrong (2009(8)), performance management is a means of getting better results by understanding and managing performance within an agreed framework of planned goals, standards and competency requirements. This results in performance appraisal which is the formal assessment and rating of individuals' performance by their supervisors at or after a review meeting (usually done twice or once a year (DeCenzo and Robbins 2003(8)). It is noted that performance management is an ongoing process throughout the performance period, while performance appraisal is a periodical formal assessment of achievement of work standards.

Employees should have performance standards they work towards meeting, and also exhibit certain behavioural standards against which their performance is assessed through appraisal, and feedback given for developmental purposes rather than merely for evaluation (Cheng-Hua et al. 2009). Indeed, with performance management and appraisal realistically setting and clearly defining job standards that individual employees work towards meeting, and upon which their performance is assessed, it is of little surprise that studies show a strong negative relationship for this variable and turnover intention (Finegold et al. 2002; Karatepe 2013a; Karatepe 2013b; Kuvaas 2008). Unless perceived and explained otherwise, employees expect supportive and fair performance management practices as opposed to unfair and stressful processes (Armstrong-Stassen and Schlosser 2010; Cropanzano et al. 2003). In light of this argument, Kuvas (2008) established that perception of performance appraisal was significantly related to turnover intentions, but this relationship dropped with the inclusion of employee-organization relationship in the analysis. This further raises concerns over supervisor-employee relationship which is important in performance management. In a meta-analysis by Herschcovis and Barling (2010), supervisor aggression had strong negative relationship with work attitudes of job satisfactions, organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Such concerns are likely to have implications over perceptions and thus satisfaction and commitment levels.

Fair and objective performance management including performance feedback and actual performance achievement are actual stimuli to positive attitudes and subsequent behavioural outcomes through great motivations associated with strong commitment levels. In addition, the performance management process

provides opportunities for training, career support, promotion and improved pay (Armstrong-Stassen and Schlosser 2010; Dong and Rohrbaugh 2011; Finegold et al. 2002). However, the implications for poor performance management, poor performance or negative feedback, on job satisfaction, employee engagement, organizational commitment and turnover cognitions need to be considered (Michie and West 2004). Performance management and appraisal cannot be measured globally, but context-specific (Frimousse et al. 2012) as supportive factors in one organization or country may not exist in another.

3.3.7 Financial Rewards

Rewards have generally been categorized differently: extrinsic, intrinsic and, social rewards (Williamson et al. 2009(8)) or financial and non-financial rewards (Armstrong 2010(8); DeCenzo and Robbins 2003(8)). Explaining the first categorization: extrinsic rewards are tangible, material things provided by the work environment, for example pay; and intrinsic rewards are intangible benefits with inner/psychological satisfactions that an employee derives from a work environment, for example autonomy; while social rewards are the positive interpersonal relationships that an employee is able to enjoy from a workplace, for example co-worker relationships (Williamson et al. 2009(8)). In the second categorization; financial rewards are all rewards with monetary value, and they enhance the financial well-being of the employee, for example base pay, performance-based pay, service-related pay, and pension (Armstrong 2010(8); DeCenzo and Robbins 2003(8)). Non-financial rewards, on the other hand, are non-monetary in nature, and can include both intrinsic and extrinsic aspects, which are not of monetary nature (Armstrong 2010(8)). This study specifically focuses on financial rewards excluding pension, which is addressed differently following its considerable relative influence across different sectors.

Financial rewards are the most initial and generally expected reward that is always part of the recruitment and selection process, thereby influencing an individual's employment decisions. Apart from attracting job candidates, financial rewards affect employee attitudes and behaviours. Evidence indicates existence of a link between pay and job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Back et al. 2011; Chi and Chen 2007; Dong and Rohrbaugh 2011; Ito et al. 2013). It is also revealed that employees are likely to be more committed if a pay system for example is attached to attendance and work done compared to when absence is not followed with any loss of pay (Bennett 2002). This, however, does not account for situations where employees are not strictly monitored for attendance, but with standard payments regularly effected. Salary has also been reflected as a significant predictor of intention to leave the science profession (Kidd and Green 2006). This finding in particular has serious implications for a developing country such as Uganda, which has significantly lost its science professionals because of limited pay

(Lwamafa 2008(8)). However, such a finding arising from a UK study, one of the countries believed to be attracting key professional staff from the developing countries, supports our research that explores developing country employee perceptions of financial rewards as a retention strategy.

There is also a strong evidence that financial rewards influence turnover decisions. It has been actually analyzed as the leading reason for voluntary turnover (Allen et al. 1999; Boles et al. 2007; De Vos and Meganck 2008; Johnston et al. 1993). Bennett (2002) presented findings indicative of a culture of employees being attached to the organization primarily for financial rewards. Other studies (Allen et al. 1999; Cheng-Hua et al. 2009; Finegold et al. 2002) established a strong negative relationship between pay and changing companies. The influence of pay on retention efforts is demonstrated by evidence of promoted leavers as a result of limited increase in their salary compared to other non-promoted colleagues (Johnston et al. 1993). The cited studies, however, posit a belief that employees simply work for pay. This, however, does not consider the work ethic (Noon and Blyton 2002(8)) that could explain people's continuity in work with low pay. Emphasis on financial rewards also ignores context. Because of economic limitations, developing countries would find it very challenging to implement a competitive financial reward strategy for retention. Further still, there is evidence of low pay in developing economies such as Uganda (Lwamafa 2008(8)) as retention remains a problem. While there are variations in pay across sectors, organizations and departments, hardly any studies do exist that examine these aspects.

3.3.8 Pension and Retirement Benefits

The previous section has reflected pension as one of the financial benefits to employees. Its uniqueness, however, is that it is normally received after an employee's employment, thereby significantly influencing an individual's quality of life after employment. Different sectors and organizations, however, run different pension schemes. There are currently two different retirement schemes in Uganda; the Government Pension scheme (for civil servants) and the contributory scheme (for employees of the private and the NGO sectors, and non-civil service government employees such as employees of Authorities and Government Departments).

The different pension schemes have different implications. The government pension is fully paid for by the government, while contributory scheme is based on both payroll deductions from the employees, and the contributions by the employer. Secondly, in addition to receiving gratuity at retirement, civil servants continue receiving pension, while beneficiaries of the contributory scheme only get a pension based on the saved amount plus return on investment. In this respect, pensions have been revealed as developing strong commitment in government service (Dong and Rohrbaugh 2011). Lwamafa (2008(8)) alluded to

pension as a key factor contributing to attraction and retention of employees in the Uganda's civil service. This is more so because pension is dependent on the number of years in service in addition to the rank and salary. Considering the variations in salary as already discussed, the relatively higher salaries in the private and NGO sectors should yield higher pension savings compared to calculations based on lower government salaries. Secondly, Lwamafa (2008(8)) did not collect employees' views; hence the current study addresses this limitation. Thirdly, pension's influence in government service is likely to dwindle due to delays in its processing, which is coupled with corruption scandals.

Transferability of pension also remains a critical matter with implications for this study. Savings under the contributory scheme stop on joining civil service and such a contributing employee is entitled to claim his/her savings even before reaching the statutory retirement age of 60 years. This means such savings cannot be transferred from the contributory savings scheme to government pension scheme. Similarly, a civil servant cannot transfer pension from government to a savings contributory scheme, and he/she cannot automatically claim the savings on leaving the government service. For qualification for pension, the Civil service considers length of service and age, which are generally high (a minimum of 20 years of service and 45 years of age, for voluntary retirement), or on attainment of the mandatory retirement age of 60 years. Without meeting the requirements, a civil servant only gets gratuity. Mixed implications arise: 1) employees operating under the government pension scheme are likely to stay longer than their counterparts on contributory scheme, who can easily access their savings on switching service. 2) The civil service could experience retention difficulties in the early service of its employees as; i) other sector employees simply join the civil service as a means to accessing their saved pension under the contributory scheme, and ii) the amount of pension is low, while requirements for qualification to obtain it are too high amidst future uncertainties, which can prompt easy switching to other sectors.

3.3.9 Job Security

Job security deals with one's level of assurance in continued employment with a particular employer. It is considerably regarded in one's life of work and its importance is traced from the works of Abraham Maslow (Bernhard-Oettel et al. 2011; Elst et al. 2011). Job security is believed to solicit an employee's confidence in an organization and its management as it (job insecurity) is likely to cause a sense of powerlessness with workers developing perceived lack of control and anxiety (Jensen et al. 2013(8)). Employees therefore prefer long-tenured work relationships which become the foundation for reinforcing a cycle of positive interactions (Rust et al. 1996(8)). However, this is believed to vary across sectors (Lwamafa 2008(8)) with the private sector perceived as posing job security limitations in comparison to the public sector.

The public, the private, and the NGO sectors have different approaches to managing job security as entrenched in the forms of appointments to their respective services. Public servants especially the civil service employment is on permanent and pensionable terms with employees protected from any form of victimization, and with detailed disciplinary procedures aimed at ensuring fairness (Uganda. 1995(8); Uganda. 2006a(8)). Additionally, the history of civil service prides itself in providing job security which enhances loyalty (Kiapi 1984) and continuity of service through permanence without victimization (Lwamafa 2008(8); Mitala 2003(8)). However, literature reveals existence of changes including globalization and de-regularization of markets demanding flexibility (De Vos and Meganck 2008(8)) as well as administrative reforms like down-sizing (Bernhard-Oettel et al. 2011; Freese et al. 2011; Kakumba and Fennell 2014(8)) which have resulted in job insecurity. Such reforms are likely causes of anxiety and turnover intentions.

To the contrary, the private and the third sector employees are hired on contractual basis and such contracts can be terminated so long as due notice and justifiable reasons are established (Uganda. 2006a(8)). In their meta-analysis, Jiang et al. (2012, p.1079) reveal that 'public organizations usually provide relatively secure and low-risk jobs in comparison to the private sector' (and third sector). The same evidence also demonstrates that people with high regard for job security and with high risk avoidance are more likely to work in the public sector. Despite all the arguments, little is known to explain continued turnover in the public service, which has been claimed to offer job security; and the continued service by employees in the private sector amidst little accounts for job security.

3.3.10 Employee involvement/ Empowerment

Employee involvement is a means of providing a degree of autonomy, participation in decision making, as well as two-way information sharing, which is said to be beneficial to both the organization and employees in achieving employee satisfaction (Michie and West 2004) and organizational commitment, thereby reducing turnover intentions. It remains, however, unclear to management and employees alike, on the required and actual level of involvement.

Communication has been applauded as contributing significantly to long term effective functioning of the organization (Kittler et al. 2011(8)). It influences job satisfaction, enhances organizational commitment, and decreases turnover intention (Back et al. 2011; Hom and Xiao 2011; Love and Singh 2011). Employees feel trusted to share information on matters of the organization, and hence provide objective feedback (Hom and Xiao 2011) based on trust (Neves and Caetano 2009). The limitation as Rust et al's (1996(8)) argues, however, is in management accepting employees as valuable contributors whose

opinions and perceptions are important sources of knowledge. Peters and Waterman (1982) as cited by Armstrong (1988 (8), p.1; 2009 (8), p.345) amplify the importance of trust:

> *"Trust people and treat them like adults, enthuse them by likely and imaginative leadership, develop and demonstrate an obsession for quality, make them feel they own the business, and your work force will respond with total commitment'.*

The extent to which employees are trusted, allowing them to feel empowered, freely share their opinions, and influence work is a point of interest. Of interest is management's provision of information to, and gathering feedback from employees regarding the organization's overall business strategy for effective communication within the context of HPWS (Love and Singh 2011). In as much as Back et al (2011) established that communication has significant effect on job satisfaction and intention to stay among casino employees, information sharing is, however, effective if done on mutual basis between both employees and management as opposed to emphasis of seniority gap as in the public sector (Kiapi 1984(8)). Similarly, communication effectiveness requires consideration of cultural specific facets that are important in the understanding and interpretation of issues at hand (Kittler et al. 2011(8)).

It is also argued that employees appreciate when they feel they influence their work rather than merely making recommendations that may largely be ignored by management (Chen et al. 2012), or delay in implementation. Whether employees meaningfully make decisions and have control over their work (Pare and Tremblay 2007) is again an issue of empowerment that requires building their capacity and trust to address risk-averseness of some employees (Jiang et al. 2012). The operational environment, however, differs across different sectors. Kiapi (1984) for example shows how a civil servant is supposed to implement decisions of top management and the government of the day without question. This can in turn become a challenge to employee involvement and empowerment, and employee commitment.

3.3.11 Social Atmosphere

The environment in which one works, the nature of interactions with others, and how well they cope with work performance, is instrumental in determining the willingness to stay and continue in service. De Vos and Megarch (2008) presented social atmosphere and a good relationship with colleagues as the most frequently cited reason for staying. Such relationships should be developed to go outside the boundaries of traditional hierarchies where by employees are treated in a similar way to customers (Rust et al. 1996). This notion is, however, different from the bureaucratic arrangement where official matters are different from private life (Kiapi 1984). Such relationships have been more pronounced in the private sector than in

the public sector, and an analysis of how this affects employee commitment at different levels becomes interesting.

In general, variations in the implementation of the different strategies in the different sectors should influence respective sector and institutional employees. Secondly, it has been emphasized not to simply consider the strategies as mere HR practices forming the human resource system, but we should focus on distinctive aspects that influence employees' interpretation or perception of such strategies. The next section considers the relationships (3.4) by examining the perceptions of the discussed retention strategies (3.4.1) and the likely implication for employees' attitudes: the psychological contract in terms of expectations (3.4.2), job satisfaction (3.4.3), employee engagement (3.4.4), and organizational commitment as influencing turnover intention and turnover (3.4.5).

3.4 Relationships of variables

3.4.1 Employee Perception of Retention Strategies

Drawing from theories of social exchange and perceived social Support (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005; Eisenberger et al. 1986; Eisenberger et al. 2002), employees are likely to assess different strategies in terms of extent to which they are supportive. Employees' positive perception of the strategies as being supportive should enlist reciprocal relationship with the organization (Brunetto et al. 2010; Brunetto et al. 2014; Brunetto et al. 2012a; Lopina et al. 2012). Some practices are perceived as signalling investment in human capital or their wellbeing and fair treatment (Allen et al. 2003; Eisenberger et al. 1986) and thus being supportive of human resources' developmental needs (Kuvaas 2008). This perceived support is likely to influence the attitudes and subsequent behaviours of employees towards their employing organizations and supervisors or managers.

Perceived support has been mainly analyzed in two forms: perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived supervisor support (PSS) (Kuvaas 2008; Maertz Jr. et al. 2007). Employees' perceptions of their organization's commitment to them and the extent to which they belief that the organization values their contributions and thus cares about their well-being (Kuvaas and Dysvik 2010; Kuvaas 2008; Maertz Jr. et al. 2007) constitutes POS. The essence here is that HR practices and strategies are means through which employee perceptions, attitudes and behaviours are shaped. Thus, caution ought to be taken that employees may perceive the objectives of certain practices differently from the organization's intention (Alfes et al. 2013(3); Kuvaas 2008). Emphasis should be paid to evaluating different strategies that result

in retention (De Vos and Meganck 2008(8)) and their perceptions rather than simply implement HR practices as basic standards.

PSS, on the other hand, is when employees tend to evaluate the degree to which supervisors value their contributions and care about their (employees') development and well-being (Maertz Jr. et al. 2007). Basing on social exchange theories, Loi et al (2009) argued that employee-organizational exchange is related to the quality of the exchange relationship between the subordinates and their supervisors. It is in this respect that a long-term and trusting relationship can be established between the employees and the organization through the socio-emotional exchange that is existent in the leader-member exchange (Loi et al. 2009) and the perceived support (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005; Eisenberger et al. 1986; Eisenberger et al. 2002). However, PSS is likely to be misused by some managers wielding unnecessary influence at the expense of the organization (Newman et al. 2011 p.66). Similarly, the perception of the strategies should vary among employees and across sectors, organizations and contexts, depending on respective values. Importantly, employees do not evaluate practices in view of only organizations and supervisors. The impact of the strategies on their general wellbeing counts independently.

There is evidence of studies that have examined and linked perceptions of HR practices to different attitudes and behavioural outcomes like job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions and turnover (Joo 2010; Loi et al. 2009; Maertz Jr. et al. 2007; Tymon Jr et al. 2011). In a meta-analysis by Banks et al (2014), leader-member exchange (LMX) and turnover intentions had a negative correlation and POS has been found to result in high commitment (Campbell et al. 2013; Joo 2010), while in another meta-analysis (Hershcovis and Barling 2010) it is clearly demonstrateed that supervision aggression has the strongest adverse effects on attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. In their study of repatriates, Chi and Chen (2007, p.477) argued that:

> *'if a repatriate perceives her employer as caring and supportive, even when she sees a low cost and high benefit of leaving the company, she may still reciprocate the organization with steadfast loyalty and recognize it as a warm and supportive job environment.'*

Perception of strategies is, however, likely to vary according to an individual's feelings, but fairness should address this concern through objective or just and equitable managerial strategies and practices. Campbell et al (2013) for example established that distributive and interactive justices were only significantly related to PSS and not POS, with only procedural justice being positively related to both (PSS and POS). Perception of retention strategies may therefore differ depending on supervisor-organizational orientation towards employees and vice-versa. Strategies without hidden intentions referred to as 'perceived disinterested support' (Mignonac and Richebe 2013, p.74) result in perceived

organizational support and organizational commitment hence low turnover intention. The strategies having open-ended obligations with long-term reciprocity (Shore et al. 2009) affect social support. The assessment of retention strategies in view of HPWS as being exploitative to workers (Jensen et al. 2013(8)), provides effective analysis. Retentions strategies should therefore be objectively and fairly implemented for positive perceptions.

Employee perceptions are also likely to vary between the public and private sectors. Brunetto et al (2010) established a positive relationship between perception of morale and nurses' perception of affective commitment in the public sector. Private sector nurses were, on the other hand, more satisfied with supervision than the public sector nurses, and thus reported higher levels of commitment.

With clarity in perceptions of retention strategies, employees should within the JD-R model, assess whether the strategies either create job demands on them by being stressful and thus causing dissatisfaction and low engagement, or job resources in terms of being supportive by reducing job demands, enhancing goal achievement and creating psychological satisfaction and engagement in work and the organization (Hu and Schaufeli 2011; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004(5)). It is also important to know if the strategies are in line with employee expectations. In this regard, the psychological contract, employee engagement, and job satisfaction are examined next.

3.4.2 The psychological contract

Extant literature advances mixed relationships (positive and negative) between the psychological contract fulfilment and job satisfaction (McDonald and Makin 2000(8)), commitment (Chi and Chen 2007; Cohen 2011(8)), and turnover intention (Robinson et al. 1994(8); Steve Chi and Chen 2007(8); Wang and Hsieh 2014(8)). In some studies of the psychological contract and its effect on employee attitudes and behaviours (Cohen 2011(8); Rousseau 1998(8); Rousseau 2001(8)), relational psychological contracts positively related to commitment but; transactional contracts negatively related to commitment (Cohen 2011(8)). Relational contracts emphasis social exchange relationships with employees identifying with the employer mentorship and socialization, while transactional contracts focus on short term economic exchanges as employees believe the employer is obligated to them. Additionally, Cohen (2011(8)) reported variations in perceptions of psychological contract breach across the permanent and temporary staff, age, gender and level of education, yet these vary with context.

It is observed that most of the considered HR retention strategies such as career support, employee benefits, supportive environment, support towards performance, and training among others are also

revealed as employee expectations (Atkinson 2007(8)). Hiring practices are perceived as initiating the psychological contract by allowing exchange of information and clarification of roles (Nickson et al. 2008(8)). The implications of strategies and expectations are, however, different as the strategies come from management, while the expectations are held by the employees. It is therefore prudent to examine the effect of held expectations different from fulfilment of such expectations, as the fulfilment comes after a period of developing and nursing expectations. The expectations on their own can influence job satisfaction, engagement, commitment and turnover intentions in anticipation of fulfilment of expectations (Hamilton and von Treuer 2012(8); Robinson et al. 1994(8); Robinson and Rousseau 1994(8)).

3.4.3 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction provides a peace of mind to the worker allowing him/her to bond with the organization. Blau (2009) for example, concluded that employees who are unhappy with their jobs (and mainly foresee similar challenges like low pay and poor working conditions) may begin to think about leaving. This study postulates job satisfaction (being the state of one's feeling about his/her job) to be experienced first before influencing commitment and turnover intentions. This is because satisfied workers are likely to stay and 'spread the positive word of mouth to others' (Back et al. 2011, p.112). Similarly, reinforcing the level of commitment with job satisfaction should strongly influence turnover intentions and turnover (Blau 2009). This is because employees are likely to believe in the organization's values, mission and goals (Chen et al. 2012). Ensuring that retention strategies first develop job satisfaction in the process of commitment and retention should provide strong positive attitudinal and behavioural impetus.

However, the influence of job satisfaction is likely to vary with individual and organizational factors. Still, some studies (e.g.: Currivan 1999; Yalabik et al. 2013(8)) despite acknowledging existence of research supporting the linkages, did not find any significant relationship between job satisfaction and commitment; leading Currivan (1999) to rule out existence of a causal ordering relationship to the effect. A longitudinal study by Lee and Rwigema (2005) surprisingly established that *stayers* actually had significantly lower satisfaction and commitment than did the leavers in South Africa. The changes in satisfaction, commitment, and withdraw intentions, however, only developed in the six months period prior to the decision as it was the case in Porter et al (1976(2)). These findings have their own implications: 1) management can address turnover intentions and eventual turnover by facilitating improvement in satisfaction levels of the dissatisfied, and also maintain the satisfaction of the satisfied employees. 2) Basing on the expressed levels of satisfaction, management may tend to assume that all is well with their employees, and this may instead alter employees' satisfaction levels and thus commitment

and turnover intentions. Methodologically, such findings of longitudinal studies point to gaps inherent in one-off cross-sectional studies that may miss on attitudinal changes for lack of time lag follow-up.

3.4.4 Employee Engagement

Evidence from growing literature demonstrates the importance of employee engagement in employment research and organizational management (Alfes et al. 2013(3); Alfes et al. 2010(8); Brunetto et al. 2012b; Karatepe 2013b; MacLeod and Clarke 2009(8); Truss et al. 2013(3)). Despite appreciating the contribution of engagement in influencing employee behaviours and work outcomes, there is no consensus on its meaning and application across different organizations (Alfes et al. 2010(8); Truss et al. 2013(3)). MacLeod and Clarke (2009(8)) expressed management's unawareness of employee engagement and its benefits. It is generally supported as an area of further research to provide its better understanding and application as well as influence in employment (Alfes et al. 2010(8); Truss et al. 2013(3)). The current study contributes to this area especially from a developing country perspective.

The relationship with and effect of employee engagement on other employee attitudes and behaviours such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions remain unclear. As there are studies showing a link between a number of aspects like employee retention strategies (e.g., selection, employee involvement, performance management, training, pay, job security, career) and employee engagement (Alfes et al. 2010(8); Hu and Schaufeli 2011; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004(5)), and employee engagement and organizational commitment (Karatepe 2013b; Yalabik et al. 2013(8)), there is also evidence suggesting that organizational commitment results in engagement (Yalabik et al. 2013(8)) while others like Karatepe (2013a(3); 2013b) established a direct influence of engagement on turnover intentions. The varying results of different studies pose mixed perceptions of the influence of different variables, and thus support our research on engagement as recommended (Karatepe 2013b; MacLeod and Clarke 2009(8); Truss et al. 2013(3)). With further variations in findings across the public and the private sectors (Alfes et al. 2010(8); Brunetto et al. 2012a), this study goes further to include the NGO sector, which is generally believed to have flexible structures (De Vos and Meganck 2008(8)) and management practices.

Having been described as a highly physical and mental absorbing process (absorption), and with rigour and dedication, we further envisage a situation where engagement is associated with job-demands that may cause dissatisfaction differently from the positive effect on satisfaction (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004(5)). Consistent with studies calling for research on engagement in Sub-Saharan Africa (Karatepe and Demir 2014); we examine engagement within the JD-R model (Bakker and Demerouti 2007(8); Hu

and Schaufeli 2011; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004(5)) basing on employees' interpretations of retention strategies. The resultant engagement or satisfaction levels based on the attributions to job demands and job resources should influence commitment as discussed next.

3.4.5 Organizational Commitment

Organizational Commitment is largely considered as an attitudinal construct with strong influence on other employee attitudes as well as behaviours (Allen and Meyer 1990(2); Boles et al. 2007; Dewettinck and van Ameijde 2011; Meyer et al. 1993(3)). It is believed as creating a bond between an employee and the organization hence negatively impacting on employees' turnover intentions (Mellor et al. 2001).

Allen and Meyer (1990(2)) assert that each of the three components of organizational commitment leads to a common outcome of staying with the organization. This study therefore, first, examines how several factors can result in organizational commitment (Swailes 2002(8)) since it is exemplified as a key outcome in influencing employee decisions, and second, how each of its components influences turnover intention.

The influence of organizational commitment on turnover intentions and actual turnover is evident in literature (Allen et al. 2003; Baruch and Winkelmann-Gleed 2002; Brunetto et al. 2010; Brunetto et al. 2012b; Loi et al. 2009). It has been demonstrated that highly committed employees highly identify themselves with the organization, are loyal and have a strong bond that links them with the organization hence willing to stay longer. In this regard, fostering organizational commitment would strengthen employees' willingness to stay with their organizations thereby substantially reducing actual turnover. Factors such as career support, training, communication, remuneration, empowerment, teamwork, benefits, work-life balance or emotional satisfactions have been examined as antecedents to organizational commitment either directly or mediated by some other factors like job satisfaction, and perceived support among others (Back et al. 2011; Brunetto et al. 2012b; Campbell et al. 2013). Accordingly, extant literature provides high regard to organizational commitment in influencing other employee attitudes and behaviours. However, the mechanisms through which several strategies can develop strong organizational commitment and hence influence turnover intention need to be critically examined in view of context and sectors.

Research, however, also exists challenging and questioning the conceptualization of organizational commitment and its relationship with turnover. Some studies (e.g.: Blau 2009; Edwards 2005(8); Jaros 1997(1); Ko et al. 1997(3); Solinger et al. 2008(3)) have raised concerns over the generalizability of the

model, conceptualization of commitment and its dimensionality, and measurement scales. Just as some studies support the model in some contexts (Allen et al. 2003; Culpepper et al. 2004; Powell and Meyer 2004(4)); there are also a number of contradicting and critical studies with varying results in respect of context, conceptualization, and study design (Chang 1999; Jaros 1997(1); Ko et al. 1997(3); Solinger et al. 2008(3)). Solinger et al. (2008(3)) for example refers to the three-component model as a model of predicting turnover and not a general model of organizational commitment. With regard to the dimensionality of commitment, some scholars (e.g.: Blau 2009; Iverson and Buttigieg 1999; Lapointe et al. 2011) argue that organizational commitment is best conceptualized as a four component construct (affective, normative, low perceived alternatives and high personal sacrifice) with the last two arising as a result of splitting continuance commitment. Nevertheless, continued research by some scholars objects to continuance commitment being two-dimensional (Jaros 1997(1); Jaros and Culpepper 2014; Ko et al. 1997(3); Lee et al. 2001(8); Meyer and Herscovitch 2001(8); Powell and Meyer 2004(4)). Some literature recommends dropping perceived low alternatives as a sub-dimension of, and considering it as an antecedent to continuance commitment thereby continuance commitment having only perceived high sacrifice i.e., remaining uni-dimensional (Ko et al. 1997(3); Lee et al. 2001(8); Powell and Meyer 2004(4)). All these concerns raise the need to re-examine commitment, and develop a general model applicable to different contexts including the developing world.

In addition to concerns over the conceptualization of the relationships (Kumar and Bhatnagar 2010), and emphasis on explanation of organizational commitment (Edwards 2005(8); Swailes 2002(8)), our discussion (under section 3.2.6) has already highlighted concerns of causal ordering with regard to job satisfaction and commitment (Currivan 1999; Yalabik et al. 2013(8)), and employee engagement and commitment (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004(5); Yalabik et al. 2013(5)). This study envisages positively perceived employee retention strategies contributing to organizational commitment through enhanced job satisfaction and employee engagement. Considering all the three dimensions of commitment addresses the limitation of some studies that have focused on only one factor since it has been indicated that the benefits of the dimensions are different, and that greater understanding of employee relationships with an organization is best achieved by considering all the three forms of commitment (Meyer et al. 1993(3)). From a less researched context, the study contributes to better understanding of organizational commitment and its components as well as their influence on turnover intentions and actual turnover. It has for example been observed that the high correlations between affective and normative commitment dimensions suggest an overlap between the two; while there have been limited associations between affective commitment and the other two: continuance and normative (Jaros 1997(1); Ko et al. 1997(3)). These can be explored further and examined in the new model. Indeed, findings in the Western countries

vary from those in the East, and also as explained by Frimousse et al (2012), it is hard to simply internationalize practices, but there is need to have at least some hybridization which calls for understanding the local context and discerning what is plausible and applicable.

Similarly, evidence shows that most of the studies have been largely quantitative with a few exceptional ones such as Tymon Jr et al. (2011) who applauded in-depth analysis of issues and the use of quotations to back up explanations. Indeed there have been prominent calls for interpretative research to provide in-depth understanding of organizational commitment (Rahman and Nas 2013(8); Swailes 2002(8)), to which this study responds by providing an in-depth analysis of the data in order to extensively and intensively explain the aspects of the study. Furthermore, it is important to identify contextual, organizational and individual factors that could influence employees' attitudes and behaviours. Issues like national culture, sector, organizational nature, available job alternatives, and demographic factors such as age, gender, qualification and skills; nature of the job, tenure and position held, are duly considered and reviewed in the next section.

3.5 Demographic and contextual factors

Organizational commitment is likely to be influenced by varying contextual, organizational and demographic factors. Some of these include: age, gender, level of education qualification, position, seniority, and organizational tenure (Bergh 2001; Brunetto et al. 2010; Chen and Francesco 2000). The mentioned variables are examined in this section.

3.5.1 Age

There are mixed results on age with regard to commitment and turnover. Some evidence (e.g.: D'Amato and Herzfeldt 2008) asserts that young employees are less willing to stay and show low commitment. This is in line with other studies (de Reuver and van Woerkom 2010) that have established that older employees express less absenteeism and thus more committed, and are less intending to leave (Elst et al. 2011). Older employees could in this regard be working with retirement plans in mind as opposed to younger ones. However, this may vary, for example Nijhof et al (1998) notes that younger employees as opposed to older ones are more committed, because they are highly motivated to start their career and able to cope with the change, whereas older ones are less committed because they are often disappointed. Such varying accounts confirm the relevance of age in explaining variations is commitment levels.

3.5.2 Gender

Gender has been reflected as moderating the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover, with the relationship being weaker for female than male employees (Chen and Francesco 2000). While Warhurst et al. (2012(8)) established sex differences within different occupational groups, Karatepe and Demir (2014) for example posit that female employees find it hard to integrate work and the family. McQuaid and Chen (2012) on their part report that women travel less hours to work than men. These findings may, however, vary according to the level of emancipation, flexi-working arrangements, and family support programmes in particular contexts. There is some evidence that females have higher leisure ethic, low money ethic and thus low levels of commitment (Cunningham et al. 2012), while men are increasingly being pressurised to look good (Warhurst et al. 2012(8)), an aspect which can affect their commitment. It has also been revealed that with regard to some retention strategies, males are more interested in promotions and pay than females (Boles et al. 2007). Increasing responsibilities being held by women in modern societies (both at work and in families) may, however, challenge such a finding and therefore necessitating further attention.

3.5.3 Education and qualification level

Varying accounts also exist for education and qualification with regard to commitment. Nijhof, et al (1998) suggests that the highly educated employees have a high level of commitment since education opens more possibilities to do work that one likes. However, it is also evident that the highly educated and qualified employees are likely to attract a number of potential employers competing for their services (Armstrong 2009(8); DeCenzo and Robbins 2003(8)) and sometimes willing to facilitate them compared to what the current employers are giving. Additionally, perceived over-qualification may result in perceived underemployment and thus poor job satisfaction, low commitment, and higher intention to turnover (Maynard et al. 2006). Results, however, vary across studies as some evidence fails to show the need for education, for example in advertisements (Nickson et al. 2005(8)), as well as its influence in the relationship between commitment and turnover (Chen and Francesco 2000). With developing countries such as Uganda highly embracing education and qualifications, this factor is important in employment in general and thus commitment and retention in particular.

3.5.4 The family

The issue of the family is broad as it involves several aspects like the position in the family, the number of children, and other dependents. The family remains central in someone's life (Noon and Blyton 2002) even in matters of employment. Iverson (1999) established kinship responsibility as having significant

negative relationship with turnover and this varied between males and females as well as age. He therefore concluded that turnover is low in situations where employees take on fewer kinship responsibilities. However, this argument is counter to his finding that employees with greater family obligations were less likely to resign. Such results point to interesting findings in a developing (African) context of Uganda, with generally big families and kinship responsibilities (Uganda 2014(8)). Indeed, it can be reasoned that the demands of running a family are high and before one considers leaving a job, he/she is likely to first consider the needs of the family.

3.5.5 The sector and the nature of the organization

Different sectors and organizations tend to define policies and strategies that lead them to competitiveness and these may vary and thus have implications for retention and commitment. Studies (e.g.: Alfes et al. 2010(8); Baruch and Winkelmann-Gleed 2002) provide evidence of different practices and employee attitudes, behaviours, and work outcomes varying across different sectors (the public, the private and the third-sector). Private sector nurses were more satisfied with supervision, had greater morale, and were more committed (Brunetto et al. 2010). This may, however, vary with context as in some places nurses may prefer working for the public sector. There is also evidence of variations in pay, tenure, and pension (Lwamafa 2008(8)) across the sectors and these should influence employees' responses to commitment and retention efforts.

3.5.6 The position of an employee in an organization

Employees in higher positions often participate in decision making and this makes them have a sense of belonging compared to those in lower management positions. It follows that senior employees are more likely to have a higher level of commitment (Chen and Francesco 2000; Finegold et al. 2002; Nijhof et al. 1998(8)). On the other hand, evidence also contradicts such a position by demonstrating that managers are likely to express more intention to leave the organization (Elst et al. 2011). It has been pointed out that senior officers in Uganda usually abandon their work to the lower staff as the former focus on their personal businesses, or work for extra income elsewhere (Lwamafa 2008(8)). However, some positions also have responsibility demands that can create pressure and impact on commitment and turnover intention.

3.6 Conclusions with implications for the developing world

This chapter examined and demonstrated that employee retention strategies and organizational commitment are important in examining the challenge of employee retention. However, retention efforts

and actual employee retention seem to vary. The degree to which an employee is willing to continue staying with the organization is perceived to be dependent on the congruence of the goals and values of the individual and those of the organization; in form of organizational commitment (Armstrong 2009(8); Boles et al. 2007), as well as other factors (such as alternative opportunities). However, there are contradictions in the meaning, conceptualization, dimensionality, measures, as well as findings with regard to commitment across different contexts. These contradictions have raised the need for further studies especially in least researched areas (Addae et al. 2008; Karatepe 2013a(3); Powell and Meyer 2004(4)) as organizational commitment seemingly remains of considerable influence in retention efforts.

Several retention strategies such as selective hiring practices, career support, training and development, financial rewards, promotions, job security, employee involvement, social environment (Jiang et al. 2012; Pare and Tremblay 2007; Zacharatos et al. 2007) have been reviewed, and they are not just retention strategies but they often serve other, or multiple purposes, for example, improving employee engagement to enhance innovation or customer satisfaction. However, their effectiveness varies with context, sector, and organization. For example, pensions are believed to be more important in the public than in the private sector (Lwamafa 2008(8)) while employee involvement is perceived to have a stronger influence in the third-sector with supportive organizational structures (De Vos and Meganck 2008) that encourage interaction, teamwork, communication, and autonomy. It is important to examine the retention strategies existent in different organizations and the contributions they make for such organizations.

Similarly, it has been emphasized that employee retention strategies ought to be positively perceived by employees as being supportive (Alfes et al. 2013(3)). As such, perceptions influence job satisfaction and employee engagement which should strongly influence organizational commitment (Hu and Schaufeli 2011; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004(5)). Organizational commitment inturn creates the bond between employees and their organizations, threby strongly and negatively impacting turnover intentions and hence reducing actual turnover and employee retention. However, literature has also demonstrated that management's intention for strategy implementation may not be in tandem with employee interests and perceptions (Alfes et al. 2013(3); Alfes et al. 2010(8); Kehoe and Wright 2013(3)). There are also theoretical limitations; for example, social exchange largely ignores the altruism principle.

Overall, the effectiveness of retention strategies towards organizational commitment, with a view of improving employee retention, varies across context, sector and organization (Brunetto et al. 2012a; Frimousse et al. 2012) as well as individual perceptions (Alfes et al. 2013(3); Kehoe and Wright 2013(3)). Amidst all the concerns, recommendations have been made to undertake further studies in developing

countries to either test existing models or develop the most appropriate to the context. As one of the few studies examining organizational commitment in the public sector using data from a developing country, Addae et al. (2008) recommended incorporating the 3 dimensions of organizational commitment, and also considering satisfaction among others. Similarly, methodological issues have been noted, and the current study considers recommendations; for example, using in-depth data alongside numerical data to provide rich explanations. Considering the public, the private, and the NGO sectors to examine retention and organizational commitment in a developing country fits in the new research agenda (Perry 2010(8)) and is cognizant of situational factors (Swailes 2002(8)). The key aspects of this study remain: the retention strategies being employed by different organizations; how employees perceive such strategies (are their perceptions in line with management's intention? Do they perceive strategies as supportive or exploitative and simply creating demands on them)? The current study examines whether the implemented retention strategies result in job satisfaction, employee engagement, and organizational commitment. It then assesses the influence of identified attitudinal aspects on turnover intention by establishing employees expressed willingness to stay/leave, which should later on explain retention or turnover levels in different organizations. The influence of retention strategies and identified attitudinal variables on retention/turnover considering context, organizational and sector variations provides a strong basis for a model of employee retention. It is therefore important to review existent models on organizational commitment and employee retention, and in view of the reviewed literature, identify relevant components of a model of employee retention in a developing country and also relevant in the developed world.

4 THEORETICAL REVIEW AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF A MODEL OF EMPLOYEE RETENTION

4.1 Overview and introduction

This chapter provides a theoretical review on employee retention strategies, organizational commitment, turnover intention and turnover/retention. Basing on the reviewed theories and the systematic literature review presented in chapter 3, a new model of organizational commitment and employee retention is developed and presented at the end. The identified common theories in the reviewed literature are examined with a view of identifying key explanatory variables as well as possible ameliorating policies and actions that can be instrumental for organizational commitment and retention. The theories reviewed here include: the three-component model of organization commitment, High-Performance/High Commitment/High Involvement Work Systems (HPWS), conservation of resources model, and job demand-resources (JD-R) model. Others include social exchange and organizational support theories, expectancy theory, equity theory (distributive, procedural and interactive justice), cohort theory, and social identity theory. The stated theories are therefore reviewed first, followed by the development and explanation of the new model.

4.2 Review of the theories and models

There has been an increasing debate of the unitarist/individualist versus pluralist/collectivist views in HRM, as focusing on individualistic and collective working relations respectively. Storey and Bacon (1993) point to a considerable shift in the employment relationship over years with more emphasis on HR strategies and practices that focus on the individual, that is, individual goals, individual pay systems, direct communication, and autonomy as a move away from the previously held notions of collective bargaining under trade unions (Geare et al. 2009; Guest and Peccei 2001; Kaufman 2008). Indeed, HRM is perceived to be unitarist by emphasising mutuality of interests through individualistic approaches (Danford et al. 2004; Guest and Peccei 2001), claiming to be a shift from the so called traditional methods that emphasized pluralism and collectivism (Armstrong 2009; Storey and Bacon 1993; Storey 2001).

However, in as much as we find some theories inclining towards one orientation (for example, either unitarist or pluralist), it is hard to completely claim that any theory is purely so. For example, High-Performance/High Commitment Work Systems (HPWS) emphasize individual performance thereby having a unitarist approach, but also emphasize teamwork. The social exchange theories that consider perceptions of support and reciprocity focus on social exchanges at both group and individual levels

(perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005; Eisenberger et al. 1986; Eisenberger et al. 2002). Individual attitudes and behaviours, however, become central in dealing with employee retention and organizational commitment thereby emphasising unitarist approaches, but such strategies could collectively apply to an entire group of employees, which makes such efforts to some degree pluralist. We therefore premise the theories and models of organizational commitment and retention in these perspectives.

4.2.1 The Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment

The Three-Component model of organizational commitment by Allen and Meyer (Allen and Meyer 1990; Meyer and Allen 1991) has received widespread consideration in organizational commitment literature (Allen and Meyer 1996; Blau 2009; Chang 1999; Culpepper et al. 2004; Lapointe et al. 2011; Meyer et al. 2002; Meyer and Parfyonova 2010). Indeed, Addae et al (2008) made it clear that most research on organizational commitment is based on the three-component model. However, contradictions also exist with regard to the conceptualization and results of different components across different contexts (Edwards 2005; Jaros 1997; Ko et al. 1997; Lee et al. 2001) hence raising concerns over the dimensionality and generalizability of the model (issues we return to in the discussion of the model).

In their conceptualization, Meyer and Allen (1991, p.67) explained commitment as 'a psychological state that: a) characterises the employee's relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization'. In their ensuing work, they argued that organizational commitment is 'a psychological link between the employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization' (Allen and Meyer 1996, p.252). These explanations imply that committed employees are likely to continue working and hence staying longer with their organizations in comparison to the non-committed employees. In this respect, Allen and Meyer conceptualized commitment as a three-dimensional construct (hence the three-component model) consisting of: *affective attachment* to the organization, *perceived costs* associated with leaving the organization, and the *obligation* to stay with the organization (Allen and Meyer 1990; Meyer and Allen 1991; Meyer et al. 1993). Each of the three components is believed to have varying experiences and implications to employees with regard to job behaviours. The above three states were therefore labelled as *affective, continuance* and *normative commitment*.

Affective commitment deals with employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization, with willingness to continue his/her membership. Such employees therefore identify with the goals of the organization, get involved in the activities, and have a sense of

belongingness or attachment (Shepherd and Mathews 2000(8); Allen and Meyer 1990(2)); reflected in their willingness to stay because they feel they *want to* i.e. they have the desire. A clear distinction between the meaning of affective commitment and the overall organizational commitment, however, remains unclear, with some studies arguing that affective commitment is the true form of commitment. For example, Allen and Meyer (1990) recognize that this definition has been applied to overall organizational commitment as the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Porter et al. 1974). Some studies (Jaros 1997) have actually found only affective commitment among the three components, being significantly related to turnover intentions. Mellor et al. (2001) perceive affective commitment as offering alignment between employees and their organization's value systems and desires, feeling psychologically in sync with what the organization stands for, while evidence (Jiang et al. 2012; Newman et al. 2011; Tornikoski 2011; Vandenberghe et al. 2011) reveals the links between affective commitment and behavioural cognitions. Affective commitment has significantly stronger negative relationship with turnover intention than the other components (Jaros 1997; Ko et al. 1997).

However, Solinger et al. (2008, p.72) argued that affective commitment 'reflects an emotional attachment to the organization as a target, not to the behavioural act of leaving or remaining with the organization. Additionally, there is observed overlap and strong correlation between affective and normative commitment, while there is a non-significant prediction of turnover intention by continuance commitment (Jaros 1997(1); Solinger et al. 2008(3)).

Continuance commitment concerns an individual's awareness of the benefits or investments he/she makes as a result of his/her continued employment with the organization in relation to the costs associated with leaving their current job with the organization (Major et al. 2013; Meyer and Allen 1991(8)). Individuals stay and continue with the organization because *they need to* (Allen and Meyer 1990(2); Lapointe et al. 2011). Leaving is perceived as being costly in terms of: 1) loss of investments (both work and non-work, for example acquired non-transferable skills, benefits and pensions, privileges, family and social networks) and; 2) low job alternatives (Lee et al. 2001(8); Meyer et al. 2002(1); Powell and Meyer 2004(4)). Continuance commitment has, however, generated more debate among the three commitment components. Debate continues about the dimensionality of continuance commitment, as to whether it is uni-dimensional (Meyer and Herscovitch 2001(8)), or if high sacrifice and low alternatives are independent dimensions (Blau 2009; Freese et al. 2011; Iverson and Buttigieg 1999) hence postulating organizational commitment as a four-dimensional model. In this respect, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001, p.305) have pointed out that:

> *"Results pertaining to the dimensionality of continuance commitment are mixed, with some studies ... reporting evidence for unidimensionality and others finding evidence for two factors, one reflecting perceived sacrifices associated with leaving, and the other a recognition of the lack of alternative employment opportunities ..."*

However, based on their findings in South Korea, Ko et al. (1997(3), p.696) concluded that 'continuance commitment should be treated as *uni-dimensional*'. Powell and Meyer (2004) advise that low alternatives are antecedents and not part of continuance commitment, while Lee et al. (2001) suggest the need to refine continuance commitment to reflect high-sacrifice component rather than low alternative sub-dimension. Such ongoing inconsistencies and variations in findings and arguments pose limitations to the model, pointing to context variation in its application (Meyer and Parfyonova 2010(3); Meyer et al. 1993(3); Powell and Meyer 2004(4)).

Further still, Somers and Birnbaum (1999) have observed that despite turnover being influenced by work and non-work issues (as noted by the three component model), research has concentrated primarily on work related variables. Social non-work aspects like the family, dependents, social networks and friendships are influential aspects in some cultures especially in the developing countries of Africa with interdependence, and hence need to be given considerable attention.

Evidence further suggests limited correlation between continuance commitment and either of the other two components (affective and normative) (Ko et al. 1997; Lee et al. 2001; Meyer and Parfyonova 2010). Some concerns have also been raised with regard to the validity of the continuance commitment scale as well as its ability to independently predict turnover intentions (Jaros 1997; Ko et al. 1997), and indeed, there is evidence of non-significant prediction of turnover intention by continuance commitment (Jaros 1997(1); Solinger et al. 2008(3)). Further still, its results have tended to vary with context (Ko et al. 1997; Lee et al. 2001; Meyer et al. 2002). Such are theoretical limitations requiring further studies and rethinking of new models that can be context sensitive.

Normative commitment deals with personal feelings of obligation to stay and continue working with an organization. People with strong normative commitment remain with an organization because *they feel they ought to* (Allen and Meyer 1990(2); Lapointe et al. 2011) as a result of the feelings of moral obligation. People believe it is the right and proper way to behave (Shepherd and Mathews 2000(8)), mainly explained by previous experiences with the organization and by feeling a responsibility to the organization (Allen and Meyer 1990). The organization for example could have invested in the individual by training him/her, who then feels a moral obligation to pay back by continuing in employment with that organization (Allen and Meyer 1990(2); Ko et al. 1997(3)).

However, studies establishing a close association between normative and affective commitment challenge their independence and uniqueness (Ko et al. 1997) as they have in some studies failed to independently predict turnover intention (Iverson and Buttigieg 1999; Jaros 1997; Jaros et al. 1993). Such limitations challenge the universal application of the model, in addition to raising conceptual concerns.

In respect of these findings, however, Meyer and Parfyonova (2010, p.286) explain that normative commitment is different from both affective and continuance commitment and they assert that "normative commitment has two faces, one reflecting a sense of moral duty, and the other, a sense of indebted obligation." In this respect, normative commitment can be interpreted as a sense of duty or indebtedness that results into loyalty. It is important, however, to note that moral values vary across societies.

Overall, there are mixed reactions to the three-component model of organizational commitment, recognizing its importance, but also pointing out its limitations. The model is for example generally linked with employee retention/turnover among other work outcomes (Major et al. 2013; Randall et al. 1999; Solinger et al. 2008; Tenhiälä and Lount 2013). It is thus argued:

> *"...commitment has been conceptualised and measured in various ways. Common to all the conceptualizations of commitment found in the literature is a link with turnover: employees who are strongly committed are those who are least likely to leave the organization."* (Allen and Meyer 1990, p.1)

In relation to the above, Freese et al. (2011, p.407) asserted that:

> *"*The *Organizational Commitment Model by Meyer and Allen (1991) has clearly dominated commitment research in the past years and can be regarded quasi-standard research approach. ...each component leads to the same main behavioural consequence, remaining with the organization, but the antecedents differ."*

The wide application of this model, however, has also exposed it to broad criticisms. The seemingly ongoing concerns over the significance of different components of the model (Powell and Meyer 2004) point to the need for further studies. Similarly, studies using this model in different contexts have yielded differing results (Ko et al. 1997; Lee et al. 2001; Powell and Meyer 2004), which have led to recommendations to study all the three components of commitment (Meyer et al. 1993) as they have varying contributions and implications on work behaviours depending on individual experiences and context (Ko et al. 1997; Lee et al. 2001). In addition, Lapointe et al. (2011) have argued that the strength of the relationships with commitment varies depending on the dimension/component of commitment that is measured. Despite these observations, a number of studies continue to analyze commitment on the basis of only one or two components (Boles et al. 2007; Dewettinck and van Ameijde 2011; Hershcovis and Barling 2010), an aspect that poses limitations in this respect. Meyer et al. (2010) have added that not

all the different forms of commitment are equally beneficial and thus they require observing their relative contributions. Meyer et al. (1993, p.539) guided that:

> *"... one can achieve a better understanding of an employee's relationship with an organization when all three forms of commitment are considered together.... employees can experience varying degrees of all three forms of commitment (each is out of different experiences and have varying implications on job behaviours)."*

The stated variations have indeed been demonstrated in some studies. Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) found affective commitment to be the most beneficial with employees being less likely to leave, less absent and more accepting change, while low perceived alternatives were seen as having more negative effects since those employees were less supportive of change. Similar varying findings have been established by different researchers on different commitment facets in different contexts (Schmidt and Lee 2008; Vandenberghe et al. 2011; Wong et al. 2001), and they have thus called for further studies especially in the developing world where such studies are very limited (Addae et al. 2008).

4.2.2 High Performance/Commitment Work Systems (HPWS)

High-performance work systems/practices are among the innovative HR practices (Cheng-Hua et al. 2009) recommended for organizations to adopt because of their linkages with several work outcomes including commitment and performance. However, there is also evidence critical of such practices as being mere means of obtaining more from workers, which results into stress and burnout (Godard 2004; Jensen et al. 2013; Kroon et al. 2009). Researchers like (Hom and Xiao 2011; Ito and Brotheridge 2005; Love and Singh 2011; Pare and Tremblay 2007) examine these practices and the model of High-Performance/Commitment Work practices in their studies. In their meta-analysis, while clarifying that these work systems can be referred to as high-performance work systems or high commitment or high involvement practices or systems, Zacharatos et al (2007) explain that this is an approach to managing human resources as an organizational asset and not an expense or cost to be incurred. Accordingly, human resources should be invested in rather than looked at as costs (Zacharatos et al. 2007), and thus practices such as selective hiring, employee training and development, career advice and support, competitive benefits among others (Ito and Brotheridge 2005; Pare and Tremblay 2007) are recommended. This line of argument fits well into the notion of the soft version of HRM (Storey 2001), which is supportive of HR practices as investments in human assets. However, critics of this approach view these efforts as increasing labour costs and resulting into subjective performance outcomes (Godard 2004; Jensen et al. 2013; Kroon et al. 2009). This stance could, however, fit under the 'hard version' of human resources that

is cautious of human resource costs. Understanding the functioning of HPWS and the respective practices becomes important.

Zacharatos et al (2007) indicate that high-performance/commitment work systems comprise of two factors: work systems and HR policies to which they added leadership as a third factor in their meta-analytic study. This is actually in line with Love and Singh's (2011) systematic review which emphasized the importance of leadership. In summary, high-performance/commitment work system is conceptualised as influencing several organizational outcomes such as commitment and performance through its three factors (Karatepe 2013a; Wang et al. 2011; Zacharatos et al. 2007). *Work systems* factor comprising of practices that affect the nature of the work itself, and they include: the opportunity to work in teams, job quality, task variety, participation in decision-making and job-related autonomy. *HR policies* factor includes hiring practices, the provision of training, employment security, and compensation. *Leadership practices* (added as a third factor) include doing what is right, acting as a role model, effectively communicating a vision or mission, intellectually stimulating followers, showing concern for employees (individual needs and abilities), communication of satisfaction for a job well done, and demonstrating trust in employees through the sharing of information.

The above conceptualization is largely in line with many other authorities that affirm the importance of high commitment HR systems including selective staffing, training and development, socialization, promotion, relatively high compensation, career support, communication and feedback through information sharing (Cheng-Hua et al. 2009; Hom and Xiao 2011; Ito and Brotheridge 2005; Love and Singh 2011; Zacharatos et al. 2007). In a meta-analysis, these factors were found to be positively related to both person-focused outcomes such as job satisfaction, health, self-esteem and social support; and organization-focused outcomes such as organizational commitment and perceptions of organization justice (Zacharatos et al. 2007 p.245). Ito and Brotheridge (2005) examined high involvement/commitment HR practices by focusing on perception of decision making, autonomy and supervisory support, while the supportive policies of this model included employment security, internal transfers and promotions, and training and development, all of which are argued to be about building knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs). Participation in decision making, autonomy, and career support, enhanced career adaptability and were positively associated with commitment and negatively associated with intentions to leave the organization (Ito and Brotheridge 2005). Further evidence confirms salary and job enrichment strategies as being positively related to job satisfaction, and also employee commitment, and negatively related to turnover intentions (Luna-Arocas and Camps 2008).

However, there are quite interesting results to the effect that the relationship between job stability and employee commitment is not mediated by job satisfaction, while the relationship between salary and employee commitment is mediated by job satisfaction. Such varying findings account for the differences in the influence of different practices and strategies, which become hard to discern by studies grouping HPWS practices (Karatepe 2013a; Kehoe and Wright 2013(3), p.370; Wang et al. 2011). Further support for the need to separate the practices was revealed by Zacharatos and Hershcovis (2007) who studied the three factors of work systems as grouped factors and therefore posed the desire to study the different practices to see their relative impact or whether some practices should be grouped for purposes of maximizing their benefits. Similar observations on grouping high-performance/commitment practices have also been made in some studies critiquing HPWS as resulting into anxiety, limited control and burnout (Godard 2004; Jensen et al. 2013). On a related point, Zacharatos and Hershcovis (2007) reported having shifted training and development from the HR policies factor to the work system factor, because they believed it fitted best under the latter factor than the former. This study argues that training and development fit best as an HR factor than a work factor.

With regard to Leadership, the cluster was found to be the strongest predictor of the person-focused outcome cluster, which consisted of job satisfaction, health, self-esteem and social support (Zacharatos et al. 2007). However, they could not test the relationship between the leadership cluster and the organization-focused cluster of psychosocial outcomes as a result of meta-analytic limitation since they had only one study that had tested this relationship. The narrative review by Love and Singh (2011) highly emphasizes this aspect of leadership, but testing this variable on organization-focused outcomes remains a theoretical gap.

The stated negative consequences of HPWS deserve considerable attention. Jensen et al. (2013) as well as Godard (2004) draw from literature to present HPWS as creating a competitive advantage for organizations at the expense of individual employees. They are perceived as causing role overload, work intensification, work pressure and burnout. The practices are indeed perceived as simply supporting employee exploitation (Kroon et al. 2009). HPWS are further questioned in terms of their influence beyond the traditional practices of good management (Godard 2004). In as much as HPWS can be realized in some workplaces and indeed can yield positive results, it is observed that their results vary depending on industry and may be of less influence (Godard 2004). Despite giving support for HPWS, Wang et al. (2011) found varying results with some of the practices in relation to organizational commitment and turnover intention in China (both public and private sectors). For instance, training was not directly related to turnover intentions, but was mediated by organizational commitment, while training

related directly to work withdrawal in both sectors. Trained employees were, however, found to be more committed. Secondly, organizational commitment did not mediate the relationships of teamwork and empowerment, but instead, teamwork showed a moderately negative effect on work withdrawal in state owned enterprises. There is no known evidence available pertaining to Africa and Uganda in particular, in the context of this study.

Evidence demonstrates that HPWS are mainly experienced as stressful and thus cause burnout in situations where employees perceive low job control and experience anxiety (Jensen et al. 2013) or job demands which cause burnout (Kroon et al. 2009). Hom and Xiao (2011) found that high commitment HRM neither increased intention to stay nor retention, but they boosted organizational commitment. They therefore assumed that since organizational commitment significantly predicts intention to stay, then high commitment HRM conceivably affects turnover intention indirectly via organizational commitment. However, in situations where the practices are associated with fairness and with exercise of job control, the practices result into motivation (Hu and Schaufeli 2011; Jensen et al. 2013; Kroon et al. 2009; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004). The HPWS should therefore be examined in context of employee perceptions (and job demands and resources) since these have implications for employees' attitudes and behaviours (Karatepe 2013a; Kehoe and Wright 2013, p.370; Powell and Meyer 2004). In this respect, Kehoe and Write (2013, p.370) explain:

> *"...employees' HR practice perceptions are temporarily closer to, and consequently likely to be more predictive of, their attitudinal and behavioural outcomes than are HR practice ratings as provided by managers." (p.369) "..... employees are likely to differ in how they experience and interpret the HR practices with which they and their co-workers are managed hence reflecting variance in perceived HR practice employment."*

Considering the importance of employee perceptions of retention strategies and their influence on employee attitudes and behaviours, drawing from a number of related theories and models such as perceived support, social exchange theory and job demands resources model should provide strong interpretations (Hobfoll and Schumm 2002).

4.2.3 Conservation of Resources (COR) model

Conservation of Resources (COR) theory is associated with Hobfoll (Campbell et al. 2013; Hobfoll and Schumm 2002; Kumar and Bhatnagar 2010). The theory focuses on health promotional strategies that pay attention to individual and community resources with the aim of preventing loss, maintaining existing ones, and gaining more that are necessary for engagement in health behaviours (Hobfoll and Schumm 2002). The principle of the theory is that people make investments in their resources and are therefore

motivated to retain, protect and build more (Lopina et al., 2009). It is conceived that individuals look towards developing and conserving their resources through perceptions of fair workplace and support from organizations and managers, but when they 'perceive a threat or an actual loss of resources, or fail to receive sufficient return on their investment of resources, they experience stress' (Campbell et al. 2013 p.760). According to Kumar and Bhatnagar (2010), conservation of resources (COR) model postulates that employees experience stress in three ways: loss of resources, threat to current resources, and inadequate return on investments made to maximize resources. Accordingly, employees become interested in minimizing further loss of resources, hence exercising withdrawal as a coping mechanism to avoid further loss of resources and subsequent stress and burn out unless their resources are replenished (Campbell et al. 2013; Hobfoll and Schumm 2002; Kumar and Bhatnagar 2010; Lopina et al. 2012). In other words, when resources are not replenished, for fear of further stress and burnout which result into further loss, exhausted employees psychologically withdraw hence reducing their commitment to the organization. To this end therefore, employees examine their well-being in terms of their lives, which includes "emotions, engagement, satisfaction and meaning" (Kumar and Bhatnagar 2010, p.404) to determine the responses they make in terms of their behaviours with the organization. Using this theory, Kumar and Bhatnagar (2010) in their study of the private sector in India, found emotional well-being significantly negatively related to emotional dissonance and emotional dissonance partially mediated the relationship between organizational identification and turnover intention, and a partial mediation of emotional dissonance on the relationship between organizational identification and emotional well-being. This implies that depending on employees' well-being, they are likely to develop turnover cognitions.

This study is based on data collected from multiple sources and across-sectors (public, private and NGOs), which allows comparison of practices and views. Attention is also given to employees at different levels of different organizations. This theory provides the framework to analyze the effect of retention strategies on employee resources and the bearing this has on work attitudes and behaviours.

4.2.4 Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model

Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model is premised on two factors and processes: job demands and job resources (Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Hu and Schaufeli 2011; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004). Job demands poorly affect organizational outcomes because they are stressful and thus cause burnout. They include the physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or psychological effort. On the other hand, job resources are those factors that motivate and lead to good organizational outcomes. They include motivational aspects of the job that may reduce job demands and/or enhance goal achievement. They focus on achievement of work goals, fulfilment of basic

psychological needs, promotions, personal growth, learning and development; all of which should result into work engagement and good organizational outcomes. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004, p.296) argue that:

> *"Job demands are those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (i.e., cognitive or emotional) effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs."*

While;

> *"Job resources refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that either/or (1) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; (2) are functional in achieving work goals; (3) stimulate personal growth, learning and development."*

Resources are therefore seen as addressing/limiting job demands by ensuring that work is done, but above all, stand on their own to support the work process. Job resources could include performance feedback, support from colleagues, and supervisory coaching (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004) among others. Job resources are conceived to be motivators either intrinsically or extrinsically by fostering employee growth, learning and development, autonomy or goal achievement (Hu and Schaufeli 2011; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004). On the other hand, acknowledging that job demands are not necessarily negative, it is noted that they can be stressors as they may negatively affect or cost employees in terms of negative effects of depression, anxiety or burn out due to work overload or emotional work demands (Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004). Employees are likely to lose motivations and hence experience attitudinal effects, and as noted under HPWS, produce anxiety and burnout, with limited control (Jensen et al. 2013). It remains a matter of perception and interpretation of different job aspects as being either supportive and thus creating job resources or merely stressful and thus constituting job demands. Such perceptions and interpretations are, however, subjective and likely to vary with context.

Additionally, job insecurity and downsizing affect wellbeing, thereby creating psychosomatic symptoms and depression (Hu and Schaufeli 2011) which inevitably create negative effects on work attitudes and behaviours. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) affirm that burnout is mainly predicted by job demands and also by lack of job resources, hence negatively related to engagement, but positively related to health problems and turnover intentions at the same time. Employee engagement, on the other hand, is predicted by availability of job resources and it negatively impacts on turnover intentions and burnout. Furthermore, burnout was presented as a mediator of the relationship between job demands and health problems, but with engagement mediating the relationship between job resources and turnover intention. These findings mirror the opposing impact of job demands and job resources in human resource practice. However,

engagement can cause employee concerns of health (burnout) through its highly absorbing and involving mechanisms, yet this has not been portrayed by this model (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004). Integrating the elements of JD-R model in the theorizing that involves employee retention strategies, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention; should help us interpret employee perceptions of retention strategies and hence contribute to knowledge and practice in these respects.

4.2.5 Social Exchange Theories (Organizational Support and Leader-Member Exchange)

An employment relationship is an exchange relationship and thus employees receiving economic and social benefits feel obliged to respond in kind through the norm of reciprocity (Alfes et al. 2013; Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005; Eisenberger et al. 1986; Eisenberger et al. 2002). This is a theory which draws from social exchange relationships arising as a result of employers providing care and support to employees, a process that generates reciprocal benefits (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005; Eisenberger et al. 1986). It deals with a set of obligations through belief systems that people are expected to return favour to those who do something for them (Wayne et al. 1997). According to Wayne et al. (1997), Social Exchange theories take the form of: 1) Perceived Organizational support (POS), dealing with the perceived support by the employee from the organization and, 2) Leader-Member Exchange, which deals with exchanges between the employee and his or her leader/supervisor. Banks et al. (2014) in their meta-analysis, locate the vitality of these theories in contemporary research with much focuses on supervisor–subordinate role relationships negotiated through social exchange processes as described by Leader–Member Exchange (LMX). Haar and Spell (2004) view social exchange as a form of relationships of mutually contingent, tangible and intangible exchanges. In such an environment, supervisors manage their staff differently and hence different outcomes from different groups of employees (Allen et al. 2003; Brunetto et al. 2010; Brunetto et al. 2012a; Lapointe et al. 2011). Social exchange relationships are characterised by mutual support, trust and respect as well as access to information and participation in decision-making. The exchange beliefs inherent in the social exchange theories create the understanding of perceived support that lead to feelings of obligation in the sense of *quid pro quo* relationship (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005). Employees' perceptions of support from their supervisors and organizations (Brunetto et al. 2010; Brunetto et al. 2012a; Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005; Eisenberger et al. 2002) make them feel obliged to reciprocate in different ways which include commitment and hard work (Allen et al. 2003; Haar and Spell 2004).

However, some of the tenets of social exchange do not work in some respects. Withholding service for perceived lack of support is seen as revenge which some beliefs do not support hence requiring an

understanding of cultural beliefs and the reciprocity norm (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005). Premising the working relationship on social exchanges and reciprocity norm is also criticised as ignoring the principle of altruism (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005) which should be supported in organizational management. Further still, some studies have established that the quality of LMX is more important in public sector context than in private sector as evidenced by the study of the relationship between empowerment and affective commitment in the nursing sector (Brunetto et al. 2012a). Quite interesting findings were reported that the relationship between empowerment and affective commitment is stronger for nurses in public sector organizations with low quality LMX than for nurses in public sector with high quality LMX. Still, that, supervisor-nurse relationships strongly determine both public and private sector nurses' perceptions of affective commitment, while management practices and actions of supervisors are critical to nurses' perceptions of organizational commitment. Such accounts raise interests in the effectiveness of LMX and Social Exchange theories in terms of predicting organizational commitment. There is need for contextual and comparative analysis of these aspects across different sectors involving different types of organizations in different national cultures (Kittler et al. 2011(8)). The beliefs of social exchanges and reciprocity require substantial trust which may be eroded by moral decadence. With developing countries tending to cherish modernism and liberalism as opposed to traditional communal values that support social beliefs, hardly anything is known in their approach to employment relationship.

4.2.6 Equity theory

This theory has its roots in the works of Stacey Adams (Huseman et al. 1987; Pritchard 1969) and it emphasizes fairness and justice in organizational undertakings. It is premised on the notion of employees' comparisons of their perceived input and treatment (outcome) to the perceived input and treatment of their referent others. They therefore expect fair treatment similar to their referent others in respective comparable aspects. According to Gibson et al. (1997) this theory emphasizes the following terms:

1. Person – the individual to whom equity or inequity is perceived.

2. Comparison (referent other) – any individual(s) or group used by a person as a referent regarding the ratio of input and outcomes.

3. Inputs – the individual characteristics brought by a person to the job e.g. skills, experience, age, sex, race.

4. Outcomes – what a person received from the job e.g. recognition, fringe benefits, pay.

In relation to other literature (Huseman et al. 1987; Pritchard 1969), the above points guide evaluation of equity theory by focusing on: 1) inputs, 2) comparison, 3) conditions leading to inequity or equity and possible effects of inequity and, 4) possible responses one may take to address a situation of inequity. This theory postulates that equity exists when employees feel that their inputs (efforts) and outcomes (rewards or treatment) are equivalent to those of the similar employees, while inequity exists when there are differences in outputs of different employees with similar inputs. To achieve fairness, we should focus on addressing inequity and maintaining equity by:

1. Changing inputs. These include reliability, cooperation with others, initiative and acceptance of responsibility

2. Changing outcomes e.g. asking for a pay raise, more time off or better assignments

3. Changing the reference person

4. Changing the inputs or outcomes of the reference person e.g. asking one to work harder

5. Changing the situation e.g. quitting the job or asking for transfer (Gibson et al. 1997; Huseman et al. 1987; Pritchard 1969). This, however, again poses challenges of turnover.

Equity theory therefore aims at developing and maintaining perceptions of fairness and justice which create perceived equity. It is, however, difficult to administer the above prescribed steps to achieve equity for several reasons like variations in inputs, poor comparisons (wrong choice of referent other), difficulty in manipulating outputs and, institutional constraints to changing the situation. However, managers are challenged to focus on three major types of justice perceptions: 1) distributive justice, which is concerned with perception of fairness in organizational outcomes. Schreurs et al. (2013) regards distributive justice as the perceived fairness of the resources received. This means that employees focus on the allocation of resources and outcomes in terms of fairness with which this is done. 2) Procedural justice deals with perception of fairness of procedures employed in taking decisions and actions (Loi et al. 2006). Employees expect fair application of the rules and policies in making and implementing decisions. 3) Interactional justice refers to the perceived fairness in the relationship between employees and their seniors. It measures the fairness in the work-relationships and way of interaction in the course of work.

Studies have examined several aspects of organizational management in respect of fairness perceptions and how these influence employee decisions. Campbell et al. (2013) established that distributive justice was only significantly related to perceived supervisor support and not perceived organizational support,

while procedural justice was related to both forms of support. Interactive justice was positively related to perceived supervisor support and this was stronger than for perceived organizational support. Issues of fairness perception in context of equity theory have also been examined in respect of pay (Schreurs et al. 2013). Pay issues remain a considerable challenge more so in developing economies and there are always agitations for pay improvement with varying claims of unfairness across sectors, organizations and ranks. Schreurs et al. (2013), however, argues against organizations simply throwing money at the problem as a means of improving pay-level satisfaction. People can tend to make comparisons which may be unjustified simply to express perceived injustice or inequity and thus demand for better terms. The challenge of equity is also embedded in the limitations of economies and national context impediments.

4.2.7 Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory, which is grounded in the works of Vroom, postulates that employees are motivated to work towards expected outcomes or rewards (Currivan 1999; Park 2012). The motivations of employees arise from their anticipations that their efforts will yield intended work outcomes or performance goals (called expectancy). They therefore expect that meeting the performance goal should result into more rewards (called instrumentality), and the rewards should be of high value to them (the principle of valence) (Park 2012). In this respect, employee's expectations and their values play a role within the work setting to influence employee attitudes (Currivan 1999). This means that employees have particular expectations and these are likely to influence their levels of organizational commitment and retention. Of great concern, however, are the variations in employee expectations which pose challenges to organizations to comprehend and effectively meet. Secondly, some of the expectations like promotions, salary increments, and training may not be supported due to resource limitations, yet this may negatively impact on employee attitudes and behaviours.

The theory is also limited in the way that it attempts to predict effort which is difficult to adequately measure. Management only tends to use self-assessments, peers or supervisor ratings in this regard. Expectancy theory ignores the fact about subconscious motivation which arises out of thoughts, instincts, and fears in the mind without following a conscious process (Gibson et al. 1997). There are factors which one is not fully aware of, but they influence his actions. It is also evident that most of the cited studies testing this theory relied on employees from a single organization doing quite similar work unlike the current study that involved different organizations with different forms of jobs/work.

4.2.8 Cohort Theory

This theory explains that different age cohorts have different experiences that influence their lives. A generational cohort in this regard is defined as 'people who were born at about the same time and experienced historical events at about the same point in their development' (D'Amato and Herzfeldt 2008 p.931). The cohort theory therefore postulates that such people growing up at about the same time and experiencing such similar events at about the same point in the course of their life development are shaped by similar values, way of thinking, and life experiences. There is evidence linking generations to commitment and turnover intentions. Younger generations (or Generation X) for example have been reflected as less willing to remain with the same organization thus having lower organizational commitment (D'Amato and Herzfeldt 2008; Lub et al. 2012). Lub et al. (2012) posit that Generation X values work-life balance, job security, and autonomy, while D'Amato and Herzfeldt (2008) pointed out that young generations (born 1960 and after) are interested in learning in addition to exhibiting lower organizational commitment in comparison to older generations (especially Early and Late Boomers, born 1946-1959). Consistent with these findings, others have established that older age is associated with less absenteeism (de Reuver and van Woerkom 2010) as younger employees expressed more intention to leave the organization (Elst et al. 2011). It is observed, however, that personal needs for which people work actually go beyond our historical growth experiences with others. Similarly, Thatcher et al. (2002) did not find an influence of age on turnover and turnover intentions, confirming that commitment and retention are beyond cohort or generational issues as some factors are institutional while others are socio-economic.

4.2.9 Social identity theory

Individuals tend to identify themselves with social groups to which they subscribe their membership, which in essence gives them social identity (Lopina et al. 2012; Love and Singh 2011). Some of these could be as a result of work for a particular organization whose membership actually shapes an individual's well-being (Love and Singh 2011). For example, it was established and concluded that it is important for individuals to access information before getting hired as this enables such a person to assess his/her individual abilities to fit in the new organization (Lopina et al. 2012), partly because of his/ability to identify with the goal and value systems of such an organization. Love and Singh (2011) on their part argued that employees' understanding and paying loyalty to workplace branding creates employee commitment to their organizations. Recognizing the role of workplace branding in creating a unifying identity premised in desirable strategies and practices, Love and Singh (2011) explain that organizational branding generates competitive advantage, leads to employee internalization of organizational values, and

assists in employee attraction and retention as employees tend to identify with a strong organizational brand. Such positive feelings about the workplace brand should therefore result into identification with the organizationthrough ongoing membership which creates loyalty and commitment and hence continuity in service of the organization. Organizational branding and organizational image are, however, subjective matters to different people. Some people may wish to identify with highly paying organizations as these give them high economic status. Those working for organizations that give them financial power will proudly identify themselves with such organizations as compared to those in less financially influential organizations.

4.3 Considerations for model development

There are several explanatory theories to different aspects of organizational management that help us understand employee attitudes and behaviours and thus organizational commitment and turnover issues. Cognizant of the limitations of and contradictions among different theories, we are able to examine the advanced retention strategies and understand employee perceptions of such strategies. Perceptions of retention strategies should determine employee evaluations of the relevant strategies as to whether they create motivations through job resources or discomfort and anxiety through job demands, and hence the implications of such experiences on job attitudes and behaviours. Building on the provided theoretical evaluations and conceptualizations, a model for employee retention and organizational commitment is developed and presented next.

4.3.1 Model overview

There are several theories in the study of organizational commitment and employee retention, providing knowledge and insights, but also with limitations ranging from conceptualization to varying results across contexts. To have a distinctive conceptualization, a model that considers several theories in its development has been supported (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005). Such a model builds on the strengths of different theories and considerably contributes to knowledge beyond the identified limitations.

The new model of employee retention highlights identified influential retention strategies, which recognize the importance of employee perceptions in assessing the efficacy of such strategies. The social exchange and perceived support theories (Alfes et al. 2013; Banks et al. 2014; Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005; Eisenberger et al. 2002; Haar and Spell 2004; Lopina et al. 2012) are important in understanding employee perceptions. Cognisant of such values and meanings attached to respective retention strategies, the JD-Rs model is deployed as another mechanism through which employees experience and label the

retention strategies following their perceptions of the same. Experienced as creating either job demands or job resources (Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Hu and Schaufeli 2011; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004), such strategies should affect job satisfaction and employee engagement. The burnout component has been recognized as arising out of job demands and lack of job resources. It has not, however, been considered in this study as it has been considerably addressed (Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004) with its negative connotation largely having negative effects. The two considered attitudinal aspects of job satisfaction and employee engagement influence organizational commitment, which then influences turnover intention and thus actual turnover (Alfes et al. 2010; Griffeth et al. 2000; Jaros 1997; MacLeod and Clarke 2009). There are also, however, direct influences on organizational commitment and turnover intention, especially from the retention strategies and employee perception of the strategies as well as job resources and job demands. Also of importance and recognized by the model are organizational and contextual, as well as individual factors (Chen and Francesco 2000; Cheng-Hua et al. 2009; Cunningham et al. 2012). The different aspects are briefly explained in the following section in view of the model presented in figure 4.1 below.

In summary, the developed model in figure 4.1 includes the human resource retention strategies, employee perception of such strategies (that includes assessment for supervisor and/or organizational support, the psychological contract, job demands and job resources), employee engagement, and job job satisfaction; all of which are believed to have an association with and prediction of organizational commitment as the immediate predictor turnover intention and hence turnover/retention. While assuming such interactive relationships, it is also argued that the included variables can also have direct relationships with and influence on turnover intention. The importance of contextual, organizational and individual factors is emphasised in explaining the variation in such relationships and influences.

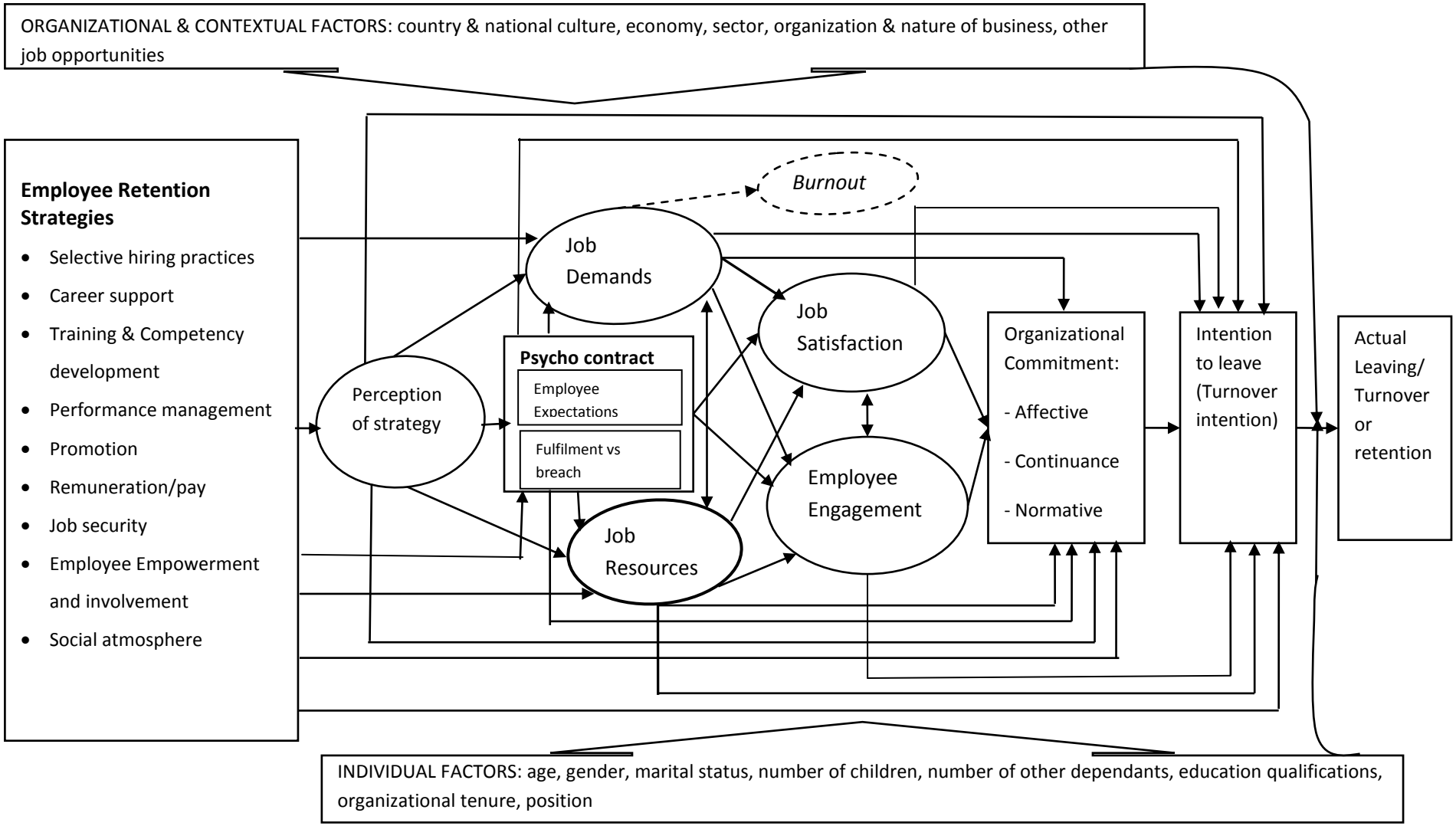

Figure 4.1 A theoretical model of Employee Retention

4.3.2 Employee retention strategies

The model presents a number of considered employee retention strategies across extant literature. The envisaged retention strategies by the model are selective hiring practices and socialization, career support, training and development, performance management, promotion, job security, pay and working conditions, social atmosphere (Chay and Bruvold 2003; Karatepe 2013a; Wang et al. 2011; Zacharatos et al. 2007). These factors not only result into retention, but commitment as well. In some respects, they are presented as performance enhancing, commitment oriented and thus retention focused. The development of a working organizational commitment and employee retention model ought to have in mind the real essence of Human Resource Management since any such strategies should actually be aligned with the overall goal of the profession, organization, and line of management. The importance of commitment in HRM is reflected in Storey's (2001, p.6) definition that:

> *"Human resource management is a distinctive approach to employment management which seeks to achieve competitive advantage through the strategic deployment of a highly committed and capable workforce using an array of cultural, structural and personnel techniques."*

The retention strategies should therefore be distinctive, competitive and strategic to enlist commitment and support employees in their work. To achieve this, however, may require adaptation and contextualization (Frimousse et al. 2012). Well recognizing the criticisms of high-performance/high-commitment work systems (Godard 2004; Jensen et al. 2013; Kroon et al. 2009), this framework should be compatible with the Harvard Model of HRM (the map of HRM territory) which considers different stakeholders operating within situational context to influence HRM policy that results into HRM outcomes including commitment, thereby having long-term consequences on the individual well-being, organizational effectiveness, and societal well-being (Beardwell et al. 2004). To address the criticisms of high-commitment HRM; first, retention strategies are examined for their unique contributions and secondly, consideration of employee perceptions and assessment of these strategies in context of social exchange, and JD-R models help in the understanding of employee experiences and value attachment to different practices.

4.3.3 Employee perception of retention strategies

Literature has consistently emphasized employees' perceptions of different strategies and practices as these provide individual appraisal of such strategies and determine responses. Alfes et al. (2013) shows the need to understand how employees perceive practices instead of relying on explanations of management's intention of undertaking the HRM practices or strategies. In this respect, employees may find the strategies as either supportive to them and their work, or simply demanding and exploitative.

Evidence has it that employees reciprocate to positive perceptions in the framework of social exchange and Perceived Support theories (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005; Eisenberger et al. 2002; Kuvaas and Dysvik 2010; Maertz Jr. et al. 2007). The positive appraisal of the strategies and practices in terms of perceived support is viewed in two ways: 1) overall organizational support expressed as perceived organizational support (POS) which is support attributed to the organization, and; 2) perceived supervisor support (PSS) that is, support seen as coming from (attributed to) the supervisors or leaders, otherwise known as LMX (Kuvaas 2008; Newman et al. 2011). It is presented and argued that the interpretation of the perceived supportive mechanisms of the employee retention strategies should have implications on their physical, psychological, social or organizational aspects and thus assessed as either creating supportive resources that become motivations or job demands that result into stress and anxiety within the framework of JD-Rs model.

4.3.4 Job demands and job resources

These are results from the perceptions that employees make of the retention strategies as either creating job demands or job resources. Some practices could be perceived differently by different employees in terms of the physical, social and emotional strain or motivations they create (Bakker and Demerouti 2007), and these accordingly affect job satisfaction and employee engagement levels (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004). Depending on the registered attitudinal experience, there should be an influence on organizational commitment and thus predict turnover intentions. For example, promotion or teamwork could result into motivation and thus create job resources. To some employees, however, job promotions and teamwork come with their own high demands. Loi et al. (2006) and Campbell et al. (2013) show that the process of promotion itself may cause concerns between the promoted and non-promoted. Similarly, as shown by Mark et al. (1993), not all people value upward advancement, while Boles et al. (2007) posit that promotion is likely to have more effect on men than women. *While the developed model recognizes burnout as a result of job demands and lack of job resources, it is not addressed by the current study as quite substantial work exists on it* (Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004).

4.3.5 Job satisfaction and Employee Engagement

In the understanding of job resources as reducing job demands and related psychological and physiological strain, and thus supportive of goal achievement through stimulating individual growth and other motivations (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004); job resources should positively influence job satisfaction and employee engagement. These (job satisfaction and employee engagement) should also positively impact on organizational commitment (Back et al. 2011; Boles et al. 2007; Brunetto et al. 2012b; Cheung

et al. 2009). This is because motivations of job resources should reinforce employee attitudes. For employees who report perceiving the retention strategies as not being supportive and thus creating demands should experience low job satisfaction and low engagement. Such employees find the retention strategies as creating demands, anxiety and burnout which could be a result of work overload or stressful strategies and practices (Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Hu and Schaufeli 2011; Jensen et al. 2013; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004). Indeed it is in this respect that we can premise any likely negative perceptions of HPWS as being exploitative, creating anxiety, stressful and resulting into burnout (Godard 2004; Jensen et al. 2013; Kroon et al. 2009). In this respect, expressions of job demands should negatively impact on job satisfaction and employee engagement, and subsequently affect organizational commitment.

4.3.6 Organizational commitment

This is in a central locale to this study; the linkages between organizational commitment and job satisfaction, and employee engagement have already been established. The perceptions of employee strategies in form of support, and as either job resources or job demands; and their influence on job satisfaction, employee engagement, and commitment, become important. These facets therefore play important mediation roles in the respective relationships with organizational commitment. However, it is also postulated by the model that organizational commitment is as well likely to be directly influenced by some aspects including: employee retention strategies (Pare and Tremblay 2007; Robinson and Reio Jr. 2012; Wong et al. 2001), perceptions of employee retention strategies (Campbell et al. 2013; Hershcovis and Barling 2010; Joo 2010), and job demands and job resources, job satisfaction and employee engagement. Organizational commitment should then impact on turnover intentions.

4.3.7 Turnover intention and actual turnover

Our discussions have exposed the challenge of turnover and its negative implications for organizations among others: loss of key skills, costs of recruitment and training as well as loss of institutional memory (Jiang et al. 2012; Loi et al. 2006; Luna-Arocas and Camps 2008). It has, however, also been demonstrated that organizational commitment has strong influence on turnover and turnover intentions (Blau 2009; Boles et al. 2007). The presented model shows that organizational commitment will influence turnover intentions and thus influence actual turnover. Indeed, evidence exists to the effect that turnover intention is the strongest predictor of turnover (Joo 2010; Kuvaas 2008; Loi et al. 2006). Appreciating this line of argument, we also need to be aware of existence of longitudinal studies that have established changes in expressed intention to leave or stay in time-lag follow up studies (Mignonac and Richebe

2013; Porter et al. 1974; Porter et al. 1976; Probst 2003; Somers and Birnbaum 1999). First, organizations can learn about turnover intentions and make changes for improvement. Secondly, employees can adjust in their attitudes with time. Similarly, a number of variables have also surfaced as having direct influence on turnover intention. For example, Newman et al. (2011) established direct relationship between POS and turnover intention. The model appreciates existence of various organizational, contextual, and individual factors in the postulation of variable relationships as explained in the literature and briefly provided below.

4.4 Contextual, Organizational, and individual factors

The literature review already considered and discussed several attendant factors outside the main model variable conceptualizations that should be examined in the likely influences. Variations in the degree of influence of one factor over the other are likely to be affected by contextual, organizational, and individual factors, and hence they should be given due attention (Karatepe 2013b; Karatepe and Demir 2014; Tymon Jr et al. 2011). At organizational and contextual level, such factors include: country and national culture, economy, sector, nature of organization and its business, and job opportunities. Individual factors include: age, gender, marital status, number of children, other dependents, education and qualifications, personality, organizational tenure, and position.

4.4.1 Developing Country context

Most of the reviewed models are predominantly from the west. The conceptualization of different models mirrors the developed country working environment and culture (Kamoche 2002), and indeed such models have had challenges with being adopted in different contexts with different cultures. Frimousse (2012) emphasized the issue of context and adaptation in his concept of hybridization, and many other researchers originating from both the developed and developing economies have recognized and alluded for the need for more studies to develop context-specific models to the developing world (Addae et al. 2008; Karatepe 2013b; Karatepe and Demir 2014; Truss et al. 2013). The developing countries differ from the developed world in terms of the structure of their economies, structure of the workforce, employment levels, and demographics. All these variables influence the strategies and practices and thus attitudes and behaviours.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter has provided a broad-based theoretical review in relation to the undertaken systematic literature review and thus identified key influential variables (employee retention strategies, perception of

strategy, job satisfaction, and employee engagement) in the study of organizational commitment and employee retention. Key reviewed theories include the Three-Component model of organizational commitment, Social Exchange theories, the JD-R model and HPWS. However, contradictions and variations in conceptualizations and findings have been evident across different contexts and in application (e.g. under the Three-Component model and HPWS), and all these have been appreciated as being instrumental in guiding our model development. Variations in findings across contexts have generated recommendations for other studies (Ko et al. 1997; Meyer et al. 2002; Powell and Meyer 2004; Wang et al. 2011). On the basis of the reviewed theories and literature, selected employee retention strategies have been examined in context of their perceptions by employees as to whether they are supportive or not. There is need to gain an understanding of the strategies being employed by management, and further assess employee perceptions of such strategies as managements' intentions may differ from employees' interpretations (Alfes et al. 2013). The Social Exchange and Perceived Support theories, together with the JD-R model became instrumental in evaluating employee perceptions and interpretations of the different strategies in context of perceived support, and then job demands and job resources that were presented as having substantial influence on job satisfaction and employee engagement. In other words, *are the strategies supportive of employees in their work, are they experienced as creating job demands or job resources, and how do all these perceptions and experiences relate to job satisfaction, employee engagement, organizational commitment, and turnover intention?* It is conceived in this chapter that improved job satisfaction and employee engagement should result into improved organizational commitment which should subsequently influence turnover intention and hence actual turnover (Karatepe 2013b). The strength of the developed model is in its ability to draw from several theories, thereby identifying resultant strengths and limitations. It also recognizes several factors at organizational, contextual and individual levels that should make it more general and adaptable, especially to developing economies in addition to the developed world where most of the reviewed theories have been developed and mainly tested.

5 THE CONTEXT OF UGANDA

5.1 Introduction

Uganda as a country has experienced a number of socio-economic and political reforms over the last three decades. The implementation of macroeconomic structural-adjustment reforms started in 1987 with support from the World Bank, IMF, and other development partners such as Britain (IMF. 1997). Reforms covered areas of trade (review of taxes on exports and imports), privatization and divestiture of public enterprises, restructuring of the banking sector, overall tax reforms, and creation of Uganda Revenue Authority (URA). Others included restructuring of the civil service whereby the staffs were reduced by about 50% and most of the responsibility of government functions decentralised to districts. Achievements including growth in GDP, reduced inflation, effective public sector, vibrant private sector have been reported (ICEIDA 2014).

However, implications of the reforms over time in the area of employment are varied. The impetus in economic growth created jobs in new businesses arising out of liberalised trade as well as decentralised services (Kakumba and Fennell 2014). Conversely, a number of individuals lost jobs through the reforms, for example, from divested public enterprises and restructured functions (Mitala 2003), and the new terms of service bore different implications for employment. The reforms created a competitive environment as well as anxiety in the employment sector and individuals started to rethink their commitment to particular employers, thereby posing employee retention challenges. This chapter provides a brief description of the context of Uganda in terms of its location and general features (5.2) and the demographic factors (5.3), which are envisaged to be having influence on her socio-economic and political life. The chapter also examines the nature of Uganda's economy and its implication for employment (5.4), the labour market in Uganda (5.5), administrative and legal framework, and employee relations (5.6), and a conclusion with key observable issues for organizational commitment and retention (5.7).

5.2 Location and general features of Uganda

Uganda is located in East Africa, astride the Equator, within coordinates 1° N and 32° E, with a total area of 241,038km² (Google 2015; Rwendeire 2012). Uganda is a member state of the East African Community (EAC) that comprises Uganda herself, Tanzania, Rwanda, Kenya, Burundi and South Sudan. Uganda is a landlocked country that mainly accesses the sea through the Kenyan port of Mombasa, but with the strategic location in the heart of the Great Lakes region making her a transit route to other East and Central African Countries.

Uganda has key water bodies including Lake Victoria, the second largest lake in the world, and source to River Nile (the world's longest river) that is a livelihood to a number of countries including South Sudan, Sudan, Egypt, and Ethiopia. Other big lakes in the country include Albert, Edward and Kyoga. Of the total area of 241,038km², 43,938km² is covered by water, while 197,100km² is land. The land use includes arable land (27.94%), permanent crops (9.11%) and others (62.95% (Rwendeire 2012)). Mountains such as the snow caped Rwenzori, forests such as Mabira and Bwindi impenetrable forest, together with the unique species of animals, birds and tropical tree species provide added beauty to the scenery, and economic activities such as fishing, farming, and tourism, which support employment.

5.3 Population and demographics

The Uganda National Census of 2014 (Uganda 2014) puts the population of Uganda at 34.9 million, compared to 24.2 million in 2002. This gives an increase of 10.7 million over a period of twelve years, and an average annual population growth rate of 3.03 percent. Basing on this growth rate, the population is projected to increase to 35.0 million in 2015 and to 47.4 million by 2025. The population increase is evident in both urban and rural areas with an average population density of 174 persons (persons per km²). Such a high population growth rate has implications for employment (for example, high levels of unemployment, underemployment, or cheap labour) as it comes with increased competition for the available job opportunities.

A unique observation in the population, however, is the declining trend in the sex composition as measured by the sex ratio (number of males per 100 females in the population) since the post-independence census. The sex ratio (number of males per 100 females) had been on the increase before and immediately after independence (100.2 in 1948, 100.9 in 1959 and 101.9 in 1969), but thereafter started experiencing a declining trend (98.2 in 1980, 96.5 in 1991, 95.3 in 2002 and 94.5 in 2014). Gender remains a key issue in employment, with increasing recognition of gender emanicipation and the provision of equal employment opportunities. Amidst such developments is the challenge of balancing family obligations with work, especially for the women, and moreso in developing countries such as Uganda where flexible working arrangements, for example homeworking are not yet well developed.

The trends in the population and general demographics over time have had several implications on urbanization, health, economic performance, administrative units, overall service delivery, and employment. Kampala Capital City alone is reported to have over 1.5 million people and yet there is an increasing level of urbanization (Uganda 2014) as the number of Municipalities and Town Councils is

reportedly increasing. This means increased competition for jobs in the urban centres and hence a precursor to unemployment, underemployment and cheap labour.

Table 5.1 Uganda's demographic data

Populations Census 1911-2014

Year	Males	Females	Population	Sex Ratio	Population density/ sq km
1911			2,466,325		
1921			2,854,608		
1931			3,542,281		
1948			4,958,520	100.2	
1959			6,536,616	100.9	
1969	4,811,428	4,723,623	9,535,051	101.9	48
1980	6,259,837	6,376,342	12,636,179	98.2	64
1991	8,185,747	8,485,958	16,671,705	96.5	85
2002	11,824,273	12,403,024	24,227,297	95.3	123
2014	16,935,456	17,921,357	34,856,813	94.5	174

Administrative Units as at August 2014

Unit	Numbers
Districts	112
Counties	181
Sub-counties	1382
Municipalities	22
Town councils	174

URBANIZATION

Year	City	Municipality	Town council	Town board/ Township
1969	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
1980	1	2	34	4
1991	1	13	33	18
2002	1	13	61	20
2014	1	22	174	N/A

2014 Population Census

Description	Number
Males	16,935,456
Females	17,921,357
Rural	28,430,800
Urban	6,426,013
Kampala Capital City	1,516,210

Sex Ratio – M/F (Percent)

year	Ratio (%)
1948	100.2
1959	100.9
1969	101.9
1980	98.2
1991	96.5
2002	95.3
2014	94.5

Annual Population Growth Rates (%)

Year	%
1991-2002	3.20
2002-2014	3.03
1969-2014	2.88

Projected Population (millions)

Year	Numbers
2015	35.8
2020	40.4
2025	46.7

Source: Adapted from Uganda, 2014. Uganda National Population Census, and Rwendeire, 2012

In terms of education and literacy levels, it is revealed that the highest percentage (58%) of the total population (34.6 million) are of school going age of 3-24 years, while the literacy level is reported to be

above 72% (Uganda 2017). In terms of the quality of the labourforce, more than 70% of the workforce have secondary education or higher (Uganda 2016), while over 71% of people studying in higher institutions of learning are in Universities although there is also a substantial number in other colleges and intitutions (Uganda 2013). The labour force statistics as analysed under section 5.5 even provides a better position of the skill level, but the interpretation here is that the workforce in Uganda is generally literate with higher levels of education.

5.4 Nature of the economy and implications for employment

Uganda is largely a liberalised economy that has promoted private investment alongside government efforts in different sectors, following the structural adjustment programmes of the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF). The relative peace and international confidence has also attracted foreign investment. All these efforts have paved way for the growth of the private and the third sectors in different spheres of the economy. However, some of the reforms, for example privatisation led to the loss of the state pride in investment, while others such as restructuring resulted into the loss of jobs and triggered a sense of job insecurity in the public service (Mitala 2003).

Uganda is historically an agricultural country dating to the colonial era. However, cotton farming that had been prosperous in the country since the colonial days has considerably declined in recent years. Meanwhile, animal husbandry is very prominent in the west, central and north eastern parts of the country. Considerable progress has been made in manufacturing, tourism, trade and industry, energy and mining, and education. All these activities provide employment through government's line ministries, departments and districts, and through private entrepreneurship in direct farming and/or processing (for example, Kakira sugar works, and Mpanga Tea Growers). NGOs such as Brac are also involved in the promotion of such activities.

Industrialization is considerably being promoted in the country. New industrial parks such as Namanve and Nakasongola have been setup in addition to the historical industrial towns of Jinja and Kampala. However, the establishment of the new industrial parks around the main city (Kampala) has negatively affected the performance of the country's historical industrial town (Jinja) as some industries including Nytil and Steel Rolling that were big employers have dwindled in business. This has been recognized and considered in the country's strategic direction to revamp the industrial status of Jinja, alongside other industrial areas. All these events and efforts have implications for employment.

Minerals, energy, oil and gas sector is another key area in the country. *Firstly*, Uganda is endowed with several minerals (including, gold, copper, diamond, iron ore, phosphates, and cobalt among others).

Secondly, the country is blessed with nature that provides different sources of energy hence providing investment and employment opportunities. River Nile is the host to the Owen falls and Bujagali dams that are the main power sources to the country and some neighbouring countries (Kenya and Rwanda through export). Plans are also under way to construct more dams, for example Karuma along the Nile. The power sector is run by three big companies (for generation, distribution and supply) in which the government has shares. *Thirdly*, the government has been promoting use of green energy and this has accordingly attracted private entrepreneurs as well. *Fourthly*, Uganda recently discovered commercially viable oil and gas in the Albertan Graben region. By the year 2012, the equivalent of 3.4 million barrels of oil had been found in only 40% of the area that was being explored (Rwendeire, 2012). Plans for construction of the oil pipeline and the refinery are underway with opportunities for employment.

Social services have been restructured to provide competitiveness and have as such attracted the involvement of different players (the government, the private individuals, and the NGOs). As government focuses on providing to its public the services within its jurisdiction, it has also supported private investment in key social services. Private investments for example have been registered in areas of health, education, banking, and telecommunication. A number of private clinics and hospitals up to referral level exist alongside government health centres and hospitals, just like private and government primary and secondary schools, tertiary institutions, and universities co-exist across the country. Of the 29 Universities in the country, 5 are government-aided, while the remainder (24) are privately or NGO owned. This free market operation has, however, posed an employee retention challenge as many doctors, academics, and other staff have either opted for the private sector, or divided their labour between the private and the public sectors for extra pay (Lwamafa 2008).

As the different service sectors grow, so they provide employment to the population. However, the policies and terms of employment do vary across sectors and particular organizations. Differences in tenure of service, disciplinary procedures, pay, opportunities for training and career; have different attitudinal and behavioural influences across the sectors and organizations, hence having implications for employee retention that require attention.

5.5 Labourforce composition and its characteristics

The National Housing and Population Census of 2014 put the working population (14-64 years) at 17.7 million persons or 52% of the total population. This means that out of the 58% that are of school going age, some are already of working age (Uganda 2017). The high percentage (71%) of those in higher institutions being in universities depicts the populaton's emphasis of university education in addition to

other tertiary and vocational qualifications. This can mainly be linked to the increasing number of universities (32 in 2011), that are spread across all regions of the country (Uganda 2013). Observing that universities mainly produce graduates and postgraduates, the high level of enrolment into universities is therefore likely to result in many graduates in the labour market.

Whereas high qualifications provide competitiveness in the labourforce, they are also likely to result in unemployment and underemployment as already noted. The unemployment rate in Uganda stands averagely at about 9.0% between the years 2013 and 2015 compared to 1.90 and 4.20 in 2006 and 2010 respectively. This means that the unemployment rate has been on the rise for a number of years now.

The above scenario can be the explanation for the 86.2% of the working population being in informal employment such as subsistence agriculture and family business enterprises. This has implications for retention/turnover as high unemployment level creates competition for jobs by providing a big pool of job candidates to hire from at any time, while under-utilization standing at 9.8% (Uganda 2016) causes job dissatisfaction and low level of employee engagement, hence low level of commitment and thus turnover intentions.

With hardly any labour statistics on Uganda's overall employment status including the private and NGO sectors, Uganda Bureau of Statistics only provides specific numbers for the civil service (as at 2011, Uganda 2013). The heavy reliance on the informal sector as explained above should account for the limitation in having such labour statistics. It is revealed that the civil service overall had 275,150 employees in 2011 of whom 219,869 included the traditional civil service (10,692), teaching service (156,442), police and prisons (35,625), the support staff/group employees (12,939), and others/not stated (4,171). The university employees were 6,705, while staffs of the decentralized districts were 48,576. The public service is in this regarded with a considerably more coordinated data on its human resources as compared to the private and NGOs that are loosely operating independently with many of them being in an informal setting.

5.6 Administrative and legal framework, and employee relations

Uganda is a unitary state with executive powers at the centre, but also with decentralized system of governance with the district as the highest local government and the sub-county as a lower local government. Under Article 98(1) of the Constitution of 1995, the President is the Head of State, Head of Government, Commander-in-Chief, and Fountain of Honour (Uganda. 1995). Article 99(1) vests executive powers in the president who exercises such powers in accordance with the Constitution and the

laws of Uganda, while clause (4) of the same article gives the President mandate to exercise powers conferred upon him either directly or through offices that are subordinate to his office. The president is elected through adult suffrage as provided for in Article 103 of the Constitution (Uganda. 1995). The president is mandated to appoint cabinet and other ministers as part of the executive, whose functions are to determine, formulate and implement the policy of the government among other functions as may be conferred upon them by law (Articles 111-118).

The doctrine of separation of power among the three arms of government (the Legislature, the Executive and the Judiciary) is provided for in the Constitution. The establishment of the Parliament is provided for under Chapter six of the Constitution, with the functions of making the laws, protecting the Constitution and promoting democracy in the country. Chapter eight (articles 126-151) provides for the establishment of the Judiciary, whose cardinal function is administration of justice.

There are established independent appointing authorities for different lines of offices within the public sector (the Public Service Commission (PSC) under articles 165 and 166; Education Service Commission (ESC) under articles 167 and 168; Health Service commission (HSC) under article 169 and 170; and the Judicial Service Commission (JSC) under articles 146-151). The functions of the respective service commissions in line with articles 171 and 172 include advising the president in performing his/her functions, establishing offices in the public service, appointing persons to hold or act in any public office, confirmation of appointments, promotions, managing disciplinary control, and removal of such persons from office. Others are reviewing terms and conditions of service, standing orders, and training and qualifications, and matters of development of personnel in the public service; guiding District Service Commissions, and determining grievances from persons appointed by the District Service Commissions (Uganda. 1995). Article 200 of the Constitution (Uganda. 1995), and sections 52 and 56 of the Local Government Act (Uganda. 1997) provide powers and functions of the District Service Commission.

Each district by law, Article 198 of the Constitution (Uganda. 1995), and sections 52 and 56 of the Local Government Act (Uganda. 1997), has a District Service Commission appointed by the District Council on the recommendation of the District Executive Committee, and approved by the Public Service Commission. The District Service Commission in relation to the district performs those functions similar to those of the Public Service Commission, including establishment of offices, appointing persons to any office in the service of a district, confirming appointments, exercise of disciplinary control over staff, and it is only in their power to remove those persons from office. Several interpretations arise: 1) Council members nominate individuals who are close and pay allegiance to them, hence likely to compromise the

effectiveness in employment decisions. 2) The members of Service Commission pay patronage to the Council members that nominate them for appointment. 3) The Council members have influence on matters of employment through their colleagues serving as members of Service Commission. There is therefore political influence in appointments, confirmation, disciplining and removal of employees from offices and this in turn affects commitment and retention.

In line with the above, a district is the basis for local government system with sub-counties as lower local governments under decentralization and local governance as provided for in chapter eleven (Article 176(1)). There are also administrative units (counties and parishes). The district has a democratically elected council based on universal adult suffrage with the District Chairperson as the political head (Articles 176 (3) and 188). Each district council has a Speaker elected by the Council members from among its members, and the Speaker of a district in relation to council, performs functions similar to those of the Speaker of Parliament (Article 184(1), (2)). In addition, as per Article 186 (Uganda. 1995), the District Executive Committee (DEC) comprises of the District Chairperson, Vice Chairperson and a number of Secretaries as the District Council may decide, who are nominated by the District Chairperson and approved by two-thirds of all members of Council.

Further to the relationship with DSC, the District Chairperson and members of the Executive Committee, and the rest of the members of Council as politicians, work closely with the technical staff and thus wield considerable influence in matters of employment in the district. For example, under article 183(3) (b) and (c) of the Constitution of 1995; the District Chairperson (and Executive Committee and Standing Committees of Council) is responsible for monitoring the general administration of the district, and coordination of the activities of urban councils and councils of the lower local administrative units in the district (Uganda. 1995). It is also a responsibility of the district local government councils (working with the support of the technical staff) to prepare comprehensive and integrated development plans incorporating the plans of lower level local governments for submission to the National Planning Authority (Article 190). It is easy for both the councillors and the staff to develop patronage, which most likely affects the overall working environment and thus have implications for retention in employment.

The structure of the district leadership has also created conflicts. While every district has a Resident District Commissioner (RDC) appointed by the President, at the same time, Article 188(2) provides for a Chief Administrative Officer (CAO), as the chief accounting officer of the district. While the responsibilities of the District Chairperson, the RDC, and CAO are well spelt out, there have been incidents of conflicts in the execution of their duties (Kakumba and Fennell 2014; Uganda. 1995).

Some government authorities (including URA and Bank of Uganda) just like private companies and NGOs, both at national and local level are, however, not managed within the overall discussed national and local employment legal framework. They have their independent HR functions that fully oversee their respective human resources. However, at the same time, some related authorities such as the Auditor General's Office, and Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA) operate under the armpit of the Public Service Commission. Variations therefore exist not only across sectors but within sectors and these have implications for the practice of HR and retention.

Overall, however, there are general legal structures that all employment relationships in Uganda ought to observe and follow. Regardless of the differences in internal managerial approaches, all employment policies, strategies, and practices should be in line with the general employment laws. These include The Employment Act (Uganda. 2006a), Occupational Safety and Health Act (Uganda. 2006b), and Workers Compensation Act (Uganda. 2000) in addition to the general provisions of the Constitution (Uganda. 1995). For example, key provisions of the Constitution that are important across the general employment sector include protection from forced labour (Article 25), right to a fair hearing (Article 28), affirmative action in favour of marginalized groups (Article 32), Rights to a clean and health environment (Article 39), and right to just and fair treatment in administrative decisions (Article 42). All these provisions are aimed at ensuring fairness and protecting staff.

In terms of employee relations, whereas there are several trade unions that are registered and coordinated by National Organization of Trade Unions (NOTU), they have been of limited influence in matters of employment. Examples of trade unions in Uganda include Amalgamated Transport and General Workers' Union, Uganda Government and Allied Workers' Union, National Union of Educational Institutions, National Union of Plantation and Agriultural Workers, Uganda Railways Workers' Union, Uganda Electricity Allied Workers Union, Uganda National Teachers' Union, Uganda Nurses and Midwives Union, Uganda Public Employees' Union among others. Several concerns can, however, be raised as posing challenges to the effectiveness and influence of trade unions in Uganda. *Firstly*, the diverstiture and privatisation of many government parastals weakened the trade union movement. For example, the Amalgamated Transport and General Workers' Union used to be effective with a strong public transport system that included for example People's Transport Company and Uganda Transport Company. The Uganda Railways Workers Union cannot operate without a functional railway system. *Secondly*, political influence and control over civil movements has also weakened the trade union movement in Uganda. It has been evident in the recent years when government officials have come out to condemn and threaten with arrests or dismissal from employment of trade union leaders in situations of coordinated strikes.

Thirdly, poverty, corruption and greed for power have weakened the management of trade unions and hence their effectiveness. There is infighting among the trade union leaders for control. *Fourthly*, the rise of the informal sector and the private sector generally, and *fifly*, the management (HR) practices that espouse individualism/unitarist as opposed to collectivism/pluralist have brought the employees closer to the employers than believing in organised labour movements. However, a few trade unions and workers' associations such as the Uganda National Teachers' Union, and Makerere University Academic Staff Association, do exist although they grapple with the mentioned challenges.

5.7 Issues and conclusion

Uganda as a country has experienced several reforms, which, coupled with her resources, have created the impetus for development and employment. Several policies and legal regimes exist to support the efforts. However, variations and concerns remain in their application across sectors and subsectors, as well as the implications for employment. *Firstly*, there are variations in appointments, terms of service, and discipline process across and within the sectors. The implication of such variations on perceptions, job satisfaction, employee engagement, organizational commitment, and thus retention is enormous and needs to be carefully examined. *Secondly*, different sectors and organizations seem to be driven by different motives/ and or power centres (the national government, local government, NGOs or private company interests), and these offer differing opportunities for promotion and career growth, training, salary, job security; all of which bear different meanings to different categories of employees. *Thirdly*, there are differing levels of influence (political and ownership) with implications for engagement, satisfaction, commitment, and retention.

Employee attitudes and behaviours hence vary across the different sectors and organizations depending on their policies and managerial practices. A comparative analysis of the different employee retention strategies across sectors and organizations, especially in a developing country context where there are limited studies to the effect becomes relevant. This is supported by unverified reports pointing to a retention challenge with some of the concerns including variations in employee hiring practices, tenure, pay, and pension (Lwamafa 2008; Mitala 2003). There are also limitations in existing models that mainly originate from the developing world, with variations in application across contexts.

6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1 Introduction

HRM as a field espouses different philosophies, assumptions and beliefs about the nature of the world (ontology), the creation of knowledge and how it is acquired (epistemology), while appreciating varying value systems under different situations that researchers face (axiology). These philosophical areas form the framework for this research, upon which its methodology and methods are founded (Neuman 2011). Different paradigms (positivism/post positivism, interpretivism, pragmatism, realism) have been applied in HRM depending on the nature of the studies. This chapter presents the overall approach to the research process for this study. It sets out the research paradigm, the researcher's ontological and epistemological positions, the research methodology, and the specific research methods. It specifically provides an overview and implications of *positivism and interpretivism* to inform the choice of the *pragmatic paradigm* for the current study (6.2). Without necessarily engaging in the paradigm debates, it is evident that each of the philosophies has strengths and limitations over the other, and claiming a purist stance for example, for either positivism or interpretivism, has its own limitations especially in a study aimed at understanding how strategies and employee attitudes influence and explain behaviours. A *pragmatic philosophy* that recognizes that different research philosophies are not totally incompatible, but can complement each other by employing *mixed methods* to produce stronger results is adopted and justified. All these steps are aimed at answering the research questions focusing on: the main components of a general model to explain employee retention; the factors that explain turnover intention, and how they are related; variation in turnover intentions; and the results of applying the model in Uganda. The rest of the chapter focuses on the research design and strategy (6.3), and the research methods (6.4), addressing qualitative and quantitative methods. Ethical considerations are then discussed (6.7).

6.2 Research paradigms and their influence

The choice of a research paradigm is always characterised by the researcher's ontology, epistemology and axiology, as a distinct theoretical framework that influences the study and interpretation of knowledge (Mackenzie and Knipe 2006; Neuman 2011). For the current research of turnover intentions and turnover/retention as what actually needs to be known (Grix 2002) by examining HR retention strategies and employee attitudes that explain behaviours, requires interaction between the researcher and the researched to have a better understanding of individuals' experiences in their natural setting (Morse et al. 2008; Onwuegbuzie and Leech 2005). This suggests that the reality is socially constructed and subjective, while also ensuring objectivity (Neuman 2011).

The study therefore also recognizes very well that such interactions do not remove the distinction between the researcher and the researched. Testing the developed model of employee retention requires perceiving the reality as being objective, unitary and separate from the researcher. Unlike in the natural sciences where most research takes place in the laboratory (Morse et al. 2008; Onwuegbuzie and Leech 2005), it is, however, hard in the social sciences to treat the researched as objects that are independent of the researcher while seeking for the reality (Neuman 2011). Similarly, explanations for the events and their occurrences suggest that the reality is subjective and multiple as seen by different people (Hussey and Hussey 1997). This requires a paradigm that creates a balance in the different research orientations.

Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) explain that without first nominating the paradigm, one has no basis for methodological choices since they (paradigms) are logical assumptions and ideas that guide research. The research paradigm reflects the basic beliefs about the world, guides research and thus helps in defining the methods and techniques used (Morgan 2007) since it is related to the ontological and epistemological assumptions of the researcher, as well as the choice of the research methods.

6.2.1 Positivism

Positivism regards the world as objective and independent to the researcher, observing and measuring causal relationships. The current study aimed at examining relationships among employee strategies, attitudes, and outcomes (e.g. employee retention strategies, perceptions, job satisfaction, engagement, organizational commitment and turnover intention/turnover). In the current study, positivist approach would be relevant in measuring and establishing associations or causal-effect relationships of the variables in the developed model of employee retention, by mainly generating quantitative data. The quantitative data and the measurement of relationships under positivism were independent of the researcher's own values and prejudices as emphasis was mainly on objective measure of the reality. However, the positivist approach ignores the subjective nature of reality that evolves out of human interaction, which is vital in HRM. Humans have value and belief systems that shape their attitudes (e.g. employee perceptions, employee engagement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment) and behaviours (e.g. turnover), and their subjective interpretations become important in providing explanations to different situations. This therefore brought into perspective the interpretivist philosophy

6.2.2 Interpretivism

It is important to minimise the distance between the researcher and the researched, to interpret perceptions and values of the respondents as these define employee attitudes and behaviours (Morse et al. 2008; Onwuegbuzie and Nancy 2007). This involved dealing with employees as the researched in their

organizations as their natural work setting as opposed to conducting laboratory experiments in the natural sciences. HRM as a people field benefits from the understanding of the world as being socially constructed and thus requiring an understanding and interpretation of individuals' values and beliefs that shape their attitudes, actions and reasoning (Onwuegbuzie and Leech 2005). It is therefore important to understand perceptions and repetitive patterns with regard to what happens in a particular situation by focusing on actions and behaviours generated from human mind as opposed to physical sciences that deal with objects that are outside us (Morse et al. 2008; Onwuegbuzie and Collins 2007). Interpretive paradigm in this context therefore emphasized qualitative data organized around common themes to explain such experiences and interpretations for ease of conceptualisation (Mackenzie and Knipe 2006).

However, conceptualization without testing and application of the model does not fully solve the problem. The current research was premised upon a problem, together with the required actions and consequences. The intention and nature of this research therefore went beyond the divide of objective and subjective reality, or qualitative and quantitative data as advanced by positivism and interpretivism. Limitations of each of the two paradigms do not give an overall strength of either of them over the other, but instead, the strengths of each approach strengthen the study by considering a paradigm that supports compatibility.

6.2.3 The choice of pragmatic paradigm

Pragmatic philosophy emphasizes the reality as what works (Creswell 2009) and thus focuses on getting solutions to problems (Feilzer 2010). The current study has consistently demonstrated existence of an employee retention problem in general (Loi et al. 2006; Luna-Arocas and Camps 2008), and particularly in Uganda (Lwamafa 2008; Mitala 2003). The desire to 'generate knowledge that is relevant for day today practice' without simply wanting 'to know how the world out there is', supports this study to inform management activities and actions (Biesta and Burbules 2003 p.4). Establishing causal-effect relationships were supported by explanations for such relationships and their consequences in order to guide management in their decisions and actions. Withstanding the paradigm wars and incompatibility thesis (Onwuegbuzie and Leech 2005), pragmatism provides an opportunity to employ different approaches (e.g. combining qualitative and quantitative) for the benefit of the research. Feilzer (2010) argues that a researcher should not be a prisoner of a particular research method or technique since there is no guaranteed methodological path to the end result. Every method has limitations and thus a combination of different methods is very helpful. With a problem, we use different approaches available to understand it (Creswell 2009). The choice of a research paradigm for this study was aimed at concomitance with the theoretical underpinning of the study, through data collection and analysis (Hussey and Hussey 1997).

6.3 Research Design and Strategy

The current study employed a mixed-method approach (Creswell 2009) involving both qualitative and quantitative methods (Hussey and Hussey 1997; Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998). It is believed that every method has limitations and thus combining different techniques under both approaches (Feilzer 2010) gives the study an overall strength that is greater than using either qualitative or quantitative. Integrating the two types of data allows one method to strengthen the weaknesses of the other (Creswell 2009; Feilzer 2010). Mixed-method approach also allows triangulation hence permitting comparison of quantitative and qualitative data for purposes of confirmation, cross validation or corroboration (Creswell 2009; Ngulube and Ngulube 2014). Going by the nature of the current study that explores issues of retention, organizational commitment and turnover intention/turnover in a developing country context and then develops and tests an applicable model, the two methods become appropriate. The qualitative data were important in model development, refinement and explanation based on common emerging themes, while the quantitative approach helped in the testing of the model by establishing the associations of variables.

Following recommendations by Creswell (2009), the study adopted an exploratory sequential mixed methods design with qualitative data preceding quantitative data collection for the initial stages of the research in order to refine the model and develop the survey tool (e.g. see section 6.8), and then explanatory sequential mixed methods design with the qualitative data helping explain in more detail the quantitative results, but with the interpretations focusing on the entire analyses (Creswell 2009; Onwuegbuzie and Leech 2005). Starting with the collection of qualitative data was aimed at refining the model before testing it using quantitative data, and developing and refining the survey tool to cater for commonly observed themes that would have missed out. Qualitative data further helped in the interpretation and indepth explanation of quantitative results. The exploratory and then the explanatory sequential mixed methods hence adopted the equivalent status design of qualitative/quantitative (QUAL/QUAN, (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998)).

Qualitative methods involved collection, analysis and interpretation of in-depth data related to the main themes of the study as guided by the research questions (Clarke 2001), while the quantitative methods entailed adopting a numerical approach to the collection and analysis of data to establish the distribution and variation of responses, data structure and associations of variables. The interpretation and explanation of both qualitative and quantitative data guided in making conclusions and generalisations. The described mixed-methods approach provides a comprehensive picture of investigation of our research variables

(Ngulube and Ngulube 2014). The remainder of this chapter provides the specific approaches of the qualitative and quantitative methods, but first addresses the general/ cross-cutting aspects of the design.

6.3.1 General selection of organizations

The study targeted health and education professionals as well as administrative employees of all levels of management and skills in the public, the private, and the NGO sectors of Uganda as a developing country. Appreciating the breadth of each of the three sectors, specific focus was paid to the health and education sub-sectors as leading industries that generally affect the basic lives of the entire population. They are both critical, spread across the country and their degree of effectiveness affacts the general population across the country while they both contribute to the bulk of the country's workforce. In this regard, cases representing the respective sectors were considered, to which in-depth interviews and the survey were administered. It is supported that multiple cases represent replication logic and similar data are expected across, for purposes of comparison (Onwuegbuzie and Leech 2005; Onwuegbuzie and Collins 2007). Inevitably, the Ministry of Education and that of Health as leading sector service players became key public sector organizations in addition to 2 Local Districts out of a total of 112 districts in the country (Uganda 2014). In addition, 1 out of the 5 government aided universities was selected for uniformity in targeting and including universities from other sectors (privately and NGO founded universities) as key players in the education sub-sector (and also health) across all the three sectors.

There are several private/commercial companies and NGOs at different levels of development that influence matters of employment. For a developing country such as Uganda, it is hard to ascertain with confidence the number of existent companies and NGOs as those registered with respective bodies (Registrar of Companies and NGO Board respectively) may not necessarily be in operation, in addition to access challenges to such lists. In developing a credible basis for identifying and targeting such organizations, *first*ly, the researcher in consultation with the Ministries of Health and Education as leaders in the respective lines of service (health and education, and as the selected service industries), and the NGO Board, identified leading private companies and NGOs in education and health services, with established structures and practices that could allow comparison across the three sectors. On the side of the private sector, one (1) university, purely private university was included alongside one private hospital to represent the education and health sub-sectors respectively. For the NGO sector, a private-NGO founded university and two NGOs in the area of health (with operations in the capital city and upcountry), were included to represent the education and health sub-sectors respectively. Table 6.1 shows the distribution of organizations by sectors, while table 8.3 shows the descriptive statistics of the sample respondents.

Table 6.1 Distribution of organizations for the study by sectors

Sector	Type of organization	No. of Organizations
Public	Central Government Ministries	2
	Local Governments/ Districts	2
	University	1
Private	Companies (Private Hospital)	1
	University	1
NGO	Humanitarian Health Organizations	2
	University (Private-NGO)	1
TOTAL		**10**

6.3.2 Overall sample Size and selection

Selection of elements for this study was done at different levels. Firstly, *Multilevel* and *Stratified non-random/quota sampling* strategies were considered to achieve this plan. M*ultistage/multilevel sampling* becomes important when dealing with selected groups that are large to the extent that a sample must be selected from each group, in this case the three sectors (Feilzer 2010; Hussey and Hussey 1997), or collecting a different type of data (qualitative) from one group, for example key line managers, and another type (quantitative) from another group such as general staff as it is the case for this study (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998). *Stratified non-random/quota sampling* was applied to pre-set the number of cases in each of the sectors and organizations from the population under study (Neuman 2011). The allocation of quotas considered the relative size and influence of the respective sectors.

Secondly, each of the included organizations was allocated quotas or numbers of targeted respondents (see table 6.2) that were drawn from all levels of management and skills among the health and education professionals, and administrative cadres. This would later facilitate comparison of professions/ occupations within and across the the health and education industries of the three sectors of the economy (the public, the private and the NGOs). Consideration was given for qualitative and quantitative data at this stage in selecting the actual respondents within the respective method guidelines (Creswell 2009; Hussey and Hussey 1997; Neuman 2011). Following the adopted sequential design, qualitative methods were first applied and then followed with the quantitative methods, whose respective sample sizes and selection are summarised and explained in *table 6.2*.

Table 6.2 Summary of samples across sectors and organizations

				Interviews	Questionnaires			
Sector		Organization	Type	Number	Distributed	Returned	% response per Orgn	% of overall response
Public	Districts	Busia District Local Government	Public – District	4	60	43	71.7	11.1
		Kamuli District Local Government	Public – District	2	58	44	75.9	11.4
	Ministries	Ministry of Education & Sports	Public – Ministry	3	77	39	50.6	10.1
		Ministry of Health	Public – Ministry	3	80	42	52.5	10.9
	University	Makerere University	Public - University	4	111	77	69.4	19.9
Private	University	Kampala International University	Private – University	0	30	18	60.0	4.7
	Hospital	Case Hospital	Private – Hospital	3	50	38	76.0	9.8
NGO	Humanitarian Organization	Reproductive Health Uganda	NGO	3	30	17	56.7	4.4
	University	Uganda Christian University	Private – University	3	69	42	60.9	10.9
	Humanitarian Organization	Makerere Joint Aids Programme	NGO	1	35	27	77.1	7.0
		Overall Distribution and Response		26	600	387	64.5	100.0

6.4 Qualitative method

Having already determined the organizations of study and the categories of respondents as discussed in the previous section, *purposive sampling* was useful in identifying key informants such as Heads of Human Resources and other departments, as they were considered to have expert knowledge and experiences to inform the study. This approach aimed at generating rich data for in-depth explanations. A total of 26 interviews[5] were held, well within the recommended 15-30 in respect of achieving saturation (Mackenzie and Knipe 2006; Mason 2010; Onwuegbuzie and Nancy 2007).

The data were collected with the aid of an interview guide (appendix 6.1) that comprised of topics and sub-topics developed around common themes from the literature, and as guided by the research questions, while allowing for an enriching discussion with intermittent probing questions for in-depth data (Feilzer 2010).

Qualitative data (interviews) were audio-recorded alongside handwritten field notes for purposes of safety assurance and systematic follow-up of the interviews. Audio-recorded data were transcribed immediately after leaving the field to allow reflection on the context and interpretation of non-verbal cues and slogans (Creswell 2009; Feilzer 2010). The organized data were read to gain a general sense and the overall meaning of the general participants' ideas and the impression towards the study as well as developing a feel of key issues arising from the data. Using NVivo software (version 11.2), data were coded and categorized by grouping identified common themes (please see appendix 6.3 for the coding framework and source/reference summary). Data belonging to a particular theme and category were assembled and examined for key explanations. Verbatim quotes were extensively reported in chapters 9 and 10, while pseudonyms were adopted and used in reference to respondents for purposes of confidentiality (McIntosh et al. 2015).

6.5 Quantitative method

The second phase of this research involved undertaking a survey to collect quantitative data in order to answer research questions two to four. Research question two involved; *firstly*, examining the factorial structure of the different components of the model as per our data. Results of factor analysis are reported in chapter seven, and *secondly*, by examining correlations of the different factors with turnover intention

[5] For adherence to ethical standards, this number excludes 6 interviews from one organization (NGO) that withdrew her consent and approval, after interviews had been concluded.

as reported under 8.4. Questions three and four were answered by running hierarchical regression and the results are under 8.5. The following hypotheses were specifically tested to answer questions two(b) to question four.

6.5.1 Hypotheses

Hypotheses H1 and H2 address question two (b) as follows. H1 mainly assumed that factors of job retention strategies, employee perceptions, job resources, the psychological contract, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment are negatively correlated with turnover intention. Specifically;

- H1[1] On-job HR practices are significantly and strongly negatively correlated with turnover intention.
- H1[2] Job entry practices are significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention.
- H1[3] Perceived organizational support is significantly and strongly negatively correlated with turnover intention.
- H1[4] Perceived supervisor support is significantly and strongly negatively correlated with turnover intention.
- H1[5] Skill discretion is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention.
- H1[6] Decision Authority is negatively significantly correlated with turnover intention.
- H1[7] Co-worker support is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention.
- H1[8] Psychological contract is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention.
- H1[9] Emotional employee engagement is significantly and strongly negatively correlated with turnover intention.
- H1[10] Occupational Employee engagement is significantly and strongly negatively correlated with turnover intention.
- H1[11] Job satisfaction is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention.

- H1[12] Moral commitment is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention.
- H1[13] Emotional commitment is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention.
- H1[14] Continuance commitment is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention.

Hypothesis two deals with job demands, and these were expected to be positively correlated with turnover intention, thus:

- H2[1] Emotional job demands are significantly and positively correlated with turnover intention
- H2[2] Occupational job demands are significantly and positively correlated with turnover intention.

Research questions three and four are answered through the following set of hypotheses:

- H3. The variables in the model are on overall a significant measure of turnover intention.
- H4. After controlling for organizational and individual factors, employee retention strategies are significant negative predictors of turnover intentions.
- H5. After controlling for organizational and individual factors, and employee retention strategies; the two facets of employee perceptions of strategy are each a significant negative predictor of turnover intentions.
- H6. After controlling for organizational and individual factors, employee retention strategies, and perception of strategy; job resources and employee expectations are each a significant negative, while job demands a significant positive correlate of turnover intentions.
- H7. Controlling for organizational and individual factors, employee retention strategies, perception of strategy, job demands, job resources and employee expectations; employee engagement is a significant negative correlate of turnover intentions.
- H8. Controlling for organizational and individual factors, employee retention strategies, perception of strategy, job demands, job resources, employee expectations, and employee engagement; job satisfaction is a significant negative correlate of turnover intentions.
- H9. Controlling for organizational and individual factors, employee retention strategies, perception of strategy, job Demands, job resources and psychological contract fulfilment, job satisfaction and

employee engagement; the 3 facets of organizational commitment are each a significant negative correlate of turnover intentions.

6.5.2 The Estimated Model

The Equation model 6.1 is a representation of the theoretical model developed from the literature (figure 4.1) and as refined in figure 10.1, with the respective vectors of variables as applied in the hierarchical regression analysis under section 8.5. The application of hierarchical regression is theoretically justified since the theoretical model conceptualizes a hierarchy of variables.

According to Blau (2009), it is conceived that there is a hierarchy of correlates, with some factors likely to show a weaker or more distal relationship to turnover intention. Personal and organizational variables are explained as the most distal, followed by job related variables, and then work attitude variables as the most proximal. This is in line with the three-component model of commitment, and other models related to turnover intention that provide a hierarchy of factors, with organizational commitment as a strong predictor of turnover intention, which in turn is the most immediate predictor of actual turnover (Allen and Meyer 1990; Meyer et al. 1993; Pare and Tremblay 2007). Similarly, the direction of our conceptual model theorizes employee retention strategies as working through attitudinal factors to influence turnover intention, with organizational commitment as the most proximal factor (Allen et al. 2003; Brunetto et al. 2012b). Additionally, theories of organizational behaviour, for example, the traits and contingency theories, recognize the individual and organizational factors in influencing attitudes and behaviours (Gibson et al. 1997). This study therefore recognizes the hierarchy of several factors in explaining turnover intention.

For the scope of this study, and as a representation of the theoretical model, the considered variables (as obtained by principal component analysis in chapter 7) were considered in the hierarchical model as illustrated in the equational model 6.1 below. Section 8.5 also explains the order of variables into the hierarchical model.

$$Y = b_0 + b_1' X_1 + b_2' X_2 + b_3' X_3 + b_4' X_4 + b_5' X_5 + b_6' X_6 + b_7' X_7 + b_8' X_8 + \varepsilon \quad \text{.... (6.1)}$$

Where;

Y is turnover intention (I) as the dependent variable

b_0 is the constant estimating the value of the outcome (I) before adding any of the predictor variables. These are factors other than our predictors, for example, political stability of the country and the performance of the organization.

$b_i^{'}, i = 1,2...7$ are vectors of parameter estimates.

X_1 is a vector containing a set of individual background variables, which include: *Age*: classified into three age groups: 30 and below, 31-40, 41-50, and 51+, where age category 30 and below is the reference category, hereafter, RF; *Education level*: classified into secondary, tertiary, Bachelor's, and Post graduate (RF); and *Gender* (female=1; male=0).

X_2 is a vector containing a set of organizational background variables, which include: *Organizational sector:* classified into private, NGO, and public sector (RF); *Profession of occupation*: classified into education, health, and administration (RF);

X_3 is a vector containing variables capturing employee retention strategies (A), namely, on-the-job retention strategies (OJHRP: A1) and job-entry practices (JEP: A2).

X_4 is a vector of employee perception of support variables (B), namely, perceived organizational support (POS: B1) and perceived supervisor support (PSS: B2).

X_5 is a vector containing variables on job demands (D), which include emotional job demands (EmoJD: E1), and occupational job demands (OccJD: E2), job resources (C), including skill discretion (SD: C1), decision authority (DA: C2), and co-worker support (CWS: C3); and Psychological contract as employee expectations (PsyCo: D).

X_6 is a vector of employee engagement variables (F), namely, emotional (EmoEng: F1) and occupational engagement (OccEng: F2).

X_7 is Job satisfaction (JS: G)

X_8 = is a vector of organizational commitment variables (H), namely, moral commitment (MorCmt: H1), emotional commitment (EmoComt: H2), and continuance commitment (ContCmt: H3).

ε_i = is the error disturbance term which is assumed to be independently and identically distributed with mean zero and a constant variance (σ^2).

The Equation model 6.1 is a representational hierarchal regression model estimated using Ordinary Least Squares (OLS).

6.5.3 Sampling, data collection, data quality and analysis

Employing the quantitative approach in view of the above, first, *multistage cluster sampling* was found ideal as the three sectors (the public, the private and the NGOs) were considered as different clusters from which organizations were selected (Hussey and Hussey 1997; Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998). Systematic sampling was then used to select the required samples within the different organizations using staff lists. Again, table 6.2 summarises the overall planned samples and actual responses across different sectors and organizations. For consistency, the study followed the same organizations as contacted for qualitative data as the information from the interviews complements that from the survey.

In quantitative research, the sample size is emphasized for purposes of generalizability (Hussey and Hussey 1997; Kotrlik and Higgins 2001; Krejcie and Morgan 1970). Secondly, data analysis techniques such as regression analysis have minimum sample requirements. The sample size of 600 respondents that actually resulted into 387 returned useable questionnaires meets Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) recommendation, as well as the minimum of 15 cases for each of the 16 main variables of our study (Field 2013; Pallant 2005).

A self-administered survey questionnaire (appendix 6.2) was developed following exiting measures on the main variables of the study (e.g. HR retention strategies, employee perceptions, job satisfaction, employee engagement, organizational commitment, turnover intention) that were adapted and tested (Creswell 2013; Creswell 2009). Section 6.6 explains the measures. All measures of key study variables were ranked on a 6 Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 6 (e.g., strongly disagree, disagree, somewhat disagree, somewhat agree, agree, and strongly agree). Categorical data were dummy coded using one category as a reference category (for example, gender; male = 0, female = 1).

Survey questionnaires and question items were pre-coded for logical management of data and ease of inputting to SPSS for analyses. Different steps were undertaken to ensure data quality and in the analysis of quantitative data.

Firstly, descriptive statistics such as frequencies, means, and percentages (central tendency) were applied to summarise a group of scores into a single score (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998); while variance and standard deviations (measures of variability) were employed to explain how each score varies from the mean (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998), both as means of describing the distribution of the data. *Secondly*,

data were checked for normality using normality graphs such as histograms, Normal Q-Q plots and Box Plots, as well as normality tests such as Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S), and Shapiro-Wilk tests (Field 2013). Following guidance by Pallant (2005) noting that Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk tests always tend to be significant with large samples, this study mainly relied on the normality plots whose inspection revealed generally normal distribution of data for this study (Samples are included as appendix 6.4). Additionally, the same types of graphs were used to check for outliers as such extreme scores are said to distort the statistics such as correlations (Pallant 2005; Field 2013). Scores for flagged outlier cases were inspected to ensure they were genuine scores. Further anlysis of outliers included checking minimum and maximum scores for each scale, and all cases were established to be within the expected ranges. An inspection of the descriptive statistics by checking the original mean values and the 5% trimmed mean showed that the two means for all our study variables were not very different hence ruling out the influence of outliers (Pallant 2005).

Thirdly, common method bias has been considerably explained as response tendencies that respondnets apply across measures because of the common structure, wording or proximity of the items (Podsakoff et al. 2012). This is a problem that either inflates or deflates the results and hence procedural (controlling sources of bias) and statistical remedies have been recommended. Procedurally, this study adopted measurement scales for predictors and criterion varibles from different sources, separated and distanced varibales, and also reverse coded some items in addition to providing clear instructions per question (MacKenzie and Podsakoff 2012; Podsakoff et al. 2012). While appreciating the availability of the different statistical approaches to common method bias and their limitations, this study used Herman's single-factor test whereby exploratory factor analysis revealed more than one unrotated solution and without any single factor accounting for the majority of the covariance among the measures (Podsakoff et al. 2003). The selection of this method was justified by the nature of the hypotheses of this study.

Fourthly, the reliability of the measurement scales was examined using Cronbach's reliability alpha, and the question items per scale were examined for their relevance. Also see section 6.8 and chapter 7. *Fifthly*, exploratory factor Analyses was run on the measures to determine the usefulness of the questions used or constructs of variables (a set of measures), and also to determine if the predicted structure of constructs existed in the data (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998). Chapter seven provides details of testing for assumptions prior factor extraction and rotation. Again, reliability tests were conducted on the items of the resultant factors and the statistics of Cronbach alpha helped in determining the internal consistency of the scales (Creswell 2009).

Sixthly, Pearson product moment correlation was run to establish the relationships/associations between variables (Creswell 2009; Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998), while *seventhly*, hierarchical regression was performed to test the overall fit of the model and ascertain the prediction of the outcome variable (turnover intention) by the different predictor variables. At this stage, the assumptions for correlation such as normality, linearity and homoscedasticity were checked using histograms and scatter plots. Additionally, the strength of the correlations was examined to avoid mutlicollinearity by checking for any values of r = .70 and above although Pallant (2005) gives r = .90 and above as a point of multicollinearity.

With regard to regression analysis, normality of independent errors was checked using standardized residual plots (see appendix A8.4-6). Collinearity diagnostics were examined and non of the variable's Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) was above 3.5, being well within the limit of 10. Tolerance statistics (1/VIF) for the variables were greater than .20 as the recomendd minimum (Field 2013). Additionally, any influence cases were assertained by checking the Cook's distance greater than 1, and the Mahalanobis distance greater than the criterian Chi-Square critical value considering the number of variables as the degree of freedom (16). Further analysis involved checking for any cases with the standardized residuals greater than + or -3, or a standardized DFFIT greater than absolute one as this shows if any case has a large influence on the regression parameters (Field 2013). Durbin-Watson statistic testing the assumption of independent errors was 1.93 (see table 8.6) for this study, which is so close to 2 as recommended (Pallant 2005; Field 2013).

6.6 Survey measures

The measures for the different variables in this study were mainly adapted from other studies while considering their relevancy and limitations.

Human resource retention strategies

The scale focused on assessing employees' understanding of the existence of different Human Resources (HR) retention strategies being practiced by organizations. Most of the questions were adapted from Jensen et al (2013) and Kehoe and Wright (2013). Sample items included 'the company hires her employees on merit' and 'I feel my job is secure for the foreseeable future.' Jensen reported the reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .81.

Perceived organizational support

The study adopted the scales of perceived organizational support (SPOS) used by Eisenberger et al (1986; 2002), whereby three (3) items (1, 4, and 9) with high loadings of .71, .74, and .83 were used to measure POS. Items included 'the organization strongly considers my personal goals', 'the organization really cares about my well-being' and 'the organization values my contribution to its performance.' Internal reliabilities (coefficient alphas) were .74 and .75 at the two time intervals.

Perceived supervisor support

PSS scale followed the SPOS as described above (under POS), and items 10, 27, and 35 with high loadings of .80, .76, and .72 were adopted while replacing the word organization with the term supervisor as in Eisenberger et al (1986; 2002). Sample items included 'my supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments at work' and 'my supervisor tries to make my job as interesting as possible.'

Job Demands

The study measures two types of job demand: quantitative (i.e., workload) and qualitative (i.e., emotional) demands. Firstly, Workload is measured using the psychological demand scale which includes five items e.g. 'my job requires working very hard' (Karasek et al. 1998; Karasek et al. 2007; Kawakami et al. 1995; Kawakami and Fujigaki 1996).

Secondly, emotional demands are assessed by a five-item scale from Maslach and Jackson (1981), also used by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004). These were five items with the highest loadings out of the 9 e.g., 'I feel emotionally drained from my work'.

Job Resources

Job resources were examined using three scales: decision latitude (including skill discretion and decision authority), and co-worker support (Karasek et al. 2007; Kawakami and Fujigaki 1996). Decision latitude was measured by 9-items; 6 for skill discretion e.g. my job provides me with opportunities to learn new things; and 3 items for decision authority, e.g. My job allows me to take a lot of decisions on my own' (Taris et al. 2001). Co-worker support was measured by four-items, e.g. 'my co-workers are helpful to me' (Kawakami and Fujigaki 1996; Li et al. 2004).

The psychological contract

The psychological contract was measured using the approach adopted from Koyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2000) that separately measures employee perceived employer obligations and the degree to which such obligations are fulfilled. Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2000) explain how this approach 'measures both perceived breach and perceived fulfilment against different items of the psychological contract.

Respondents were required to indicate the extent to which they believe that their employer is obligated to provide a range of items (expectations, e.g., long term job security, good career prospects, up to date training and development, pay increases to maintain standards of living).

Respondents were further asked to indicate the extent to which in reality they had been provided with the listed employer obligations.

Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured using the 3- items as applied by Chay and Bruvold (2003) e.g., 'generally speaking, I am satisfied with my job.' The current study aimed at examining overall employee job satisfaction as compared to job satisfaction arising from specific HR practices (Haar and Spell 2004). In their comparative study, Chay and Bruvold (2003) obtained coefficient alphas of .88 and .91 for Singapore and US samples respectively.

Employee engagement

Employee engagement in this study was measured by the short version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale-9 (UWES-9). This scale is lauded as having strong reliability, and capturing the three key components of engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption), which have widely been used in the definition of employee engagement (Bakker and Demerouti 2008; Schaufeli et al. 2008; Schaufeli et al. 2009). The UWES-9 is also perceived in the current study to be relatively more applicable in a developing country where aspects like provision of information on workplace finances, and staff surveys as reflected under Worker Employee Relations Survey (WERS) may be limited. The UWES-9 examines aspects of general workplace everyday life and thus likely to be easily comprehensible by employees.

Organizational commitment

Organizational commitment was measured by the three scales of affective, continuance and normative commitment, each comprising of 6 items (Meyer et al. 1993; Powell and Meyer 2004). The 18-item scale is relevant in examining and comparing the three dimensions of organizational commitment in different contexts (Ko et al. 1997; Lee et al. 2001; Meyer et al. 2002). The 6-items each for affective and normative commitment are taken from Meyer (1993) and have been widely used and indicated as producing better results (e.g., Meyer et al. 2002). Continuance commitment is measured using the 6-items of high-sacrifice following advice of numerous studies that examined the dimensionality of this component and recommended dropping low alternative scale (Lee et al. 2001; Meyer and Herscovitch 2001; Meyer et al. 2002; Powell and Meyer 2004). Low alternative scale in this study is included as an antecedent/ control variable.

Turnover intention

This was measured using a four–item scale by Jensen et al (2013) e.g., 'I often think of leaving this job.' The scale Cronbach's alpha was .89. Also see Meyer et al (1993) and Brunetto et al (2012b).

6.7 Ethical considerations

This study followed the relevant ethical policies and guidelines for research. Clearance by the Ethical Committee of the Stirling Management School was obtained before the data collection process, within the general framework of research ethics. The study did not target vulnerable groups as its focus, nor did it address a sensitive topic, for example, the participant's sexual, illegal or political behaviour or previous experiences that could affect their work. Furthermore, this study did not intend to induce psychological stress, anxiety or extra pain than what was expected in such a study, and there were no any intrusive interventions in the day today lives of the participants. The researcher ensured safety of his life and that of the Research Assistants by conducting research in a safe environment, and he did not come across any procedures required to be completed by any secondary data provider.

The researcher obtained further ethical clearance from the Uganda National Council of Science and Technology, a government department mandated to provide oversight role over research in the country. In addition, the candidate/researcher obtained an introductory letter from Makerere University accompanied with his personal letter requesting for authority to conduct research in target organizations. Institutional/organizational clearances and approvals were obtained from respective organizations. It is further clarified that all information was obtained by consent of the organizations and the respondents.

Confidentiality of the participants and the information they provided was assured as no personal identifier information is revealed (in instances where it was needed, it is only for the researcher's possible research follow up for example, additional information, clarification or follow up studies after some time, and these were clearly explained).

6.8 Pilot testing

The pilot study was undertaken between January and March 2016 to refine the developed model, develop, and assess the suitability and reliability of the measures and the items of the survey. As reported under section 6.3, firstly employing exploratory sequential mixed methods involved conducting interviews to explore the thematic issues of the study. Quite interesting findings were revealed, that were analysd and

interpreted at this stage, and also after the survey to provide indepth understanding of the quantitative data.

While they key thematic issues (components of the study such as hiring practices, pay, training, promotion, job security, and benefits among others) were emphasised and confirmed by the interviews, it was noted that their application varies between the developed and the developing economies. For example, Stanely noted tribal issues in the hiring process, which may erode meritocracy, as opposed to the developed world. He observed: "We have what we call tribalism. … some people say if your mom is in government, everyone will follow, which is not the case in developed countries." This points problems in the hiring practices, and also differences between different contexts, which we further examined for in the subsequent parts.Additionally, the interviews revealed considerable differences in the strategies and practices across the private, the public and the NGO sectors. This was observed in aspects of the strategies, working tools, pay, and approach to managerial issues. Christol for example explained, "…in [the] private sector, I realized that the working tools are availed, the way they lay out their strategies, they are more organized and definitely their salary is much better." The issue of working tools noted as being very important in the minds of the employees, and hence affecting their attitudes and behaviours. Christol added that "right now as we speak, we can have printers or photocopying machines in the offices, but there is no toner or papers, you know things like that. How do you work in such environment?" Mubesi on his part compared that "in developed economies, … the environment is enabling enough. Once you are given a job, you are given the tools as opposed to what happens here." Such expressions informed the study of the important of working tools in influencing employee attitudes and behaviours, and hence such and related aspects of context were considered.

In relation to the above, some contextual, organizational and individual factors were noted to vary between the developd and developing economies. Ntambi for example noted cultural differences in influencing people's ways of life. He asserted:

> *"The socio-cultural aspects also differ because for us Africans, most people are still deeply rooted in the African cultural beliefs which the developed world is tending to run away from. ... in Africa, people believe in so many things because for whatever success that may come up, it may always be thought of in that African cultural context."*

In reference to the culture of time management, Patience observed considerable differences among people in the developed and those of the developing worlds. She narrated her first experience in the UK where she found everyone running upon getting out of the train. She explained how she also

simply started running without understanding what was going on, only to see her sister she was travelling with simply walking, and she asked:

> *"why didn't you run, every one was running? She was like they are running to work! I was like people run to work here! Now for me that was strange. I mean, we all know am supposed to be here [at work] at 8:30am. … even if some body is arriving at 10:30, they won't be running. Even they can stop in the compound and talk for 30 minutes."*

The above scenarios explain the differences in cultural orientation and ways of life in different contexts that influence people's attitudes and behaviours in the workplace. Moreover, Kamoche (2002) notes the need to pay meaningful attention to cultural diversity in African countries when designing HR strategies and practices. He recognises the heterogeneity enshrined in the over 2,000 African tribes that can actually be a potential for conflicts.

Considering the issue of the family and the level of dependence in the developing country contet, Wycliffe explained that "we tend to spend more [resources] here in the developing world than in the developed world, not necessarily on yourself but the extended family, [and] the way we socially meet." Such and more other exploratory and explanatory aspects were examined and reported on in detail in chapters 7-9, with the first part of the interviews (partly reported here) in addition to informing the model and the survey tool development, combined with additional interviews that followed after this stage to provide indepth explanation (chapter 9) to the quantative data (in chapters 7 and 8).

Based on the interviews mentioned above, the survey tool was developed and pilot-tested before eventual roll out for the main data collection. A total of 29 questionnaires were collected across the public, the private and NGO sectors, within the health and education services. Particular attention was paid to the clarity, and the ability of the respondents to understand and interpret the questions with the intended meaning. The reliability of the scale items was examined using Cronbach's alpha, and it was noted that most of the measurement scales were reliable having met the threshold scores of .70.

A few scales for example, the psychological job demands, skill discretion, employee engagement – vigour, and employee engagement – absorption recorded scores (e.g., .65) slightly lower than .70. Problematic items were identified using the value for "Cronbach's alpha if item deleted." The original versions of some of the translated scales such as employee engagement were obtained and consultations were made with a native (Dutch) speaking person, as well as its author, for questions deemed to be unclear or with mixed meanings. A translation opinion on the concerned items from the original Dutch version of Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) pointed to some degree of translation challenge and

generated some alternatives including “I feel fit and strong when I am working”, for the item: “At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.” Secondly, the item: “I am immersed in my work” was suggested to have another translation as “My work fully occupies me.” The two suggested alternatives for the respective two items were added to the UWES-9 to help in checking for clarity in the main items and thus their reliabilities.

6.9 Conclusion

This chapter has premised the study within the research philosophies by examining positivism, interpretivism, and pragmatism. Recognising that both positivism and interpretivism have strengths despite their individual limitations, pragmatic paradigm that integrates aspects of the two mentioned paradigms while demystifying the incompatibility thesis is considered. Pragmatism blends both qualitative and quantitative research into mixed method design thereby gaining greater consideration for this study than a single design would offer. The current study aims at exploring issues of employee retention, employee perception, job satisfaction, employee engagement and employee turnover intentions and retention within a developing context, while also focusing on testing and applying a proposed relevant model. Therefore, adopting both qualitative and quantitative methods as a sequential strategy under the mixed methods design meets the research objectives. The following chapter addresses factor analysis.

7 FINDINGS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter provides results of the exploratory factor analysis of the different components of the developed model of employee retention. The examined model components include *employee retention strategies, perceptions of strategies, job demands, job resources, the psychological contract, job satisfaction, employee engagement, organizational commitment and turnover intentions*. The aim of the chapter is to determine the structure of the model components in comparison to other studies, and specifically in Uganda's context. Variable items for each of the components were subjected to Principal Component Analysis (PCA) following preliminary analyses to first confirm that preconditions for this type of analysis are met, for example, the strength of the correlations, the adequacy of the sample, and the relevancy of the individual items (Fabrigar et al. 1999; Pallant 2005). Different approaches for determining the number of components for extraction (e.g. Kaiser's criterion, the Scree plot and, Parallel analysis) as well as factor rotation methods (e.g. varimax where factors are not strongly correlated, and direct oblimin where factors are correlated) were performed and their results compared (Field 2013; Jolliffe 2002; Pallant 2005). The chapter presents the results of an approach whose outcome is considered the most relevant for a particular component. Section 7.2 considers the components of employee retention model, including HR retention strategies, and employee perceptions among others. Section 7.3 gives the conclusion to this chapter, emphasizing findings of some new factors from the known ones in literature, for example, emotional and occupational engagement different from vigour, dedication and absorption.

7.2 Components of the model of employee retention

7.2.1 Employee Retention Strategies

Employee retention strategies were revealed as *job-entry* and *on-the job HR* retention strategies. The 22 items measuring *employee retention strategies* were subjected to Principle Component Analysis (PCA) and direct oblimin rotation. Initial inspection for the basic requirements for factor analysis was undertaken. The correlation matrix revealed a non-positive definite value as the determinant and therefore, the individual items with non-positive definite values in the correlation matrix were identified and examined for exclusion as this could point to problems of multicollinearity.

16 items were finally retained after initial screening and fulfilment of the requirements for factor analysis. The correlation matrix confirms the presence of many coefficients greater than .30 and less than .80 hence

the items are strongly correlated and without concerns of multicollinearity (Field 2013). The value of the determinant of the correlation matrix is .001 well above .00001 as recommended (Field 2013). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was .89 and the KMO values for individual items as revealed by the diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix range between .86 and .94, well above the acceptable limit of .50 (Field 2013), while Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (p = .00).

Table 7.1 summary results of exploratory factor analysis for employee retention strategies

	Component	
	1	2
I am allowed to make important work related decisions	.854	
I am given meaningful feedback regarding my performance at least once a year	.842	
I am allowed to initiate and implement new work ideas	.805	
Management involves me in making decisions that affect my work	.713	
I regularly receive formal communication regarding company goals and objectives	.700	
The appraisal system provides me and the organization with an accurate assessment of my strengths and weaknesses	.677	
Career management is given a high priority in this organization	.622	
I have the opportunities if I wanted to be promoted	.559	
I feel my job is secure for the foreseeable future	.540	
Team working is strongly encouraged in my organization	.517	
Total pay for this job is competitive for the type of work in my field/ profession	.486	
I receive the training I need to do my job	.467	
The company only hires the very best available candidate		.839
The company hires her employees on merit		.796
Rigorous selection process used		.769
Relevant socialization/induction to its employees		.463
Eigenvalues	**6.27**	**1.59**
Variance	**39.2%**	**10.0%**
Cronbach's Alpha (α)	**.86**	**.75**

```
VARIABLES EP1 EP2 EP3 EP4 EP6 EP8 EP9 EP11 EP13 EP14 EP15 EP16 EP17 EP18 EP19
EP20
```

Kaiser's criterion showed three factors with eigenvalues above 1 while the scree plot produced somewhat unclear results with inflexion points (elbow) seemingly at either point 3 or 4 (suggesting either 2 or 3 factors) respectively. Parallel analysis using Monte Carlo's PCA (Jolliffe 2002; Pallant 2005), however, revealed 2 factors with actual eigenvalues exceeding the corresponding criterion values of the sample size

from a randomly generated data (16 items X 387 respondents). A two-component solution for the 16 items as based on Parallel Analysis produced better results in comparison to Kaiser's criterion (3 factors), which resulted in double loading of some items. Table 7.1 shows the two factor loadings of different items after rotation with direct oblimin. The results suggest that component one represents *"on-the-job HR retention strategies"*, while factor two represents *"job-entry HR retention strategies."* This is unique to other studies that have examined retention strategies as independent item variables (Back et al. 2011).

The two components contribute 39.2% and 10.0% each, with both accounting for a combined variance of 49%. The two factors were strongly correlated, r = .45, confirming that oblique rotation was the most appropriate rotation method (Costello and Osborne 2005; Field 2013). The measurement scales for both components were strongly reliable as measured by the Cronbach's alpha (Job-entry-HR retention strategies, α = .75, and on-the-job HR retention strategies, α = .86).

7.2.2 Employee Perception of strategies

Principle Component Analysis with varimax rotation was performed on the six items measuring employee perception of strategies. This followed fulfilment of the basic assumptions of factor analysis. Inter-correlations of scale-items were strong, ranging from .23 to .70, while the determinant for the correlation matrix was .061, greater than .00001 as required (Field 2013). KMO measure of sampling adequacy was greater than the benchmark of .50 (KMO = .806) and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (p = .00).

Two factors were revealed by Kaiser's criterion as having eigenvalues greater than 1 with a combined variance of 76.3%. This was also confirmed by both the scree plot (showing a point of inflexion at 3, suggesting 2 factors), and parallel analysis (having actual eigenvalues greater than the criterion eigenvalues generated by random data of the same size (6 items X 387 respondents). Two factors were accordingly extracted by Kaiser's criterion and rotated by varimax that gave clearer results than oblique rotation (direct oblimin) despite the strong correlation for the two factors (r = -.43).

Of the six items, 3 items highly loaded on the first factor, while the remaining three highly loaded on the second after rotation as shown by table 7.2. Item-factor loadings above .40 are reported in bold. The results reveal that factor one deals with *organizational support*, while factor two is about *supervisor support*. This is consistent with other studies (Eisenberger et al. 1986; Eisenberger et al. 2002), and both factors significantly correlate with turnover intentions as confirmed under section 8.4.

Table 7.2 Summary results of exploratory factor analysis of employee perception of retention strategies

	Component	
	1	2
The organization strongly considers my personal goals	**.891**	
The organization really cares about my well-being	**.843**	
The organization values my contribution to its performance	**.777**	.305
My supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments at work.		**.870**
My supervisor is willing to extend a hand in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability.		**.842**
My supervisor tries to make my job as interesting as possible.	.348	**.820**
Eigenvalues	**3.37**	**1.21**
Variance	**56.12**	**20.17**
Cronbach's alpha (α)	**.83**	**.84**

```
VARIABLES POS1 POS2 POS3 SS1 SS2 SS3
```

The reliabilities for each of the two scales were confirmed by the high Cronbach's alpha (organizational support, α = .83 and, supervisor support, α = .84). The finding on employee perception of strategies in this study is consistent with other studies (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005; Eisenberger et al. 2002; Hobfoll and Schumm 2002), confirming it is a two-dimensional construct comprising of perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived supervisor support (PSS).

7.2.3 Job Demands

The 10 items measuring job demands comprising 5 items each for psychological and emotional demands were initially screened for suitability for factor analysis. Item PD3 'my job has no excessive work' was removed as suggested by initial reliability tests indicating its deletion improves the overall reliability of the scale. Attempts to include the same item (PD3) in preliminary factor analysis resulted in 3 factors with relatively high double-loading items, while extracting and rotating items on two (2) factors with this item included, left it with loadings below .30.

After dropping item PD3, the remaining 9 items of psychological and emotional job demands were subjected to PCA using SPSS version 22. The correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .30 and above, and the determinant of the correlation matrix = .022 well above the threshold of .00001. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) =.83, well above the

minimum of .50, while Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant (p = .00); all confirming suitability of the scale for factor analysis.

Principle component analysis revealed the presence of two (2) factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 45.4% and 17.9% of the variance respectively (total variance = 63%). An inspection of the scree plot revealed an inflexion in the curve at 3, suggesting retaining two factors, in line with Kaiser's criterion. Parallel analysis further confirmed such a decision as only two factors had eigenvalues exceeding the corresponding criterion values generated by a randomly generated data of the same size based on 9 items and 387 respondents for 100 replications.

Varimax and direct oblimin rotations were both performed and their results compared to aid in the interpretation of the extracted two factors. Results of both rotation methods are quite similar, as both components show strong loadings with particular items loading on only one of the two factors. Results of Varimax rotation are reported here basing on the low correlation coefficients (r = .14) as per the component correlation matrix under oblique rotation (direct oblimin).

Table 7.3 Summary results of exploratory factor analysis of job demands

	Component	
	1	2
I feel emotionally drained from my work.	.839	
I feel burned out from my work.	.809	
I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	.793	
I feel used up at the end of the workday.	.773	
I feel frustrated by my job.	.733	
I seem to often receive conflicting demands/orders in my job.	.689	
I seem never to have enough time to get my work done.	.623	
My job requires working very fast		.894
My job requires working very hard		.891
Eigenvalues	**4.09**	**1.61**
Variance	**45.4**	**17.9**
Reliability alpha (α)	**.87**	**.77**

VARIABLES PD1 PD2 PD4 PD5 ED1 ED2 ED3 ED4 ED5

The results above revealed two components for the scale of job demands, however, the way the items loaded on the two factors is inconsistent with existing studies such as Karasek et al (2007) and Kawakami and Fujigaki (Kawakami and Fujigaki 1996). While such studies posit job demands as psychological and

emotional, it is observed here that two items of the scale of psychological demands (PD4: 'I seem to never have enough time to get my work done', and PD5: 'I seem to often receive conflicting demands/ orders in my job') loaded on factor one alongside items for the scale of emotional demands. The interpretation of the two components as revealed by this study suggests that component one deals with the *state of the person in the job (emotional)* while factor two concerns the *nature of the work (workload/occupational)*. This is in line with some studies that categorize job demands as *qualitative*, e.g. *emotional*, and *quantitative*, e.g. *workload* (e.g., Maslach and Jackson 1981; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004; Vegchel et al. 2004). While the composition of *occupational/workload job demands* in this study may seem to differ from that of some studies by reflecting items that are also regarded as psychological demands (Karasek et al. 1998; Karasek et al. 2007; Kawakami and Fujigaki 1996), it is evident that some of its elements may have the same meaning with some items under *emotional job demands* (e.g., *"work fast"* and *"work hard"* vis-à-vis *"rapid physical activity"* and *"too much effort"* respectively).

7.2.4 Job Resources

The 16 items measuring job resources (skill discretion, 6; decision authority, 6 and; co-worker support, 4) were first checked for suitability for factor analysis. Inspecting the initial reliability test results established three items: *SD2 – 'My job has repetitive work'*, *DA2 – 'My job gives me little decision freedom in terms of deciding how I work'* and, *CWS1 – 'My co-workers are competent in their jobs'* as substantially affecting the reliabilities of the respective subscales, suggesting their deletion improved the Cronbach's alpha. The individual item KMO for DA2 was also found to be below the acceptable minimum of .50 hence the three items were excluded from the analysis.

Principle components analysis (PCA) and oblimin rotation were conducted on the remaining 13 items of job resources (skill discretion, 5; decision authority, 5; and co-worker support, 3) using SPSS version 22. Preliminary analysis of the remaining items for suitability of factor analysis revealed many coefficients above .30, and the determinant of the correlation matrix as .004, well above the minimum of .00001. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy is .85 with KMO values for individual items ranging from .79 to .93 and, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity being significant (p =.00).

Kaiser's criterion revealed three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1, with the respective factors accounting for 37%, 15% and 12%, giving a cumulative variance of 64%. The extraction and rotation of 3 factors was further confirmed by both the scree plot and parallel analysis as the bend in the curve was at a point after 3, while only 3 factors had eigenvalues greater than the criterion eigenvalues for a randomly generated data of the same size (13 items X 387 sample size for 100 replications).

Table 7.4 shows the factor loadings after oblimin rotation. The items that cluster on one factor reveal that factor 1 represents *skill discretion*; factor two, *decision authority*; and factor 3, *co-worker support*. The results of this analysis confirm findings of other studies (Karasek et al. 2007; Kawakami and Fujigaki 1996; Li et al. 2004; Taris et al. 2001) that show that *decision authority, skill discretion* and *co-worker support* are some of the variables/factors of job resources.

Table 7.4 Summary results of exploratory factor analysis of job resources

	Component		
	1 (SD)	2 (DA)	3 (CWS)
My job requires high level skill.	**.852**		
My job provides a variety of tasks.	**.818**		
My job requires creativity.	**.763**		
My job enables me to develop my own abilities.	**.707**		
My job provides me with opportunities to learn new things	**.531**		.302
My job allows me to make decisions that affect my own work.		**.884**	
My job allows me to make decisions that affect my clients.		**.877**	
My job allows me to make decisions that influence my co-workers.		**.757**	
I have a lot of say in my job.		**.658**	
My job allows me to make my own decisions with regard to what I do in my job.		**.578**	
My co-workers are helpful to me.			**.910**
My co-workers are friendly to me.			**.902**
My co-workers are generally interested in me as their workmate.			**.837**
Eigenvalues	**4.86**	**1.95**	**1.50**
Variance (%)	**37%**	**15%**	**12%**
α	**.80**	**.83**	**.87**

VARIABLES SD1 SD3 SD4 SD5 SD6 DA1 DA3 DA4 DA5 DA6 CWS2 CWS3 CWS4

7.2.5 Psychological contract (Employee expectations)

Initial analysis based on all the 15 items resulted in exclusion of 5 items (EO3, EO5, EO10, EO12, EO14) that either double load or affect the outcome. The remaining 10 items were subjected to Principle Component Analysis (PCA) and direct oblimin rotation. Suitability of the items for factor analysis was confirmed by the strong correlations and lack of multicollinearity as many coefficients are greater than .30 and less than .90, while the determinant is .001 being greater than .00001. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

measure of sampling adequacy (KMO = .93), KMO values for individual items ranged from .85 to .96, and Bartlett's measure of Sphericity was significant (p = .00).

One component was revealed by Kaiser's criterion as having an eigenvalue greater than 1. Results of the scree plot were unclear as it could be interpreted as indicating a point of inflexion at either 2 or 3 and thus suggesting either 1 or 2 factors respectively. However, results of parallel analysis confirm results by Kaiser's criterion as only one factor had an eigenvalue greater than the eigenvalue produced by a randomly generated data of the same size (10 items X 387 sample size). Only one component accounting for a variance of 63% is therefore revealed as shown by the component matrix in table 7.5 below.

Table 7.5 Summary of exploratory factor analysis results for Psychological Contract

	Component
	1
Adequate allowances for work-related benefits.	.864
Fringe benefits that are comparable to employees doing similar work in other organizations.	.845
Conducive work environment.	.844
Pay increases to match standards of living.	.840
Fair pay for the responsibilities I have in my job.	.837
Required working tools.	.804
Fair performance management process.	.783
Management/ supervisor support.	.769
Good career prospects.	.699
Long term job security.	.609
Eigenvalues	**6.29**
Variance	**63%**
α	**.93**

VARIABLES EO1 EO2 EO4 EO6 EO7 EO8 EO9 EO11 EO13 EO15

The results reveal that *employee expectations* are a one component factor. This is consistent with other studies that have examined the psychological contract as a single construct with different items describing employee expectations from their employers (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler 2000), but this study goes ahead to develop a factor that considers the component as a global variable showing its composite effect.

7.2.6 Psychological contract fulfilment

The 15 items of psychological contract fulfilment were initially examined for their suitability for factor analysis and items OF1, OF2, OF5 and OF14 were excluded after thorough analysis. OF1 and OF5 were flagged as affecting the reliability of the scale while the latter two double loaded.

Using Principle Component Analysis and Direct oblimin rotation, the results reveal a substantial number of correlation coefficients above .30 and less than .80, while the value of the determinant was .001, well above the required minimum of .00001. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) = .93 while the KMOs for individual items ranged between .89 and .96 as shown by the anti-image correlation matrix.

Kaiser's criterion, the scree plot and parallel analysis, all revealed existence of 1 component. The extracted one component solution explains 60% of the variance (table 7.6).

Table 7.6 Summary results of exploratory factor analysis of Psychological Contract Fulfilment

	Component
	1
Fringe benefits that are comparable to employees doing similar work in other organizations.	.805
Fair pay for responsibilities I have in my job.	.804
Adequate allowances for work-related expenses.	.794
Promotional opportunities.	.781
Fair performance management process.	.773
Conducive work environment.	.772
Up to date training and development opportunities.	.765
Pay increases to match standards of living.	.763
Management/ Supervisor support.	.755
Required working tools.	.749
Involvement in decision making.	.747
Eigenvalues	**6.59**
Variance	**60%**
α	**.94**

VARIABLES OF3 OF4 OF6 OF7 OF8 OF9 OF10 OF11 OF12 OF13 OF15

Similar to employee expectations in 7.2.4 above, *organizational fulfilment of employee expectations* is a one factor component comprising of different items (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler 2000). However, we

conjecture that developing a composite factor provides a systematic and logical approach to its study in a complex model with many other variables.

7.2.7 Job satisfaction

Principle Component Analysis was conducted on the 3 items of job satisfaction, with oblique rotation (direct oblimin) registering similar results to orthogonal rotation (varimax). The 3 scale items were strongly correlated (r > .50), and the determinant of the correlation matrix was .02. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) = .73, and KMO values for all individual items were greater than .68, well above .50 (Field 2013). Kaiser's criterion revealed one component with eigenvalues greater than 1, as supported by the scree plot that had an elbow in the curve flattening just after one, as well as parallel analysis that revealed only 1 component with an eigenvalue greater than the eigenvalues generated from randomly generated data of the same size (3 variables X 387 respondents using 100 replication). Table 7.7 shows the one component matrix solution accounting for a variance of 80%. This finding confirms those of other studies that have used the same items to measure job satisfaction as a one factor component (Chay and Bruvold 2003).

Table 7.7 Summary of the one component matrix solution of exploratory factor analysis of job satisfaction

	Component
	1
I would recommend a job like mine to a good friend.	.920
Knowing what I know now, if I had to decide all over again whether to take the job I have now, I would definitely take it.	.887
Generally speaking, I am satisfied with my job.	.879
Eigenvalues	**2.41**
Variance	**80%**
α	**.88**

```
VARIABLES JS1 JS2 JS3
```

7.2.8 Employee Engagement

The 11 items of employee engagement were subjected to Principle Component Analysis and direct oblimin rotation. These followed preliminary analyses that revealed that all the requirements for factor analysis were fulfilled. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many correlation coefficients (r) above .30. Sampling adequacy as checked by Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure was confirmed (KMO = .89), and the KMO values for individual items as revealed by the anti-image matrix ranged

between .78 and .94, well above the recommended minimum value of .50. Bartlett's Measure of Sphericity was significant (p = .00).

Kaiser's criterion revealed two factors with eigenvalues above 1 while the scree plot had an inflexion point at 3, also suggesting existence of two factors for extraction. The two methods were validated by parallel analysis as two components have actual eigenvalues greater than the criterion eigenvalues from randomly generated data of the same size (9 variables X 387 respondents). Two components are therefore extracted using Principle Component Analysis, and they account for a total variance of 67.6% (Factor one = 54.3% and Factor 2 = 13.3%). Table 7.8 shows the pattern matrix with factor loadings after oblimin rotation.

Table 7.8 Summary of exploratory factor analysis results for Employee Engagement

	Component	
	1	2
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	**.761**	
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	**.865**	
I feel fit and strong when I am working.	**.899**	
I am enthusiastic about my job.	**.885**	
My job inspires me.	**.801**	
I am proud of the work that I do.	**.715**	
I am immersed in my work.	.308	**.638**
I get carried away when I am working.		**.909**
My work fully occupies me.		**.625**
Eigenvalues	**4.88**	**1.20**
Variance	**54%**	**13%**
α	**.91**	**.67**

VARIABLES EV2 EV3 EV4 EED1 EED2 EED3 EEA2 EEA3 EEA4

The items that cluster on factor one can be categorized as *emotional engagement* while those on factor two can be referred to as *occupational engagement*. This finding means that employee engaged is conceived relatively differently in Uganda and this is supported by Sonentag et al (2003) who also establish two factors, different from studies that reveal three factors of vigour, dedication and absorption (Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Bakker and Demerouti 2008; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004).

7.2.9 Organizational Commitment

The 18 items of organizational commitment (6 each for affective, normative and continuance commitments) were subjected to Principle Component Analysis (PCA) and Direct Oblimin. Initial tests revealed that the preconditions for factor analysis were not fulfilled as the value of the Determinant was .0000 below the minimum requirement of .00001, suggesting a likely presence of multicollinearity. The extracted factors were also not clear, and some items did double load.

After further re-examination, items AC2, NC1, CC1 and CC2 were dropped, and the value of the Determinant for the correlation matrix was .001 well above the minimum of .00001. Sampling adequacy by Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure (KMO) was .86, and KMO values for individual items ranged between .78 and .95 well above the threshold of .50. Bartlett's measure of Sphericity was significant (p =.00).

Both Kaiser's criterion and the scree plot revealed existence of 3 components while parallel analysis revealed two with actual eigenvalues greater than the criterion values from randomly generated data of the same size (14 items x 387 respondents). Three factors were extracted following clarity of the results in comparison to 2 factors. The extracted three factors account for a total variance of 66% (factor 1 = 41%, Factor 2 = 17% and factor 3= 8%).

Table 7.9 shows the pattern matrix with factor loadings after oblimin rotation. The items that cluster on factor one can be categorized as *moral commitment*, factor two as *emotional commitment*, and factor three as *continuance commitment*.

There was observed cross loading between *affective* and *normative commitment* which points to existing concerns of the independence between the two scales (Jaros 1997; Solinger et al. 2008). Continuance commitment, however, seems to be independent of both *affective* and *normative commitment*, as also established by other studies (Allen and Meyer 1996; Meyer et al. 1993). Our description of the factors as *moral* and *emotional commitment* in addition to *continuance commitment* is supported by the established meaning especially of *affective* and *emotional commitment* as a sense of *moral obligation* and *feeling of emotional attachment* (Meyer et al. 1993; Solinger et al. 2008), both of which are mirrored in the composition of the first two factors (moral and emotional) as per our finding in table 7.9.

Table 7.9 Summary results of exploratory factor analysis of organizational commitment

	Component		
	1	2	3
Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.	**.820**		
I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to my colleagues.	**.794**		
I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	**.792**		
This organization deserves my loyalty.	**.775**		
I owe a great deal to my organization.	**.713**		
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	**.653**		
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	**.503**		
I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (RC)		**.907**	
I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (RC)		**.903**	
I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (RC)		**.861**	
If I decided to leave this organization, too much of my life would be disrupted.			**.921**
I continue to work for this organization because I don't believe another organization could offer the benefits I have here.			**.847**
I would not leave this organization because of what I would stand to lose.			**.785**
For me personally, the costs (financial, social, and psychological) of leaving this organization would be far greater than the benefits.	.347		**.439**
Eigenvalues	**5.74**	**2.41**	**1.10**
Variance	**41%**	**17%**	**8%**
α	**.88**	**.89**	**.83**

VARIABLES AC1 AC3 AC4 AC5 AC6 NC2 NC3 NC4 NC5 NC6 CC3 CC4 CC5 CC6

7.2.10 Turnover Intention

The 5 items of *turnover intentions* were subjected to Principle Component Analysis (PCA). Initial analysis for fulfilment of the requirements for factor analysis revealed item *TOI4 'It is likely that I will look for another job, but with the current employer during the next year'* had a communality value of .319 below .50 (Fabrigar et al. 1999; Field 2013; Jolliffe 2002). Deletion of the same item was also revealed as improving the reliability (Cronbach's alpha). This can be associated with the general organizational environment that affects the person's willingness to stay/leave the organization against simply changing a job (Iverson and Buttigieg 1999; Koslowsky et al. 2012), and external voluntary turnover ((Johnston et al. 1993). The item was accordingly excluded from the subsequent steps of factor analysis.

The remainder of the four (4) items had correlation coefficients ranging between .519 and .766, all above .30 and less than .90 while the determinant as displayed by the correlation matrix was .132, hence there were no major concerns of multicollinearity. Sampling adequacy as checked Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure was established to be above the recommended minimum of .50 (KMO = .794) while Bartlett's test of Sphericity was significant (p = .00).

One factor accounting for 71.3% of the variance was extracted as reported by the component matrix in table 7.10.

Table 7.10 Summary of results of factor analysis of job satisfaction

	Component
	1
I am actively looking for another job	.898
It is likely that I will look for another job with a different employer during the next year	.875
I often think of leaving this job	.834
There isn't much to be gained by staying in this job	.765
Eigenvalues	**3.09**
Variance	**62%**
α	**.87**

VARIABLES TOI1 TOI2 TOI3 TOI5

The finding is similar to other studies that examine related items as composing job satisfaction as a one factor component (Brunetto et al. 2012b; Jensen et al. 2013; Meyer et al. 1993; Tett and Meyer 1993). The studied items are therefore good measures of job satisfaction and they are understood with the same meaning as such other studies.

7.3 Conclusion

The preceding findings clarify our understanding of the applied measures in context as opposed to simply adopting them as used in other studies conducted in different contexts. The chapter provides new knowledge about a number of factors that explain turnover intention/retention. For example, *job-entry and on-the-job* HR retention strategies the need to pay attention to retention right away from recruitment to exit of the organization by the employee. The study further suggests that aspects of job demands deal with the *state of the person in the job (emotional)* and the *nature of the work (workload)*, in line with some studies that categorize job demands as *emotional*, and *workload* (e.g., Maslach and Jackson 1981; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004; Vegchel et al. 2004). Employee engagement on its part reveals emotional and

occupational, while organizational commitment is comprised of moral, emotional and continuance commitment. The unique findings on the factors, different from the established factors in extant literature confirm variations in context and cultural boundedness of some models and their measures, hence confirming the need for context-specific studies (Frimousse et al. 2012; Ko et al. 1997). However, confirmation of some variables (e.g. employee perception of support, job resources, job satisfaction and turnover intention) clarifies that the study's findings are not far different, but related to other studies, although there are some variations which are contextual, organizational and individual in nature as explored later in chapters 8-10. The factors also provide a systematic and logical approach to studying composite variables rather than focusing on several individual items (Back et al. 2011; Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler 2000; Coyle-Shapiro and Parzefall 2008), which may be difficult to fit in a study considering several factors for a comprehensive and complex model. With the foregoing results, the study provides an understanding of the factors that explain turnover intention generally and in Uganda in particular. Chapter eight, that follows, builds on the findings of this chapter to assess the associations of such factors with turnover intention.

8 QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

8.1 Introduction

This chapter presents findings of the modelling of employee retention strategies, organizational commitment and turnover intentions in Uganda. It builds on the results of factor analyses in chapter seven that examined the different components of the model and ascertained the component factors (variables) existing in the data. The results are based on 387 useable questionnaires collected from a total of 10 organizations across the public, the private and the NGO sectors (see chapter 6). This section first, describes data quality (8.2), second, the findings are presented in three sections: i) descriptive statistics (section 8.3) showing the distribution of the responses across the different variables including individual and organizational factors; ii) Pearson's correlation (section 8.4) establishes the relationships between the variables of interest and; iii) hierarchical regression analysis (section 8.5) tests the overall model fit and examines the contribution of different variables at different steps of the model in predicting turnover intention (as a representation of the theoretical model, figure 10.1) as set out by the research hypotheses under 6.5. Finally, the conclusion to the chapter (8.6) emphasizes the important key findings. Assumptions for correlation and regression analyses: normality, linearity and independence of errors (Field 2013; Pallant 2005) were confirmed (chapter 7 and appendix 8A).

8.2 Data quality

Data quality was checked at three stages: firstly, in the field by checking the questionnaires to confirm they were complete and rightly answered; secondly, at data capture into the SPSS computer software to ensure the data were fit for inputing, and thirdly, at processing to ensure that the analysis is built on relevant and useable data. The preceeding steps were conducted with prior knowledge and experience from the pilot study where the research tools were pre-tested, any raised concerns such as unclear and seemingly repetitive questions addressed (6.8), and final copies assigned serial numbers for ease of tracking at all stages of data collection, entry and analysis. Checking the returned questionnaires for their relevancy and usefulness resulted in the exclusion of 4 incomplete questionnaires from the total 391.

Frequency tables were run on all variable items (categorical and continuous) to observe the scores and their maximum and minimum values in order to ensure they were within the expected ranges. Since nearly all the key variable questions were answered on a Likert-type scale, common method bias was controlled by adopting scales from different sources, separating and spacing variable items, and reverse coding some questions (Podsakoff et al. 2012; MacKenzie and Podsakoff 2012), which were reverse

scored before analysis. Additionally, Post-Hoc analysis was performed following Hermon's single-factor test. As recommended, when the variables of the study were loaded for exploratory factor analysis, more than one unrotated factors were obtained, and also no single factor accounted for the majority of the covariance among the measures (Podsakoff et al. 2003). Cronbach's reliability tests and principal component analysis were also performed to determine the existent variables (see sections 6.5.3 and 6.8, and chapter seven for details about these tests).

8.3 Response and descriptive statistics

8.3.1 Response rate and sample

Out of the 600 questionnaires that were distributed to the respondents in the selected organizations in education and/ or health services across the public, the private and the NGO sectors, 391 were returned (65.2%). However, 4 were incomplete leaving a total of 387 (64.5% of the 600) useable questionnaires. Table 8.1 below provides a summary of useable questionnaires against those distributed per organization.

Table 8.1 Questionnaires distributed per targeted organization

Organization	Type	out	returned	% response per Organization	% of overall response
Busia District Local Government	Public – District	60	43	71.7	11.1
Case Hospital	Private – Hospital	50	38	76.0	9.8
Kamuli District Local Government	Public – District	58	44	75.9	11.4
Kampala International University	Private – University	30	18	60.0	4.7
Makerere University	Public - University	111	77	69.4	19.9
Makerere Joint Aids Programme	NGO	35	27	77.1	7.0
Ministry of Education & Sports	Public – Ministry	77	39	50.6	10.1
Ministry of Health	Public – Ministry	80	42	52.5	10.9
Reproductive Health Uganda	NGO	30	17	56.7	4.4
Uganda Christian University	Private – University	69	42	60.9	10.9
Overall Distribution and Response		600	387	64.5	100

The overall response rate (64.5%) for the study is good and commendable in comparison to other studies (Boles et al. 2007; Hom and Xiao 2011). The response rate for individual targeted organizations was above 50%, ranging from 50.6% to 77.1% (the lowest being from government Ministries; see Table 8.1). The good response rate was facilitated by the clearances obtained at national level (Uganda National Council of Science and Technology), ministerial and organizational levels where contact officers were assigned to coordinate with the Researcher and his Research Assistant in the personal distribution, follow

up and collection of the questionnaires. Additionally, the research tool had been piloted with resultant areas of improvement (e.g. unclear and seemingly repetitive questions) addressed. The study therefore generated enthusiasm and participation across the targeted organizations with employees appreciating its importance and hence willing to share their experiences and perceptions about their jobs.

8.3.2 Descriptive statistics

Table 8.2 and table 8.3 provide the respondents' organizational and individual descriptive statistics respectively.

Table 8.2 Descriptive statistics of respondents' organizational factors

Organizational Sector		
	Frequency	Valid Percent
Public	245	63.3
Private	98	25.3
NGO	44	11.4
Total	387	100.0
Service sector/ Line of service		
	Frequency	Valid Percent
Administration	192	62.7
Education	59	19.3
Medical	55	18.0
Total	306	100.0
Description of terms of service		
	Frequency	Valid Percent
Permanent Contract	214	57.2
Renewable Contract	120	32.1
Fixed Contract	8	2.1
Part-time Contract	19	5.1
Temporary Contract	13	3.5
Total	374	100.0
Worked Elsewhere before		
	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	265	70.1
No	113	29.9
Total	378	100.0
Organizational sector elsewhere		
	Frequency	Valid Percent
Public	96	36.2
Private	116	43.8
NGO	49	18.5
Other	4	1.5
Total	265	100.0

The descriptive statistics of the respondents show diversity of ideas reflected by the different categories of the sample as drawn from different employment sectors, profession of service, terms of service, gender, marital status, education qualifications, and whether the respondents lived with dependent children and/ or dependent adult. These background factors are categorized as organizational and individual factors.

8.3.2.1 Organizational factors

Of the valid responses, 63.3% were from the public, 25.3% from the private and 11.4% from the NGO sector. The high percentage for the public sector is attributable to the public sector being the biggest employer in Uganda. In terms of type of service (profession of occupation), the respondents were categorized as administration = 62.7%, education = 19.3% and health = 18%. The high percentage of administrative staff points to the general composition of staff in the organizations as evidenced by the staff lists (e.g. Ministry of Health and Ministry of Education staff lists).

The majority of the respondents i.e. 57.2% worked on permanent while 32.1% on renewable contracts. The remaining 10.7% was shared among part-time, temporary and fixed-term contracts. This is in line with the sizeable representation of the public and private sectors, and it also implies prevalence of a considerable number of employees on secure employment contracts.

70.1% of the respondents had worked elsewhere as compared to 29.9% who had not. Of those who worked elsewhere, 43.8% had worked in the private sector, while 36.2% and 18.5% had worked in the public and NGO sectors respectively. The remainder of 1.5% worked in other sectors such as international agencies. Table A8.1 under appendix A8 shows a cross tabulation of the current work sector against previous sector for those who worked elsewhere, and the result reveals that 70 out of the 116 (60.3%) respondents left the private sector for the public sector as compared to 17.7% that changed from the public to the private sector. 51.1% changed from the NGO to the public as compared to 20.4% that joined the private sector. Considering intra-sector movement, 74.0% moved within the public sector while the private sector had only 27.6% changing jobs within as the majority (60.3%) moved to the public sector. NGO to NGO change of jobs (26.5%) emerged second to those changing from NGO to the public sector (53.1%). Two implications arise here; *firstly*, the 29.9% that did not work elsewhere are a significant number that points to relative stability in employment and *secondly*, the 43.8% having their previous employment in the private sector shows relative uncertainty in employment in this sector in comparison to the public sector even though the 36.2% that changed employment from/ or within the public sector is a substantial number pointing to some labour movement across all sectors. Findings of

cross tabulation reveal more movement from the private and NGO to the public, while at the same time, the public sector seems to support intra-sector movement of labour than any other sector.

8.3.2.2 Individual factors

There are interesting findings on gender, age, marital status, educational qualifications, having dependents and having worked elsewhere (see table 8.3).

Table 8.3 Descriptive statistics for respondents' individual factors

Gender			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Male	226	58.4	59.8
Female	152	39.3	40.2
Total	378	97.7	100.0
System	9	2.3	
	387	100.0	
Age Bracket			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
30 & Below	131	33.9	34.3
31-40	135	34.9	35.3
41-50	82	21.2	21.5
51 & Above	34	8.8	8.9
Total	382	98.7	100.0
System	5	1.3	
	387	100.0	
Marital status			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Single	113	29.2	29.7
Married or living with a spouse	258	66.7	67.9
Divorced or separated	3	.8	.8
Widowed	6	1.6	1.6
Total	380	98.2	100.0
System	7	1.8	
	387	100.0	
Education Qualification			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Secondary Education	19	4.9	5.0
Tertiary/ vocational Education	71	18.3	18.6
Bachelor's Degree	124	32.0	32.5
Postgraduate Qualification	167	43.2	43.8
Total	381	98.4	100.0
System	6	1.6	
	387	100.0	
Have dependent children?			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Yes	285	73.6	75.8
No	91	23.5	24.2
Total	376	97.2	100.0
System	11	2.8	
	387	100.0	
Any adult dependents			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent

Yes	288	74.4	78.5
No	79	20.4	21.5
Total	367	94.8	100.0
System	20	5.2	
	387	100.0	

No. of years with Organization			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Less than 1 year	43	11.1	11.3
1- less than 2 years	41	10.6	10.7
2- less than 5 years	93	24.0	24.3
5 - less than 10 years	112	28.9	29.3
10 and above years	93	24.0	24.3
Total	382	98.7	100.0
System	5	1.3	
Total	387	100.0	

Voluntary change of department			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Yes	101	26.1	27.8
No	262	67.7	72.2
Total	363	93.8	100.0
System	24	6.2	
Total	387	100.0	

Years worked elsewhere			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
below 5 years	170	43.9	66.9
5-9 years	61	15.8	24.0
10-14 years	13	3.4	5.1
15-19 years	6	1.6	2.4
20 years and above	4	1.0	1.6
Total	254	65.6	100.0
System	133	34.4	
Total	387	100.0	

Males constituted 59.8% while females were 40.2% of the respondents. These figures are representative of gender complexity in employment in a developing economy such as Uganda with a population composition of males to females at 48.6% and 51.4% respectively (Uganda 2014). Although the male composition of respondents here is higher contrary to the composition in the general population distribution, the results reveal a fair picture of gender representation in employment.

Age composition, on the other hand, reveals that 69.6% of the workforce was 40 years and below, 34.3% being 30 years and below, while 35.3% were 31-40 years). Only 8.9% were above 51 years as 21.5% was between 41 and 50 years of age. This is, however, amidst divergent views that young people are more aggressive and mobile at the stage of exploration before career establishment (de Reuver and van Woerkom 2010; Elst et al. 2011) while other sources reveal that young employees are more committed as they want to establish their careers compared to the old ones that are often disappointed (Nijhof et al. 1998). Further analysis of the influence of age in explaining turnover intention is examined under section 8.5 on regression analysis.

67.9% of our respondents indicated being married or staying with a spouse, 29.7% were single, while the remainder of 2.4% was shared between the divorced/ separated (0.8%) and the widowed (1.6). On a related issue, 75.8% of the respondents had dependent children, while 78.5% had dependent adults. Previous studies reveal that the number of children and other dependents impose family obligations that require continued work (Iverson 1999). The uniqueness of African cultures (in Uganda in particular) that recognize social ties and extended families comprising of more children and dependents in comparison to the developed world such as the UK, bears to this finding and therefore has implications on turnover intention as well as actual turnover.

Education qualifications, on the other hand, are a key job requirement in determining an individual's employability. 77% of the respondents had at least a Bachelor's degree (44% and 33% for postgraduate and Bachelors respectively). Preference for employment of largely highly qualified people is likely to result in job displacement of those with lower qualifications (Armstrong 2009; DeCenzo and Robbins 2003). Secondly, perceived over-qualification is likely to result in perceived underemployment, and hence have effects on the levels of job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intention (Maynard et al. 2006). However, some studies reveal that education has little influence on commitment and turnover (Chay and Bruvold 2003). Regression analysis (section 8.5) examines the effects of education (among other factors) on turnover intention, especially with such interesting findings of high qualifications of respondents.

8.4 Correlation of the predictors with the dependent variable

The relationships between the different predictor variables and turnover intention, as postulated in the research model and as hypothesized in H1 [1-14] and H2 [1-2], were investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation. This was after preliminary analyses confirmed no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity (for details, see chapter six and seven, and appendices A84-6). Results of all the hypotheses turned out pointing to the expected directions and they were all significant, except H1[6] although it was also in the expected direction (see Table 8.4). Specifically:

H1[1] On-job HR practices (OJHRP) are significantly and strongly negatively correlated with turnover intention (r = -.34, p < .01). This means that 11.6% of the variability in turnover intention is shared by OJHRP (R^2 is $-.34^2 = .116$). While being aware that R^2 cannot be used to infer causal relationships, such a strong significant relationship stresses the importance of OJHRP in understanding turnover intention.

Table 8.4 Correlation coefficients of key factors with turnover intention

SNO	Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1	TOI	2.963	1.366	_																
2	OJHRP	3.968	1.016	-.339**																
3	JEP	4.397	1.103	-.266**	.530**															
4	POS	3.884	1.302	-.387**	.694**	.440**														
5	PSS	4.643	1.169	-.318**	.518**	.315**	.486**													
6	EMoJD	2.984	1.140	.307**	-.301**	-.142*	-.304**	-.228**												
7	OccJD	4.989	1.029	-.112*	.171**	.228**	.132*	.149**	.177**											
8	SD	4.937	0.869	-.262**	.410**	.419**	.359**	.418**	-.130*	.343**										
9	DA	3.746	1.206	-.102	.448**	.251**	.384**	.323**	-.167**	.042	.401**									
10	CWS	4.990	0.884	-.204**	.349**	.336**	.355**	.522**	-.228**	.138**	.437**	.297**								
11	PsyCo	4.856	1.074	-.166**	.233**	.265**	.209**	.351**	-.088	.122*	.280**	.193**	.244**							
12	EmoEE	4.577	1.026	-.439**	.483**	.433**	.505**	.453**	-.345**	.230**	.469**	.273**	.388**	.293**						
13	OccEE	4.233	1.014	-.250**	.270**	.311**	.295**	.277**	-.035	.274**	.320**	.220**	.226**	.187**	.523**					
14	JS	4.323	1.170	-.470**	.560**	.476**	.491**	.413**	-.327**	.150**	.425**	.297**	.327**	.284**	.668**	.385**				
15	MorCmt	3.976	1.149	-.539**	.499**	.414**	.498**	.330**	-.206**	.132*	.374**	.247**	.311**	.216**	.526**	.363**	.618**			
16	EmoCmt	4.461	1.309	-.487**	.356**	.270**	.287**	.272**	-.212**	.152**	.321**	.081	.194**	.225**	.364**	.174**	.379**	.352**		
17	ContCmt	2.956	1.252	-.308**	.324**	.251**	.348**	.187**	-.018	.025	.214**	.225**	.123*	.105	.241**	.271**	.370**	.636**	.103	_

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

TOI = Turnover intention, OJHRP = On-job-HR practices, JEP = Job entry practices, POS = Perceived Organizational support, PSS = Perceived supervisor support, EmoJD = Emotional job demands, OccJD = Occupational job demands, SD = Skill discretion, DA = Decision Authority, CWS = Co-worker support, PsyCo = Psychological Contract, JS = Job satisfaction, EmoEE = Emotional Engagement, OccEE = Occupational Engagement, MorCmt = Moral commitment, EmoCmt = Emotional Commitment, ContCmt = Continuance Commitment.

H1[2] Job entry practices (JEP) are significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention (r = -.27, p < .01). This means that JEP as a factor, shares 7.3% (R^2 = .073) of the variability in turnover. There seems to be limited variability in turnover intention that is shared by JEP in comparison to OJHRP. On-the-job retention practices are therefore likely to more important than job entry pracices in relation to turnover intention.

H1[3] Perceived organizational support (POS) is significantly and strongly negatively correlated with turnover intention (r = -.39, p < .01). The strong correlation, and thus the coefficient of determination (R^2 = .152) signify a strong negative relationship between POS and turnover intention. This implies that POS shares .152 (15.2%) of the variability in turnover intention. This is even greater than the variability in turnover intention that is shared by OJHRP, hence emphasizing the importance of POS in relation to turnover intention.

H1[4] Perceived supervisor support (PSS) is significantly and strongly negatively correlated with turnover intention (r = -.32, p < .01). PSS can be d as important in relation to turnover intention as signified by a strong negative correlation. Alternatively, 10.2% (R^2 = .102) of the variability in turnover intention is shared by PSS. While PSS shares slightly lower variability in turnover intention than POSS and OJHRP, it weighs higher than JEP. Importantly, however, PSS is likely to rate lower than POS in relation to turnover intention although both are significant correlates.

H1[5] Skill discretion is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention (r = -.26, p < .01). Although negatively and significatntly correlated, skill discretion seems to have a week correlation with turnover intention. This means that R^2 is .068, representing only 6.8% of the variability in turnover intention that is shared by skill discretion, with 93.2% of the variability still to be accounted for by other factors.

H1[6] Decision Authority is ***negatively, but non-significantly*** correlated with turnover intention (r = -.10, p = .06) at 5% level of confidence interval. This result shows a weak negative, and more so non significant relationship between the two variables, with an R^2 of .01, meaning that decision authority shares only .01 or 1% of the variability in turnover intention. This implies challenges to decision authority, for example, management control that limits the importance of employee decisions and control.

H1[7] Co-worker support is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention (r = -.20, p < .01). Although it is significant, the relationship between these two variables seems to be week, with an R^2

of .04. This means that co-worker support shares only 4% of the variability in turnover intention, with 96% of the variability still to be accounted for by other variables.

H1[8] Psychological contract is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention (r = -.17, p < .01). This means that the psychological contract (particularly employee expectations) have an R^2 of .029, hence shaing 2.9% of the variability in turnover intention. Although it is negative and significant, it shows a weak relationship.

H1[9] Emotional employee engagement is significantly and strongly negatively correlated with turnover intention (r = -.44, p < .01). This means that emotional engagement has an R^2 of .194, hence sharing a variability of 19.4% in turnover intention. This shows a strong negative relationship between the two variables, and hence s the importance of emotional engagement in relation to turnover intention.

H1[10] Occupational employee engagement is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention (r = -.25, p < .01). This means that occupational engagement has an R^2 of .063, which translates to 6.3% of the shared variability in turnover intention. Although it is a reasonable value, it is substantially lower than that of emotional engagement. Emotional enagement is therefore more associated with the varibilibity in turnover intention than occupational enegagemnt does.

H1[11] Job satisfaction is significantly and strongly negatively correlated with turnover intention (r = -.47, p < .01). With an R^2 of .221, this means that job satisfaction shares 22.1% of the variability in turnover intention. This is a high value of the shared variability, and hence, job satisfaction remains important in understanding the variability in turnover intention.

H1[12] Moral commitment is significantly and strongly negatively correlated with turnover intention (r = -.54, p <.01). This is the most strongly correlated variable among all the study variables, with an R^2 of .292, meaning that 29.2% of the variance in turnover intention is shared by moral commitment. This means that moral commitment is a key variable in understanding the variability in turnover intention.

H1[13] Emotional commitment is significantly and strongly negatively correlated with turnover intention (r = -.49, p < .01). As another factor of organizational commitment, emotional commitment also shows a strong negative relationship with turnover intention, with a coefficient of determination, R^2 of .240. This means that emotional commitment shares 24% of the variability in turnover intention. This is a strong level of variability, emphasisizing the importance emotional commitment in relation to turnover intention.

H1[14] Continuance commitment is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention (r = -.31, p < .01). This, however, shows a relatively lower relationsip with turnover intention in comparison to moral and emotional commitment. With an R^2 of .096 (-.31²), continuance commitment shares 9.6% of the variability in turnover intention.

In summary, hypothesis H1 is generally met apart from H1[6] on decision authority. In as much as the direction of the relationship for decision authority is confirmed to be as expected, the assumed relationship is non-significant (r = -.10, p = .06). This implies that decision authority is either not effectively supported by management, or it poses a challenge of decision risk, thereby employees developing turnover intentions. Additionally, decision authority may come with new challenges or, employees may start aspiring for more challenging jobs after gaining decision authority.

Hypothesis H2 postulated that emotional, H2[1]; and occupational job demands, H2[2]; are positively and significantly correlated with turnover intention.

H2[1] Emotional job demands (H2 [1]) are significantly and strongly positively correlated with turnover intention (r = .31, p < .01), hence hypothesis H2[1] was confirmed. This means that emotional job demands is a strong positive and significant correlate of turnover intention, sharing .096 (R^2) or 9.6% of the variability in turnover intention. This is a reasonable share (especially in comparison to occupational job demands), hence suggesting that emotional job demands are important in examining the variability in turnover intention.

H2[2] Occupational job demands as a factor is ***significantly and negatively*** correlated with turnover intention (r = -.11, p = .03), different from the expectation that it is positively correlated. Hypothesis H2[2] is therefore not confirmed, but the significant result is interesting. It suggests that an increase in an employee's work occupational demands is associated with a decrease in an employee's turnover intentions ($R2$ = .012), meaning that 1.2% of the variability in turnover intention is shared by occupational job demands. This can be explained by the increased involvement in work that creates occupational demands as a result of the nature of such a job, restraining one to think beyond that particular organization. Secondly, occupational job demands arising from the nature of the job are quite different from demands that are managerial or organizational in nature. People in physically demanding occupations do not find it unusual to continue working for the same organization than consider leaving amidst uncertainty of employment.

Table 8.5 shows correlation results of background variables with turnover intention.

Table 8.5 Correlation coefficients for key variables and selected background variables

	TOI	Age 31-40	Age 41-50	Age 51+	Secondary Edu	Tertiary Edu	Bachelor's Edu	Gender(F)	Private Se	NGO Se	Education Sv	Health Sv
Mean	*2.963*	*0.352*	*0.214*	*0.090*	*0.048*	*0.183*	*0.326*	*0.404*	*0.260*	*0.110*	*0.200*	*0.180*
SD	*1.366*	*0.478*	*0.411*	*0.286*	*0.214*	*0.387*	*0.469*	*0.491*	*0.437*	*0.319*	*0.397*	*0.381*
TOI	-	-.009	-.002	-.076	-.100	-.166**	.078	-.053	.132*	-.098	-.043	-.156**
OJHRP	-.339**	-.006	-.043	.056	-.085	.072	.126*	-.185**	-.191**	.234**	-.129*	.001
JEP	-.266**	-.015	-.021	.066	.013	-.070	.048	-.092	-.012	.122*	-.025	.018
POS	-.387**	.008	-.041	-.018	-.076	.101	.118*	-.059	-.069	.262**	-.088	.013
PSS	-.318**	.025	-.076	.039	-.015	.073	.056	-.035	-.098	.109*	-.086	.010
EmoJD	.307**	-.062	.012	.040	-.033	.001	-.115*	-.081	.146**	-.175**	.023	-.001
OccJD	-.112*	-.002	-.012	.024	-.007	.038	-.060	.050	.050	-.021	-.078	-.026
SD	-.262**	.028	-.042	-.027	.033	-.024	-.046	-.067	.015	.005	.063	.008
DA	-.102	.069	.003	-.015	-.069	-.066	.017	-.162**	-.175**	.093	.071	.033
CWS	-.204**	.024	-.109*	.012	-.019	.050	.080	-.027	-.001	.051	-.040	.082
PsyCo	-.166**	-.008	.022	.015	-.048	-.049	.030	-.041	-.092	.082	-.034	-.067
EmoEE	-.439**	-.019	.043	.062	.009	.088	.054	-.044	-.102	.141**	-.069	.087
OccEE	-.250**	.027	.031	.018	-.034	-.045	.032	-.043	-.024	-.007	.020	-.031
JS	-.470**	-.079	.041	.003	.061	.056	.033	-.069	-.032	.147**	-.033	.083
MorCmt	-.539**	-.035	-.008	-.037	.076	.074	.081	.028	-.061	.208**	.061	.112
EmoCmt	-.487**	.052	.006	-.018	-.071	.081	.119*	-.077	-.105*	.185**	-.167**	.056
ContCmt	-.308**	-.040	-.058	-.068	.026	.074	.090	.023	-.010	.136**	-.029	.017

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). i.e. *. p < 0.01. $p < 0.05$. **.

Dependent variable = TOI (Turnover intention). Predictors: OJHRP = On-job-HR practices, JEP = Job entry practices, POS = Perceived Organizational support, PSS = Perceived supervisor support, EmoJD = Emotional job demands, OccJD = Occupational job demands, SD = Skill discretion, DA = Decision Authority, CWS = Co-worker support, PsyCo = Psychological Contract, JS = Job satisfaction, EmoEng = Emotional Engagement, OccEng = Occupational Engagement, MorCmt = Moral commitment, EmoCmt = Emotional Commitment, ContCmt = Continuance Commitment.

**Reference for categorical data: Sector (Se) = Public, Profession of service = Administration, Age category = 30 yrs below, Education = Postgraduate, Gender = Male.

The results reveal that the private sector in comparison to the public sector is significantly and positively correlated to turnover intention (r = .13, p = .01), while NGO is negatively, but non-significantly correlated (r = -.10, p = .06). The health vis-à-vis the administration service is negative and significant (r = -.16, p < .001), while education service is negative, but non-significant (r = -.04, p = .46). Tertiary education vis-à-vis PhD qualification is negatively and significantly correlated to turnover intention (r = -.17, p < .01). Secondary education qualification is a negative (r = -.10, p = .06), while bachelor's degree qualification is a positive (r = .08, p = .14), but non-significant correlates of turnover intention. Older age categories are not significant correlates of turnover intention in comparison to the young age of 24-30 years. The results suggest that employees of the private sector are likely to leave in comparison to their counterparts in the public sector. Secondly, those in the health service are likely stay in comparison to those in administration and, those with tertiary education qualifications will stay in comparison to PhD holders.

8.5 The regression model and explaination of turnover intention

This section generally sets out to answer research question three (3) and hypotheses H3 – H10 on how the model and the factors therein explain the variation in turnover intention. For the scope of this PhD, the analysis and the results are representational of the theoretical model (figure 10.1) as other tests for mediation and moderation, are recommended for further studies. Section 8.5.1 provides results of the overall model (H3), while 8.5.2 addresses different models/blocks, and the contribution of the respective factors in explaining turnover intention (H4 – H9). The study hypotheses are in line with the approach adopted by Blau (2009) in his study of four-dimensional occupational commitment in explaining intent to leave, by analyzing for the contribution of different variables at different blocks/stages of the hierarchical model.

The theoretical justification for a hierarchical regression analysis has already been provided under section 6.5.2, and is here emphasized since the theoretical model for this study structures variables at different levels of influence, with some regarded as more distal while others are more proximal. The individual followed by the organizational-defining factors are considered the most distal factors in influencing a person's attitudes and behaviours, and hence are entered first and second. This can, however, be shaped by organizational policies and strategies to which an employee is expected to respond. The variables were entered into a hierarchical regression model in the following order:

Step 1: Individual factors such as age, gender, and education qualification (as control variables).

Step 2: Organizational factors such as sector and line of service (as second level of control variables).

Step 3: Employee retention practices (job entry practices and on-job HR practices).

Step 4: Employee perception of strategy (perceived organizational, and perceived supervisor support).

Step 5: Job demands, job resources (emotional and occupational job demands; skill discretion, decision authority, and co-worker support as components of job demands and job resources), and the Psychological contract.

Step 6: Employee engagement (emotional and occupational engagement).

Step 7: Job satisfaction.

Step 8: Organizational commitment (moral, emotional and continuance commitment).

8.5.1 Assessment of the overall model and model variables

Overall, the model including all the variables makes a significant contribution of 52 percent of the variance in turnover intention (Total $\Delta R^2 = .52$, $p < .01$). This means that the model is a good measure of turnover intention when compared to results of related models (Blau 2009; Field 2013). **Hypothesis H3** is therefore confirmed, and with such a large and significant value of *F*-ratio greater than 1 ($F = 9.19$, $p < .01$), it means that our model significantly improved our ability to predict turnover intention as compared to not fitting the model (Field 2013). For ease of presentation, table 8.6 provides a horizontal summary of the results for the overall model, with different blocks/steps, and the respective added variables; while appendix A8.3 is a detailed verticle step-by-step representation of the hierarchical model, including the unstandardized beta (*B*), R^2 and ΔR^2 statistics.

8.5.2 Assessment of the different models/ blocks of variables at different steps:

The model reveals that all the blocks of the variables entered at different steps were significant in explaining the variation in turnover intention. Such resullts provide the relevancy of the overall model, the blocks of the variables, and the different factors at the respective steps of the model. In relation to correlation results that provided insights of the shared variance in turnover intention, the hierarchical model (table 8.6) provides further analysis of such factors.

Model 1 included the individual variables such as age, education and gender. It accounted for an R^2 (and also ΔR^2) of .054, $p = .05$, which is 5.4 per cent of the total variance in turnover intention (*F*-value = 2.01, $p = .054$), if only considering such included factors. Only secondary ($b = -0.90$, $ß = -.14$, $p = .04$) and tertiary education qualifications ($b = -0.70$, $ß = -.20$, $p = .01$) were significant. This means that keeping other factors constant, employees with lower qualifications in comparison to postgraduates, are less likely to intend to leave. This means that an increase in employees with secondary and tertiary education qualifications by one standard unit, turnover decreases by 0.90 units and 0.70 units respectively.

Table 8.6 Summary of Results of Hierarchical Regression Modal

Predictors	*Step 1*		*Step 2*		*Step 3*		*Step 4*		*Step 5*		*Step 6*		*Step 7*		*Step 8*	
	SEB	ß	SEB	ß	SEB	ß	SEB	ß	SEB	ß	SEB	ß	SEB	ß	SEB	ß
(Constant)	0.22		0.26		0.44		0.46		0.71		0.71		0.69		0.62	
Age 31-40	0.22	-0.10	0.23	-0.06	0.21	-0.06	0.21	-0.05	0.20	-0.04	0.20	-0.02	0.20	-0.04	0.17	0.00
Age 41-50	0.25	-0.07	0.26	-0.02	0.25	-0.04	0.24	-0.04	0.23	-0.03	0.23	0.00	0.23	0.00	0.20	0.02
Age 51+	0.33	-0.11	0.33	-0.08	0.31	-0.06	0.30	-0.07	0.30	-0.07	0.29	-0.05	0.29	-0.07	0.26	-0.08
Sec Edu	0.43	-0.14*	0.47	-0.14	0.44	-0.14*	0.43	-0.13*	0.42	-0.10	0.41	-0.09	0.41	-0.08	0.36	-0.06
Tertiary Edu	0.24	-0.20**	0.29	-0.19*	0.28	-0.16*	0.27	-0.12	0.27	-0.10	0.26	-0.09	0.26	-0.09	0.23	-0.03
Bachelor's	0.22	-0.04	0.24	-0.09	0.22	-0.04	0.22	-0.03	0.21	-0.02	0.21	0.00	0.21	-0.01	0.19	0.08
Gender (F)	0.18	-0.02	0.18	-0.03	0.17	-0.10	0.16	-0.08	0.16	-0.04	0.16	-0.05	0.16	-0.05	0.14	-0.04
Private Se			0.22	0.15*	0.21	0.11	0.20	0.13*	0.20	0.14*	0.20	0.14*	0.20	0.16**	0.17	0.13*
NGO Se			0.28	-0.05	0.27	0.02	0.27	0.05	0.26	0.08	0.26	0.07	0.25	0.07	0.23	0.12*
Edu Sv			0.25	-0.17*	0.23	-0.18**	0.23	-0.17**	0.22	-0.18**	0.22	-0.17**	0.22	-0.16**	0.20	-0.14*
Health Sv			0.28	-0.09	0.26	-0.12	0.25	-0.14	0.25	-0.18**	0.25	-0.16*	0.24	-0.16*	0.22	-0.15**
OJHRP					0.10	-0.29**	0.12	-0.06	0.12	-0.05	0.12	-0.05	0.12	0.01	0.11	0.09
JEP					0.09	-0.13	0.08	-0.09	0.09	-0.06	0.09	-0.03	0.08	-0.01	0.07	0.02
POS							0.09	-0.26**	0.08	-0.26**	0.08	-0.21*	0.08	-0.21**	0.07	-0.17*
PSS							0.08	-0.13*	0.09	-0.11	0.09	-0.09	0.08	-0.08	0.07	-0.10
EmoJD									0.07	0.20**	0.08	0.17**	0.07	0.15*	0.07	0.16**
OccJD									0.08	-0.07	0.08	-0.04	0.08	-0.05	0.07	-0.05
SD									0.11	-0.09	0.11	-0.05	0.11	-0.04	0.10	0.05
DA									0.07	0.16*	0.07	0.16*	0.07	0.16**	0.07	0.10
CWS									0.11	0.05	0.10	0.06	0.10	0.05	0.09	0.05
PsyCo									0.08	-0.06	0.08	-0.04	0.07	-0.03	0.07	0.01
EmoEE											0.11	-0.17*	0.11	-0.06	0.10	-0.03
OccEE											0.09	-0.07	0.09	-0.05	0.08	-0.02
JS													0.09	-0.26**	0.09	-0.09
MorCmt															0.10	-0.23**
EmoCmt															0.06	-0.35**
ContCmt															0.07	-0.10
	R^2 = .054, p = .05 F = 2.01, p = .05		ΔR^2 = .040, p = .03 F = 2.30, p = .01		ΔR^2 = .124, p < .00 F = 5.20, p < .00		ΔR^2 = .052, p < .00; F = 5.93, p < .00		ΔR^2 = .056, p < .01; F = 5.39, p < .00		ΔR^2 = .023, p < .02; F = 5.42, p < .00		ΔR^2 = .029, p < .00; F = 5.87, p < .00		ΔR^2 = .142, p < .00. F = 9.19, p < .00	

Total ΔR^2 = .52, p < .01. **. p < 0.01. *. p < 0.05. Durbin-Watson = 1.93.

Dependent variable = TOI (Turnover intention). Predictors: OJHRP = On-job-HR practices, JEP = Job entry practices, POS = Perceived Organizational support, PSS = Perceived supervisor support, EmoJD = Emotional job demands, OccJD = Occupational job demands, SD = Skill discretion, DA = Decision Authority, CWS = Co-worker support, PsyCo = Psychological Contract, JS = Job satisfaction, EmoEng = Emotional Engagement, OccEng = Occupational Engagement, MorCmt = Moral commitment, EmoCmt = Emotional Commitment, ContCmt = Continuance Commitment.

**Reference for categorical data: Sector (Se) = Public, Profession of service (Sv)= Administration, Age category = 30 yrs below, Education (Edu) = Postgraduate, Gender = Male.

Alternatively interpreting the standardized beta values, model 1 means that an increase in employees with secondary and tertiary education by one standard deviation (0.21 and 0.39 respectively) results in a decrease in turnover intentions by .14 and .20 standard deviations respecticely. Taking the standard deviation for turnover intention (1.37), this will be 0.14 X 1.37 (0.19) for secondary and 0.20 X 1.37 (0.27) for tertiary education qualifications. This is interpretation is valid if other factors remain constant.

Model 2 that included addition of organizational variables such as sector and profession of service is significant (R^2 = .09, ΔR^2 = .04, p = .03; F = 2.30, p = .01). This model therefore makes a unique significant contribution of 4% (.04 x 100). The private sector significantly and positively predicts turnover intention (b = .47, ß = 0.15, p = .03), while education service is siginifactly a negative predictor ((ß = -0.17, p = .02). This means that an increase in private sector employment by one standard unit results in an increase in turnover intention by 0.47 units, while an increase in employment in education service industry by one standard unit results in a decrease in turnover intention by 0.58 units. Alternatively, an increase by one standard deviation (0.44) in private sector employment results in an increase in turnover intention by 0.15 standard deviations (1.37 for turnover intention X 0.15 = 0.21) while an increase in education service employment by one standard deviation (0.40) results in a decrease in turnover intention by 0.17 standard deviations (1.37 for turnover intention X 0.17 for education = 0.29). The interpretation is only valid if other factors are held constant.

Model 3 explains a total of 22% with an additional 13% of the variance in turnover intention (R^2= .22, ΔR^2- = .13, p = .00). This model is a good measure of turnover intention (F = 5.20, p = .00). In support of the correlation results where on-the-job retention strategies had a higher shared variance in turnover intention (11.6%) than job entry practices (7.3%), on-the-job HR practices (OJHRP, b = -0.39, ß = -.29, p = .00) is significant and negative, while job entry practices (JEP, b = -0.16, ß = -.13, p = .06) is a non-significant negative predictor of turnover intention (at the 5% level with the p value only slightly higher at .06). This means that as on-job HR practices increase by one standard unit, turnover intention decreases by 0.39 units. Alternatively interpreted, using the standardized beta, an increase in on-the-job HR practices by one standard deviation (1.02) results in a decrease in turnover intention by .29 standard deviations. Since the standard deviation for turnover intention is 1.37, this will be 0.29 X 1.37 = 0.40. **Hypothesis H4** is therefore partially confirmed. This is only correct if other factors are held constant.

Model 4 is significant (F = 5.93, p = .00), explaining a total of 27% variance in turnover intention, with a unique contribution of 5% (R^2 = .27, ΔR^2 = .05, p = .00). The addition of perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived supervisor support (POS) therefore makes a significant contribution to the prediction

of turnover intention. As depicted by the high shared variance of each of these factors as shown by correlation results, POS (15.2%) and PSS (10.2%), regression results reveal that both factors negatively and significantly predict the variance in turnover intention (POS, *b* = -0.27, *ß* = -.26, *p* =.00; and PSS, *b* = -0.15, *ß* = -.13, *p* = .05). **Hypothesis H5** is therefore fully confirmed that the two factors are significant negative predictors of turnover intention. The results mean that as perceived organizational support increases by one standard unit, turnover intention decreases by 0.27 units. Alternatively, as perceived organizational support increases by one standard deviation (1.30), turnover intention decreases by (0.26 X 1.37) = 0.36. Similarly, as perceived supervisor support increases by one standard unit, turnover intention decreases by 0.15 units, or as perceived supervisor support increases by one standard deviation (1.17), turnover intention decreases by (0.13 X 1.37) = 0.18. These interpretations are only valid if the effects of other factors are held constant.

Model 5 also made a significant prediction of turnover intention (R^2 = .33, ΔR^2 = .06, *p* = .01; *F* = 5.39, *p* = .00). This means that the addition of job demands: emotional job demands (EmoJD) and occupational job demands (OccJD); job resources: skill discretion (SD), decision authority (DA) and co-worker support (CWS); and the psychological contract (PsyCo), made a significant contribution of 6% to the overall model. However, only two factors at this step (emotional job demands, *b* = 0.24, *ß* = .20, *p* = 00; and decision authority, *b* = 0.18, *ß* = .16, *p* = .02) are significantly positive predictors of turnover intention. Occupational job demands (*b* = -0.09, *ß* = -.07, *p* = .27, skill discretion (*b* = -0.14, *ß* = -.09, p = .21), and psychological contract (*b* = -0.07, *ß* = -.06, *p* = .34) are negative but non-significant (at the 5% level) predictors of turnover intention. Co-worker support is a positive but non-significant predictor of turnover intention (*b* = 0.08, *ß* = .05, *p* = .45). Occupational job demands (negative and non significant at the 5% level) and decision authority (significantly positive), are not in the hypothesized direction. **Hypothesis 6** is partially confirmed as only emotional job demands turned out as postulated (significant and positive), and this finding supports the high variance shared by this variable (9.6%) as compared to occupational job demands (1.2%). This suggests that as emotional job demands increase by one standard unit, turnover intention increases by 0.24 standard units or, as emotional job demands increase by one standard deviation (1.14), turnover intentions increase by 0.27 (1.37 X 0.20). This is only valid when other factors are held constant.

Results also reveal **decision authority (DA) as a significantly positive predictor** of turnover intention. It implies that if decision authority increases by one standard unit, turnover intention increases by 0.18 units. The standardized beta values indicate that as decision authority increases by one standard deviation (1.21), turnover intention increases by 0.22 (1.37 x 0.16). This means that keeping all other factors

constant, increasing decision authority increases turnover intention. This finding is different from our initial assumption that an increase in decision authority is followed by a decrease in turnover intention, but it is supported by its low shared variance (1%). The finding is, first, indicative of high levels of risk averseness which causes pessimism about involvement in decision making. Some people prefer to work comfortably where they are not at the risk of making decisions since such decisions can backfire and affect their wellbeing. Second, those with decision authority are more likely to aspire for more challenges, and third, the fact that they were given decision authority suggests they are more likely to better themselves in their jobs and seek further advancement.

Model 6 makes a significant unique contribution of 2.3% to the overall model (R^2 = .35, ΔR^2 = .02, p = .02; F = 5.42, p = .00). The addition of emotional and occupational engagement therefore makes a significant contribution. In confirmation of their differing shared variances from the correlation results, emotional engagement (EmoEng, 19.4%) is significantly negative (b = -0.22, ß = -.17, p = .04), while occupational engagement (OccEng, 6.3%) is non-significantly negative (b = -0.09, ß = -.07, p = .32) at 5% level. **Hypothesis H7** is therefore partially confirmed. This suggests that as emotional engagement increases by one standard unit, turnover intention decreases by 0.22 standard units (using beta values). It also means that as emotional engagement increases by one standard deviation (1.17), turnover intention decreases by 0.23 (0.17 X 1.37). The interpretation is valid only if other factors are held constant.

Model 7 is significant, making an additional contribution of 3% to the prediction of the variance in turnover intention (R^2 = .38, ΔR^2 = .03, p < .01; F = 5.87, p = .00). This means that the addition of job satisfaction to the model significantly improves the prediction of turnover intention by 3%. In line with correlation results that gave a shared variance of 22.1%, job satisfaction is significantly a negative predictor of turnover intention (b = -.30, ß = -.26, p = .00). **Hypothesis H8** is therefore confirmed. As job satisfaction increases by one standard unit, turnover intention decreases by 0.30 units. Using standardized beta, as job satisfaction increases by one standard deviation (1.01), turnover intention decreases by 0.36 (1.37 X 0.26). This interpretation is valid only if other factors are held constant.

Model 8 significantly contributes an improvement of 14% in addition to the 38% already accounted for by the previous models (R^2 = .52, ΔR^2 = .14, p = .00; F = 9.19, p = .00). The components of organizational commitment (moral, emotional, and continuance) therefore have a significant influence on turnover intention as they account for a big proporption (14%) of the model. Correlations revealed large shared variances in turnover intention for each of the three variables (moral = 29.2%, emotional = 24%, and continuance = 9.6%). Indeed, moral (b = -0.28, ß = -.23, p = .00), and emotional (b = -0.36, ß = -.35, p =

.00) are significantly negative predictors of turnover intention. Continuance commitment (b = -0.11, $ß$ = -.10, p = .13) is a non-significant negative predictor of turnover intention in our model. The results show that as moral commitment increases by one standard unit, turnover intention decreases by 0.28 or, an increase in moral commitment by one standard deviation (1.15) results in a decrease in turnover intention by 0.48 (0.35 X 1.37). Similarly, an increase in emotional commitment by one standard unit results in a decrease in turnover intention by 0.36 units, otherwise put (using standardized beta), as emotional commitment increases by one standard deviation (1.31), turnover intention decreases by 0.48 (0.35 X 1.37). The results indicate that emotional and moral commitment negatively and significantly predict turnover intention. The interpretations are only valid if other factors in the model are held constant

8.6 Conclusions

The chapter has presented and interpreted the results of descriptive statistics, Pearson product moment correlation and hierarchical regression model involving factors identified as potentially relevant in explaining turnover intention in the context of this study. Correlations confirmed that almost all of the variables were strongly and significantly correlated with turnover intention as predicted, with nine of them each sharing a variance of about 10% and above. Only decision authority is non-significantly negative at 5% level, while occupational job demands is significantly negative (not in the hypothesized direction) at 5% level. After computing the values of the coefficient of determination (r^2) based on the correlations, it is revealed that almost all the variables that reported high shared variance turned out to predict turnover intention as confirmed by hierarchical regression.

The reported results of hierarchical regression are only a representation of the theoretical model, for purposes of this study, and not an analysis of all the model paths. Overall, the modal is a good fit to the data (Total ΔR^2 = .52, p <.01), explaining 52 percent of the variance in turnover intention. Model 8 introducing organizational commitment variables and model 3 introducing employee retention strategies, make the greatest contributions of 14 and 12 percent respectively, meaning that HR retention strategies and organizational commitment are important in explaining turnover intention. Perceived organizational support, perceived supervisor support, on-the-job retention strategies, emotional job demands, emotional engagement, job satisfaction, and moral and emotional commitment are significant predictors of turnover intention, while job-entry practices, occupational engagement and continuance commitment are non-significant at 5% level. Decision authority and occupational job demands are, however, significant predictors of turnover intention, but not in the predicted direction. The findings bear different implications to the knowledge of employee retention and hence set a new direction for theory, practice and debate.

9 QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

9.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the findings of the 26 in-depth interviews on employee retention, conducted across different organizations within the public, the private and the NGO sectors in Uganda. It reflects on the survey findings on different study variables in chapters 7 and 8. The findings are presented along common themes that are grouped around the main issues of focus: human resource retention strategies, employee perception of strategies (perceived supervisor and organizational support, job demands and job resources and, psychological contract); job satisfaction, employee engagement, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. The coding frameworke used in NVivo 11.2 is included as appendix 6.3. The chapter adopts pseudonyms for all the respondents, and hence no person's identity is revealed for confidentiality reasons. Table 9.1 summarises the particulars of the respondents.

9.2 Human Resource Retention Strategies

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) in chapter seven revealed two factors under human resource retention strategies (job-entry and on-job HR practices), which were used in correlation and regression analyses in chapter eight. Both factors were negatively correlated with turnover intentions, with on-the-job retention strategies being significantly negative, while job-entry practices are non-significant (at 5% level) predictors of turnover intention.

Common themes from interviews confirm the two factors of which, the elements of on-the-job retention strategies prominently feature in comparison to those of job-entry strategies. This finding supports results of regression analysis that established on-the-job HR strategies as statistically significant, as opposed to job-entry strategies, although both factors and their elements remain important as explained below.

9.2.1 Hiring practices

Hiring practices such as recruitment, selection and orientation of employees are reported as influencing employee engagement, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. The results are, however, mixed in terms of the influence of such practices. In as much as Boniface acknowledged that organizations "will get the best candidate and appoint and deploy" him/her when they "advertise and go through the recruitment process", he confirmed the existence of "so many people whose [qualification] papers were questionable", but simply hired because they had "god fathers". He argued that "such people are better off staying … because they can be protected [here] than moving elsewhere as the veil will be removed". Some employees therefore stay because of the protection they have from relatives and family friends who fix them onto the jobs despite their lack of the qualifications.

Table 9.1 A summary of key background information on interview respondents

SNO.	Pseudonym	Sector	Organization	Title	Gender	Age	Marital status	Children	Dependents*	Education
1	Apollo	Public	Kamuli DLG	District Education Officer	Male	54	Married		3	Postgraduate
2	Arnold	Public	Busia DLG	Asst. Chief Administrative Officer	Male	44	Married		15	Postgraduate
3	Boniface	Public	Ministry of Health	Records Officer	Male	27	Single		6	Postgraduate
4	Christol	Public	Ministry of Health	HR Officer	Female	32	Single			Postgraduate
5	Diana Aldo	Private	UCU	Admin Assistant	Female	26	Married	1		Postgraduate
6	Donese	Private	Case Hospital	Head of Nursing	Female	49	Married		6	Tertiary/Diploma
7	Drake	Public	Ministry of Education	Asst. Commissioner, HRM	Male	46	Married	4	2	Postgraduate
8	Edinance	NGO	MJAP	HR Manager	Female	53	Single	-	4	Postgraduate
9	Fredoe	Public	Ministry of Education	Senior HR Officer	Male	46	Married		12	Postgraduate
10	Janet	Public	Makerere University	Senior HR Officer	Female	33	Single	1		Postgraduate
11	Julie Hannah	Public	Kamuli DLG	Principal HR Officer	Female	34	Married		3	Postgraduate
12	Julius	NGO	RHU	Director Finance	Male	47	Married	3		Postgraduate
13	Justine	Public	Makerere University	Assistant Lecturer	Female	33	Married	3	5	Postgraduate
14	Katongole	Private	UCU	Lecturer	Male	44	Married		6	Postgraduate
15	Kyle	Public	Ministry of Education	Principal HR Officer	Female	43	Married		6	Postgraduate
16	Mildred	Private	Case Hospital	Director Operations	Female	42	Married	3	5	Bachelors
17	Mubesi	Public	Makerere University	Assistant Lecturer	Male	40	Married	2	2	Postgraduate
18	Nanyonga	Public	Busia DLG	Asst. District Health Officer	Female	39	Married	4	8	Postgraduate
19	Ntambi	Public	Busia DLG	Senior Education Officer	Male	53	Married	8	20	Postgraduate
20	Onesmus	Private	Case Hospital	Accountant	Male	45	Married	4	5	Tertiary/Diploma
21	Patience	Private	UCU	HR Manager	Female	30-34	Single			Postgraduate
22	Stanely	Public	Ministry of Health	Senior HR Officer	Male	26	Single			Bachelors
23	Sulah	Public	Makerere University	Associate Professor	Male	42	Married	5	4	Postgraduate
24	Tricia	Public	Busia DLG	Senior HR Officer	Female	49	Married		4	Bachelors
25	Wycliffe	NGO	RHU	HR Officer	Male	32	Single		3	Postgraduate
26	Yahaya	NGO	RHU	Records Assistant	Male	29	Married	3		Bachelors

**Some respondents preferred giving number of dependents as including their own children, while others indicated having a bigger line of dependents beyond what could instantly recall*

Such practices create a negative perception about recruitment, especially in the public sector as Boniface further states:

> *"... when I was in the private sector, people used to have the belief that you will never get into government because before they even advertise, jobs are already taken. Then I said, let me give it a try. I went, I applied and actually when we went for the aptitude, we were over 5000. We waited and they called me hey, come for orals [interviews]. We went for the oral interview; we were over 60 but they wanted only 2, but still I never gave up."*

Even though Boniface depicted fair practices, expressions of HR hiring on the basis of *"technical know who"* instead of "technical knowhow" remained across all the sectors. Firstly, Mildred from the private sector revealed having been hired because of some close attachments to the proprietors of the organization. Secondly, the general perception and expressions in the public sector, of hiring on the basis of relationships and contacts, point to the lack of meticulous hiring practices.

Katongole illustrated how candidates "fixed in" an organization by someone may only stay for fear of disappointing their associates. He argued that:

> *"if your uncle has taken you, your father recommended you ... some will stay because of that... at the end of the day, when somebody wants to leave, they will think through, what did I go through to get here, how many people did I talk to, how many people stood in for me, and then he says no, let me stay here."*

The above scenario is different when candidates undergo a rigorous hiring process that allows them to develop confidence and self-belief to compete for another opportunity elsewhere reasoning that 'it was me and me alone' who got the current job and hence free to leave. Those simply given a job always fear disappointing those who 'held their hand' as there is a personal relationship. Katongole explains:

> *"... because I don't want to disappoint them. If I went in alone I can believe in myself that surely I can make it elsewhere, especially if there is an attractive offer meaning that my uncle recommended me and there is an attractive offer* [elsewhere]*, I stay and forego that attractive offer!"*

Similarly, orientation also varies across sectors and organizations, yet as Christol noted, all organizations focus on "helping the employee feel welcomed in the workplace" and understand expected behaviours. Stanley appreciated the longer orientation given in the public service, for up to two months to make them like their jobs, unlike in the private sector. Employees who receive effective orientation that supports them to settle well in their jobs are likely to feel comfortable and stay longer with such organizations.

9.2.2 Remuneration

Remuneration as the financial rewards to employees in respect of their services emerged consistently from interviewees as a key strategy for the retention of employees. There was general consensus that everyone wants to be paid fairly well and on time in addition to observing that salary is the basic reason people work. Christol for example, noted that "obviously" good salary will be "the first reason to consider" while Patience reasoned that "pay … is what we all wake up from our homes and come to struggle for." For clarity, Diana Aldo, posed a guiding question in her explanation:

> *"…are you paying salary in time, is the money enough, are you paying the right scale, and when they have done something you are happy with, are you going to give salary top-up or salary increment?"*

This implies that the meaningfulness of remuneration should be examined in terms of amount paid, its fairness and equity, and timeliness. Justine explained that the attractiveness of "the remuneration package … will keep one committed or engaged to that particular organization." Pay is therefore an important factor for one to engage, get committed and either stay or leave.

However, with reference to his own organization, Katongole noted that "salaries are not competitive" amidst other "organizations that offer better salaries" and as such, some employees especially "the administrative staff" were leaving to join other organizations such as, "URA" (Uganda Revenue Authority). Mubesi added that: "Even if you are treating me well here, I will still go simply because I want to go and enjoy a much higher pay in a different organization."

In addition, pay is also linked to job satisfaction and engagement of employees as reported by Tricia:

> *"If an employee views their remuneration as being satisfactory, then it is a very big motivator, it will go a long way into job satisfaction because they will have vigour to work with energy, every day to come to work because they know at the end of the day, the pay cheque is worth the effort and you will notice that if the employees are motivated, they will be more creative."*

Satisfaction, engagement, commitment and retention as a result of pay, however, vary by person, and also as a result of pay variation across economies, sectors and organizations. In comparison to Britain, Arnold noted that "this is why educated people and professionals are leaving jobs in Uganda and going abroad to do odd jobs as long as they are paid well." This was expressed across all sectors by some people who have had an experience of working abroad. Arnold further explained how people have left senior position jobs to take up low ranking jobs in other organizations paying more.

"There are people who left this organization. Somebody leaves this organization as an accountant and goes and joins another organization as an Accounts Assistant simply because they are paying him more money than as an accountant."

While the importance of remuneration is acknowledged, its critical analysis in terms of competitiveness, fairness and timeliness is important. It also remains evident that pay alone is not enough to hold people to organizations. Edinance observed how their "compensation packages were not very competitive" while Arnold explained a human's insatiable need for money and hence the need to consider other factors:

"if somebody has been earning say one million, and your salary is increased suddenly to two million [or more], initially that person will be motivated to work and actually may continue working for that organization, but of course with time, human beings are unpredictable, because at first the person was motivated because of the increase in the salary but after that, somebody will be looking at some other things i.e. other benefits."

While emphasizing that other benefits take different forms (as examined below under 9.2.10), Katongole challenged the over emphasis on pay to explain turnover. "… given that there is competition, even if the money is not sufficient, they have no other choice, so they will stay …." Remuneration is hence important, but its effectiveness in retention efforts is challenged in light of better paying opportunities elsewhere.

9.2.3 Training and development

Training aimed at enhancing employee skills and knowledge for performance features prominently among employee retention strategies. For example, Katongole explained that

"If you look at jobs that require continuous improvement in skills and knowledge to perform … one may say fine, the money is not enough…, however, there are opportunities for training."

Training in itself also teaches people to commit themselves to what they choose to and this in a way enhances commitment to both work and the organization. Katongole prides himself that the "training" he undertook emphasized "commitment", arguing that "if you commit yourself to doing something, do it."

In addition, it motivates people by making them feel valued. Janet narrated that "if an employee is trained in the job where he/she is working, that person will feel motivated and wanted on the job, and that one will encourage them to stay." On his part, Ntambi explained:

"When you have been sponsored by an organization …. to go for training, you feel so motivated when you come back, committed to work for the organization that has given you the chance and the opportunity to acquire more knowledge."

Furthermore, training helps employees to do their jobs better, so they feel fulfilled at doing a job. It also facilitates employee engagement in terms of their involvement in work with energy and intellectual capability, passion and motivation with the desire to continue working, eventually resulting in employee retention. As Patience explained, "if the organization is constantly training them [employees] and adding value to them, they will say ok let me stick with them [organization]."

However, the above dividends are mainly achievable "if the training is based on a need", asserted Wycliffe. Training should not simply be undertaken as a norm, but with a purpose of addressing skills, attitudinal, behavioural or performance gap, following performance appraisal. Wycliffe further noteed that "there are trainings that may happen just because they are planned as they come with a project. They are on the calendar but not because personally I need the training" [while] "some people go for training over and over again in the same thing." Training only becomes meaningful when it seeks to address a training need following relevant plans, and the individuals feel it will be useful to them and/ or their jobs.

Similarly, training seems to be limited in some organizations. Patience for example, noted that one area where her organization was "not scoring highly" was that of "training", and went further to urge the organization to "wake up to the realization that [they] need to invest much more money in training to retain [staff]." However, financial constraints, and conditional ties by donors especially for NGOS, pose challenges as Julie Hannah narrated:

> *I can say we are not very good at availing opportunities because of the nature of the funding. Most donors are very shy at releasing money for employee training. They focus much more on activities, [and] project implementation…"*

Winning commitment and retaining employees with more developed skills have become a challenge instead. Julius explained that if such employees do not have "chances … they start searching for opportunities elsewhere."

9.2.4 Performance management

The process of defining and agreeing on performance standards, supporting performance, and review of progress and achievement for a particular performance period is considerably connected with engagement, satisfaction, commitment and intensions to stay. Firstly, it informs management decisions about other practices such as training, promotion and salary increment. Boniface observed that "it is performance appraisal that prompts [a] supervisor to recommend [an employee] for further studies [or training]." The importance of training and pay has already been advanced above, but the two are largely

dependent on performance, just as training improves performance and thus determining either retention or turnover.

Janet explained that "performance appraisal encourages employees to work harder [as] they feel wanted" and get "committed to that job." Effective performance, Julius noted, results in "a family bond … that really keeps people around" not only for more working hours, but for productively longer years.

However, the influence of performance management also seems to be two-fold. In most cases especially in developing countries, Boniface explained that the reward "is not commensurate to the effort". Sulah on his part while drawing from his experience, asserted that "generally in Uganda, performance management systems ... are not operational [or] not effective" while Jane believed that "NGOs are much stricter on targets than in the public sector." Employee attitudes and behaviours do not only depend on one's performance, but the treatment that follows that performance. Tricia reasoned that low performance causes tension and increase in turnover intentions:

> *"... the employer should also be satisfied with the work of the employee. In most cases if the employer is not satisfied with the work the employee is doing, they may end up terminating the work of the employee."*

Aware of an impending termination of his/her work, an employee registering poor performance is likely to lose any held commitment and therefore think of leaving.

9.2.5 Career growth and support

Not only does an employee's clear career path and advancement give satisfaction, but also engagement, commitment to the organization, and hence willingness to stay. To Drake, if there is "career progression", one gets "satisfied by saying yes, I entered (say) five years ago and now I am a senior." Fredoe added that "if you are hoping to grow in your career, then you will have commitment." However, career alignment and support is revealed to vary across sectors as Drake further narrated:

> *"...the public service is structured in such a way that after 3 years you should move to another level if there is an opening, and this is even more worked out in such a way that promotional activities are first subjected to internal adverts before opening up to external candidates."*

In addition, Patience conjectured: "if somebody sees that they can develop their career passage in the organization, they will stay even if the conditions are not so good; they will say am staying because I have that future." Yahaya on his part asserted:

> *"... because everyone is yearning for career advancement, if I am holding this position in the next two years; I have to be holding another position. That is the reason why we work around the clock very hard...."*

However, quite often it remains an individual responsibility and with short foresight. In the NGO sector, Edinance explained that she finds "career development … very low" as their employees "come either already well trained" or do it on their own as "funders have limited budget for staff […] development."

Similarly, quite often people are placed in jobs out of their career paths and interests and this affects their satisfaction, engagement, commitment, and thus turnover intention. Diana Aldo stated:

> *"Within the structure, this is not my career path ... I am sure the teaching staffs have better retention compared to us the administrative staff because there are prospects of career growth and the policies encourage training of academic staff and it does not for administrative staff."*

She noted that working in a different line of profession, coupled with perceived limited career path in comparison to other career lines creates desire for opportunities in one's actual career line. This hence causes turnover intentions and subsequently turnover. To the contrary, Ntambi having studied "education" and was "employed in education sector" felt "happy and competent to execute" his duties, which is important for retention.

9.2.6 Promotion

Employees also prefer organizations with clearly structured promotional ladders with attendant terms or policies through which they are supported to grow. Findings confirm that promotion results in pay increase, increased responsibility and self-esteem, all of which enlist increased involvement and hard work, and willingness to stay longer with an organization.

Arnold explained:

> *Working in an organization where you are getting promoted, ... gives you the motivation to continue serving because at the end of the day, you are seeing yourself growing in your profession as you are growing in your career path ... It motivates you to continue staying in that organization for that long time.*

With specific reference to academia, Janet conceived availability of a clear promotional outlet. She narrated that "you know that when you acquire a PhD, you are promoted, the publications you make enable you to be promoted, and the promotional outlet of course comes with money." She added that "…if someone is promoted, that means the salary is increasing."

However, promotion is not a clear-cut path to increased pay, satisfaction, commitment and retention. Arnold explained the challenge of promotions amidst no or limited pay increment hence creating a tendency for one to look elsewhere. Employees leaving a government job for example at a senior level to join another organization at an officer (lower) level, but for higher pay demonstrates the challenge with promotions.

Promotion is also challenged by limited promotional ladder positions such as Principal Education Officer and Principal Assistant Secretary that may not exist in some district administrative structures. As Julius explained, it is frustrating to employees that have acquired additional qualifications, but "simply have no chances of promotion" as he reasoned that it means you have to "search for opportunities elsewhere."

Furthermore, promotion comes with more responsibilities and requirements of higher qualifications, which exert more pressure on the individual. Onesmus gave an example of a promotion to one of their staff who turned it down. Donese from the same organization clarified that employees "cite pressure for results as it is not only about promotion." Just like performance management, Yahaya explaind that "promotion [or] no promotion comes from nowhere" but hard work and has implications on employees' attitudes.

9.2.7 Job Rotation and transfer

Job rotation considerably exposes an employee to different tasks and responsibilities in a different work environment thereby addressing fatigue that would otherwise cause a person to think of switching an employer. Results reveal challenges with job rotation and transfer, but also applaud its importance, Drake reasoned:

> *"… the other key aspect that motivates people to stay is the aspect of job rotation because by the time you retire, you would have got exposed to a number of ministries and that in itself I should say is a motivator and it keeps people around."*

Jane exemplified the practice of job rotation as being in their HR manual for purposes of breaking the monotony of staying in one place for long, and to enable employees [to] keep learning on their jobs.

> *If you look at job rotation, you have stayed in one position, for example in HR, you are supposed to be a practitioner of HR because you have to perform most of the HR functions, but you have been in staff training throughout, you haven't practiced recruitment and selection; there is a way you start feeling; "I should look for something" where you feel you are engaged and you are able to perform all the HR functions than being in only one area of training or performance management.*

Job rotation and transfer also help people adjust their working environment from a probably limiting to an enabling one, and this helps in retention. Stanley explained:

> *If you feel you are not comfortable here, it is easier to transfer you than quitting. That is why we retain people easily in the government. If you have issues with your supervisor, say the boss, so you come in for a transfer.*

As findings reveal, job rotation and transfer do feature mainly in the public sector than other sectors. Katongole revealed that transfers and job rotations especially in the private sector are selective with "particular people [rotated or] transferred from time to time", which could point to some unrevealed issues such as performance or work relations. In addition, Mildred explained that some organizations have narrow coverage and scope of operation hence their staff "do not deserve job rotation" and transfer. Similarly, in the public sector, local governments cannot transfer their staff to a central government ministry. Tricia expressed her ordeal:

> *"…. decentralization has a problem. If we could move from one local government to another freely on transfer, I think this could be the time that I would say I must leave, but now to move, there must be a vacancy in that organization. So it becomes a bit difficult to take a decision and move. And that is why I say I have to [stay]"*

Job rotation and transfer can therefore result in either opportunity for exposure and skill development or lack of such opportunities with outcomes that are two-fold: leave or stay.

9.2.8 Job security

People always want to work in organizations providing security for their jobs. Apollo made it clear that "no one would want to move [to] an organization where tomorrow someone will tell you please walk away." Appreciating that any termination should not be arbitrary, employment lifespan varies between permanent, fixed-time contract and temporary appointments. Preference is for permanent appointments, predominantly in the public sector. Drake emphasized that "…[in] the public service as a whole, one retaining factor is the aspect of permanent and pensionable terms [as] somebody is sure of a job for a long time." Christol expounded:

> "*When you are on permanent [terms of service], definitely it is a better option because at the end of the day, first of all, you are assured of your job security [as] number one, because it is not easy to [fire] someone if they are on permanent. That is how actually it is in [the] public sector, but when you are on contract, it is easy because they just terminate your contract and that is it.*"

As there is relatively more uncertainty in the NGOs and in the private sectors, it is, however, revealed that the public sector is also now emphasizing performance contracts that are changing the notion of permanent and pensionable service. Arnold asserted:

> *"In public service we used to say that one is permanent and pensionable, and that really makes people to stay in an organization for a long time, but when I look at things now, I don't agree that now there is a person who is there permanently like they used to say because the issue is that there are so many changes now around the world, but of course now in public service, people are now signing performance agreements meaning, the issue of saying I am permanent and pensionable is being phased out because you either perform and stay, or you don't perform and get out."*

Further still, job security in the private sector is affected by the type of ownership. Donese explained that "in a sole proprietorship company …. everything depends on the boss' say despite having management." A further example is reported by Mildred citing many upcoming companies of "Indian background" that she described as "the so called investors [that] keep threatening" employees. This is contrary to job security assurances as expected by employees.

It is also imperative that there are some employees on non-permanent terms, but they are content. Wycliffe demonstrated this that "whereas our terms are not permanent and pensionable, they are renewable upon satisfactory completion of … a contract." In the same spirit, Arnold argued:

> *"I think that the issue of one staying in an organization for a longer time because he is permanent even if it's not well paying, for me I think it really does not help because I don't think one should be employed forever. If you can get an opportunity where you can be paid some good money even if it is for a short time of may be [2-5 years], when you leave that job, you can open up avenues for yourself."*

Employees are therefore likely to develop a feeling of satisfaction associated with continuity in employment; however, it is being challenged by new reforms as well as the desire for a living wage.

9.2.9 Employee empowerment

This was expressed in terms of employee involvement in decision making, communication and feedback, and trust. Employees express satisfaction, engagement, commitment and willingness to stay where they feel empowered. Edinance traced and emphasized the need for communication right away from the point of entry into a job. She argued:

> *"when you come to the organization, the supervisor may not, but is required to explain or interpret to you what you will be required to do. … So your job description must be clear to you as well as the supervisor so that you are on the same board."*

Communication not only clarifies the understanding, but creates a common position of performance and thus results in satisfaction and willingness to work for the organization (Kitttler et al. 2011). However, whereas Yahaya appreciated that "people are open [and] not backbiting", Patience observed the need for open communication between management and staff in order to enlist employee engagement:

> *"I … think that we need to work on the communication strategy. There is a feeling that management is up apart from the rest of the staff. If we had more open communication channels I think we would get more people engaged.*

Julie Hannah indicated that employees were being consulted in decision making and hence having an environment in which an employee "feels a sense of belonging" because of being considered "part of the organization."

As Mildred explained, if "a relationship is easily built on trust and honesty… [where] …. an employee is recognized, it makes [him/her] feel like yes, I can do something and that will help keep me around". To the contrary, however, Julie Hannah narrated how lack of performance feedback demoralizes employees, while Diana Aldo expressed concerns about policies that are developed without consulting and involving staff. This is similar to Onesmus' point of the sole proprietor making sole decisions that "backfire".

9.2.10 Other benefits

Besides the salary, employees also value other benefits they get from their employer. Such benefits include health insurance, transport, salary loans, education for children, duty facilitation allowances, pension, accommodation, meals, certificates of recognition, and staff parties.

Health schemes involve medical support to the staff themselves, their immediate dependents such as spouses and biological children. Donese revealed how even the "uncommitted … [staff] … are unwilling to leave because of the treatment policy." This finding is interesting as it reveals that one can be willing to stay despite not being attached or obliged to, but because of what he is getting that he stands to lose.

However, in as much as health insurance is mentioned across the three sectors (the public, the Private and the NGOs), it is dominant in the NGO and private sectors. Further more, within the private sector, as it is appreciated in a hospital as mentioned above, its level of appraisal in a private university is with mixed results. Kyle on her part argued:

> *"You cannot for example walk into the health centre and they tell you there is no medicine or there is no doctor or you cannot go for a referral to Nsambya [Hospital] from [name of organization] and they refuse to work on you."*

However, Katongole of the same organization saw it as only being beneficial to staff with families and staying near; and not those living away from the university. The requirement to first seek permission from the organization before attending any other health facility is also unattractive. On the hand, fewer public sector employees have medical schemes as compared to those in the NGO and private sectors.

Mubesi from a public university asserted:

> *"You feel that things are completely different even the way they [NGOs and private sector] treat their employees. Employees are treated as kings not like here where it is to whom it may concern. If I may give you a case in part, ... here ... [we] don't even have medical insurance. When you fall sick, it is to whom it may concern. Nobody follows up..."*

On the part of salary loans, an organization enters an understanding with bank(s) to avail salary secured loans to staff without requiring any other form of collateral. Janet affirmed that salary loans have "made many people stay with the organization" because they are assured of access to a loan facility from the bank. This arrangement is reported across all sectors in several organizations, and it is appreciated although the loans could cause financial stress.

Duty facilitation and other allowances for housing and transport came out prominently in the public sector (both central ministries and districts), but specifically among the medical personnel; and in the Ministry of Education. For example, Ntambi noted that "there are no allowances at the District except for the health sector…." In as much as health professionals get allowances to attract and retain their limited and highly demanded skills, it is observed, however, that the ministry staff have some allowances beyond their colleagues in the districts. Kyle holds that allowances give them satisfaction compared to their colleagues in the private sector. However, differentiation in the administration of such allowances to different cadres is also likely to demoralize other staff providing a similar service.

9.2.11 Working tools

Working tools came out prominently and Christol argued that one "cannot work if [he/she] does not have tools." However, the NGOs and private sectors seem to have working tools in comparison to the public sector. Such tools include computers, printers, and photocopying machines. Christol explained how in the public sector, one "can have photocopying machines in the office, but [lack] the toner or paper!" With regard to retention, Tricia explained that "if the employee is able to get the relevant working tools, he will stay longer with the organization", and hence as Mubesi and Stanley suggested, developing countries have more retention challenges since their employees have inadequate working tools.

9.2.12 Social atmosphere and working environment

The friendliness and supportive working relationships as well as the ambience of the workplace provide the comfort within which people work and hence influence work and retention decisions. Boniface argued that "at times some sectors or some institutions have good working conditions which are favourable to one's demands", but Arnold succinctly asserted that: "if an employee is not happy with the working environment under which he/she is working, of course satisfaction remains low and [so is] the level of retention." Diana Aldo narrated:

> *"… they are losing it. I know the environment used to be extremely beautiful; and that was enough to retain people in [this organization]. Now, this organization has policies coming out every month and they seem to be emotional, and that changes the environment and of course that affects my engagement, it affects my commitment, it affects my retention intentions.*

Confirming a likely problem in the above organization, Katongole, another respondent from the same organization as Diana Aldo revealed that people feel they are "witch hunted" as most of the policies being put in place provide "subjective treatment to people" hence becoming "a turnoff" and thus leaving.

The ability of the organization to meet its staff expectations also defines the working environment. Drake used the notion of "dry and wet" (lucrative or lean) departments or organizations in the public service, in reference to resource allocations, a scenario that is limiting:

> *"… in the public service, we have dry and wet ministries. So when you are taken to a dry ministry, the level of commitment declines to the extent that you can feel like quitting the organization. When you are taken to a wet ministry your level of commitment goes up and certainly makes you stay and you feel like the job is motivating and you would like to stay further and further."*

As wet/lucrative departments improve the social environment to win employee satisfaction, engagement, commitment and retention, it becomes a challenge for dry/lean counterpart departments.

9.2.13 Public reputation/ image of the organization

The brand name and corporate image of an organization being reputable is advanced as a retention factor. Although this can be closely fitted in hiring practices in line with Hurrell et al's (2011) establishment of fewer graduates joining the voluntary sector because of the "free" connotation of the nomenclature, it goes beyond attracting candidates to giving pride to the workers. Justine explains that "if the image is quite good, if it is quite appealing and quite strong on the market, then [one] will like to continue identifying with such an organization." Sulah adds thus:

> *"[Name of organization] is a brand name, it has a history, and it has networks. Some of us have got opportunities from other institutions that seek for our expertise on a regular basis because of the brand name of [the organization]. Even for grant of research funds, it has to do not just with your PhD; it has also to do with which institution you present. They will give you money because they know [the organization] is a credible institution."*

In addition, Yahaya felt his organization was "a stepping stone [that] everyone is yearning for" because it has a lot it offers.

The foregoing section clarifies the factors that constitute HR retention strategies, and their association with turnover intention. The commonly observed themes and sub themes on retention strategies such as hiring practices, pay, career support, promotion and transfer, job security, and benefits among others fit into the two factors: job-entry and on-the-job HR retention strategies as explained in chapter seven. They are also in line with the established correlation results of such factors with, and prediction of turnover intention as examined in chapter 8. This section therefore clarifies the understanding of the factors of HR retention strategies which are linked to other factors in view of research question one.

9.3 Employee perception of HR retention strategies

Employee perceptions of retention strategies in form of organizational and supervisor support came out prominently. Chapter 8 revealed that Perceived organizational, and supervisor support are strongly negatively and significantly correlated with turnover intention. Regression results also reveal that both factors negatively and significantly predict the variance in turnover intention when added to the model.

Varying arguments are advanced to explain employees' perceptions of the strategies. Boniface viewed a "mother ministry" within the public sector as being responsible for setting "guidelines" that senior managers and line supervisors follow. Onesmus explained that "the line manager has it as a policy of the organization that [he] must provide support to employees…" Sulah concurs that there are issues that are "really institutional in terms of some policy" and where they are right or not, such outcomes are attached to the organization.

Some specific HR programmes and strategies such as salary, staff development, scholarships or funding are also in particular respects attached to the organization. Mubesi argued that "you get them simply because you are here [with the organization]." He explained that "even if your supervisors do not want, but because of the way the institution is, you can still enjoy these opportunities." Ntambi arguecd that"

> *"…[if] the central government says that no increase of salaries of civil servants this year, you cannot attach it to the Chairman [of the] District or CAO [Chief Administrative Officer], you have to attach it to the centre [Ministry]*

In the case of public service, the civil service operates on a traditionally held notion of serving the Permanent Secretary, who as Stanley explained, is the representative of the Ministry with "everything", and thus associated with the "Ministry" [Government]. From the NGO sector, Wycliffe perceived strategies as being "born by the organization, and the supervisor [line manager] is just an implementer." In any case, he adds, "the supervisor" is just "a conduit" through whom things are delivered as a representative of the organization." He expounded, "I think, if you are to assume it is the supervisor, then you will be less likely to stay, because if something is not good, you would assume it is a personal issue against you."

However, organizations do not work on their own, but through line managers and employees. Some issues can be perceived to be from the organization as a whole, while others from the supervisors. Kyle narrated:

> *… for the duty facilitating allowances, those ones are associated with the managers because I have heard some of them say that "ah that one will not even approve a shilling, that one will not even do what…., such kind of thing"*

Similarly, Diana Aldo stressed that "the supervisor is the one, who does the training needs analysis together with the individual, [and] then the organization supports it by allocating the funds." After performance management, Boniface explained, "a line manager or supervisor "may recommend one for promotion" and hence salary increment and or job confirmation.

A supervisor's approach and relationship with the staff matters a lot. Apollo explained his perception of his new manager: "I find him a very charismatic person. He knows how to lead, he encourages you and gives you his experiences, and he keeps you expectant that things will become better tomorrow." Janet reasoned that "…your immediate supervisor actually knows what is better for you and how you can meet the performance standards."

Policies, level of decision-making, a person's managerial style and context of implementation are therefore important. Supervisors and managers work on behalf of organizations to achieve a particular goal, but how top and line managers relate with their staff matters a lot.

9.4 Job demands and job resources

HR retention strategies were also examined in the context of job demands, being stressful and discouraging; and job resources, being supportive towards achieving the set goals. Chapter 8examined job demands (emotional and occupational), and job resources (skill discretion, decision authority and co-worker support), and established that skill discretion and co-worker support are significantly and negatively, while decision authority is negatively, but non-significantly (at the 5% level) correlated with turnover intention. For job demands, emotional job demands are significantly and strongly positive, while occupational job demands are significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention. Considering regression results after inclusion of the variables under review, emotional job demands and decision authority are significant and positive predictors of turnover intention. Occupational job demands and skill discretion are negative but non-significant. Co-worker support is a positive, but a non-significant predictor of turnover intention at 5% level.

Coorelation results for emotional job demands (positive) and skill discretion (negative) turned out in the hypothesized direction (significant and non-significant respectively), while occupational job demands (negative non-significant), decision authority (significant positive), and co-worker support (positive non-significant) are not in the hypothesized direction, and they are in particular explored below.

Several explanations from qualitative data reveal that for ***emotional job demands***, respondents reported experiencing fatigue, burnout and exhaustion, pressure, and psychological torture out of routine work and practices such as performance management, training and supervision. Donese pointed to the staff developing "fear" because of "perceived low performance." High-performance targets, training, and promotional requirements therefore create high demands and work pressure especially in the private and NGO sectors, although the public sector is also embracing performance contracts. As Donese and Stanley agreed, such "pressure" causes one to "leave an organization". Nanyonga argued that this is worsened by the "family demands" comprising of children and dependents in extended families.

Occupational job demands examined the nature of the work in terms of speed and intensity. Limited findings were reported on this aspect as likely justification for the non-significant finding by regression analysis. Respondents indicated laxity in time utilization, low work intensity and limited work urgency. Christol explained:

> *"You would rather go to work late sometimes, you do not feel like going to work or if you are given an assignment that you know you can finish in like two weeks, you end up taking up*

your time and finishing it in like 2 or 3 months. You know, taking your time definitely affects your output because you are demoralized."

Additionally, Julie Hannah reported:

"People don't feel so stressed doing their work because they feel they have the time. That too much deadline thing is not there, so people feel like they have all the peace. They can even afford to go and do something else while [they] are still holding this job because they know they have the time."

Employees therefore do not have pressure to work hard or fast, and hence find it comfortable to continue with the organization regardless of their level of involvement.

In terms of job resources and particularly ***skill discretion***, Drake argued: "yes I enjoy my job, when I come here, what I offer, the job is challenging and it engages me" and as a result, he adds, "I am loyal to the organization." There is appreciation of skill development which Janet believed, "develops them in a particular area of expertise" and makes them "feel satisfied and engaged." Mubesi emphasized the importance of working in an environment that develops people and empowers them to use their skills:

"Nobody puts pressure on you because you are given a course, it's you to determine how to do it, nobody follows you up apart from a few instances where somebody calls you and asks what has gone wrong, but most often we are in charge of what we do."

The above assertion, however, suggests that providing skill discretion still requires considerable monitoring of work because of the likely mistakes employees can make.

Decision authority on the other part calls for a person's willingness to take and accept risks involved in the decisions they take, and to have control over his/her work. Janet emphasized the importance of decision authority thus:

"You will feel involved, you take part in decision making because if you are in a position and you do not take part anywhere in the decision making, you do not feel that ownership of that job. But if you are involved in decision making, you feel the ownership of the job and it will lead to better performance and engagement."

Mildred concured that "people like to contribute to decisions and defining objectives of the organization", while Mubesi expressed preference for being given "a chance to take decisions" as opposed to being given "orders."

However, while Julie Hannah confirmed that employees were "given opportunities to give in their ideas", Onesmus from the private sector explained that "decisions are made by the proprietor(s)", an approach he

said, of course, allows faster decisions, but with the "only prayer that they [decisions] are not bad." Yahaya on his part professed that decisions were mainly "made by the top management … [and] … the governing board", while Janet from the public sector narrated how policies limit their decision authority with most staff knowing they "are not the final people." Christol decried the rigid rules in the public service. Such restrictions to decision authority instead increase decision risks and hence risk averseness.

Lastly, for ***co-worker support***, Julius explained that people work as "colleagues" and "support" one another. Stanley argued that it "depends on the … workmates you have…, if they are friendly then everything will be okay." Sulah explained that individuals develop attachments not only to "the job … [or] what they get from the job, but the attachment they have with the people associated with the job" This, Patience concurs, "contributes to someone staying because of the friendly environment they are in." Julie Hannah expressed her personal experience with her co-workers:

> *"Every other day when I tell them that am going to leave here, they always say 'you are not leaving, you are still here with us.' At times they are like if you dare wake up one day and you are leaving, then we are 'dead'."*

However, while appreciating the importance of staff relations and co-worker support, Wycliffe advanced that under intense relationships and workplace environment, staff will always "wake up every morning hesitating to [go to] work, [but] they will have to because they are supposed to." Work and the working environment ought to be motivating towards goal achievement well aware that stressful conditions affect the overall objectives and thus influence their feelings. As revealed from the above sections, however, employees need assurances and support with trust to realize the intention of their empowerment.

9.5 Psychological contract

Employee expectations from their organizations were significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention. Step 4 of the hierarchical regression does not, however, identify a significant influence of psychological contract (at the 5% level) on turnover intention.

Qualitative data provide expectations such as fair and timely salary, career support, promotion, job security, job rotation, and transfer, orientation, other benefits such as health schemes, savings and credit facilities among others. Patience explained that employees do not only expect work, but "continuity of work", while Sulah called for "aligning work with employee's capabilities and qualifications" as lack of which may hinder performance.

Equitable and competitive salary prominently featured as an expectation. It is not simply about salary as a legal contractual obligation, but the expectation that it will be regularly reviewed to remain competitive, fair and equitable. Yahaya noted that everyone "yearns for more" and hence demands a living wage. Such salary, Patience argued, should also be "paid on time."

Career opportunities and support is also important. As Fredoe affirmed, employees expect to grow in service. Justine expressed her expectation that "management will be supportive of my personal career goals as an individual so that I can grow and develop in the organization." Employees expect career information, and as Sulah put it, "opportunities for career path" arguing that "nobody wants to stay in the same position year after year."

Similarly, promotions and promotional opportunities are highly expected to support people's career aspirations. Julie Hannah expressed that "I expect to be promoted at one time when I have qualified especially after going back to school." Expressing her turnover intention, Patience avered that "my leaving is just in the promotion part, [but] if I am promoted then I will not be leaving here." However, Sulah found it hard to promote everyone, but instead called for opportunities for job rotation and transfer.

Job rotation and transfer are expected to break the monotony of performing the same tasks in the same place over time. Boniface expressed the desire to "move when there is a rotation" in order to perform "other duties" within or outside the country. This is hoped to provide additional exposure, experience and skills development to prepare a staff for more challenges.

Training and development opportunities are expected to be provided with fairness to "all staffs", argued Christol. Katongole expectd "knowledge acquisition that would include getting higher qualifications [and] financing academics for conferences", while Nanyonga expected "guidance and counselling." Employees expect in this way to gain knowledge, skills and abilities to enable them perform better and continue working for a particular organization.

Orientation or induction of new employees to enable them settle in their jobs and perform better is another expectation. Arnold submited: "I also expect that as a new employee, I should be taken through orientation and induction so that I am well conversant with organizational operations." Such induction creates awareness about the policies and procedures, people around the organization, and the entire working environment, which become bases for adjustment and settling in an organization.

Job security is highly expected by employees from their organizations. Julius noted that "staffs are very much concerned about job security as they always look at how they are going to survive in the next few

years." He explained that "the project staff" feel unsecure compared to "the permanent staff" or those working on "three years' contract" that is renewable. Fredoe as a civil servant felt more comfortable and only pities the situation in the private sector: "… in the private sector, the man is moving with the laptop … You just decide from there; you say this one should be fired." Employees expect relative job security that gives them assurance for their stay.

Working tools and a conducive working environment are generally expected. Arnold argued that he "expected that the organization should be able to provide [him] with the tools to work". Onesmus listed such tools as the computer, calculator and all office equipment for him to do the work well. Wycliffe on his part did not expect to "start struggling to find where to sit", while Diana Aldo expected an office space that improves on the working environment, considered by Boniface as "basic necessities" for work, which include office space, furniture, stationery and security; with Fredoe considering respectful managers.

Employee empowerment by consulting and involving staff in decision making, communicating with them and providing feedback on performance and policy issues is generally expected. Diana Aldo argued that it is likely to create a sense of "ownership" and "engage" employees. She advanced the importance of communication of relevant laws, and policies, while Wycliffe considered clear terms and reporting relationships. Communication and feedback, Nanyonga and Yahaya agreed, should be timely if they are to have meaningful influence.

Fairness in all HR decisions was expected by employees from their employers. Such fairness was expected in hiring, pay determination and administration, supervision and performance management, and general treatment and discipline of employees. Julie Hanna noted: "I expect fairness, someone not to be biased when I have done something". Sulah confirmed that employees generally "expect fair treatment between themselves and their colleagues…" These, Julie Hannah observed, should be buttressed in labour laws and policies. On overall, the employees perceive meaningful support although it is hard to meet all expectations.

9.6 Employee engagement

Principal Component Analysis revealed employee engagement as a two-dimensional construct (moral and emotional commitment) whose components were both negatively and significantly correlated with turnover intention at 5% level of significance. Findings of hierarchical regression introducing engagement to the model revealed that emotional engagement is significantly negative, while no significant relationship is identified for occupational engagement (5% level of significance).

From interviews, several views emerged on emotional and occupational engagement, relative to the original three factors of dedication, vigour and absorption. Emotional engagement is characterized by feelings employees develop about work as opposed to actual personal work experiences that form occupational engagement. It is characterized by enthusiasm and energy as well as the desire and the drive one has to keep working. Occupational engagement, on the other hand, is comprised of the actual involvement in the work, and the experiences of such work challenges and demands amidst which one continues working.

Emotionally, respondents indicated being enthusiastic or passionate about their work, they had the energy or vigour, and they felt proud of their work. Mubesi expressed thus:

> *"… as far as what I am doing is concerned, I am very enthusiastic about what I do and I feel motivated to stay in the job because I feel encouraged by the job that I am doing. Every other time, I want to come here and do something. I feel I am in the thing. I should be here."*

The motivation one develops as Julius argued; drives such a person to "love work and perform with passion and satisfaction." Sulah explained that such a person believes that his job is "in line with" his/her "skills and competencies" that give him the "vigour". Such vigour, Wycliffe narrated, gives one the "energy to come every day to work".

Training and skill development, alignment of the job with individual competencies, challenging work and skill discretion; competitive and timely pay, job security, performance management, leadership or supervisor support, collegial relationships, job rotation and other benefits such as welfare and health schemes, are given to explain the above. For example, Diana Aldo argued:

> *"Definitely I will be more engaged if I am working in a good environment. I will be more engaged if I feel my work is equal to the income that I get…, or I will be more engaged even if I am getting less, [but] there are other benefits surrounding it, or I am able to go and study, however little am getting."*

It is implied that the same factors discussed as HR retention strategies are also linked with engagement, which further influences turnover intention as Patience explains:

> *"The starting point should be engagement. If employees are fully engaged, they like what they are doing, they see that they are progressing, and they are happy with the benefits, then they are engaged, [and] so they will stay."*

However, it is not a general rule that provision of the relevant factors enlists emotional engagement. Arnold asserted that "there is doing a job when you are not happy, but you have to do it" because you are simply "supposed to". In addition, he argued that employees are likely to be "motivated to work" in the

beginning because they are "new", but as they "stay in an organization for a long time, of course interests change." Similarly, Sulah revealed that "people are doing jobs for which they are never qualified, and for which they have no passion to do", but simply for survival.

Occupational engagement, on the other hand, deals with the intensity and time demands of work i.e., how one is deeply involved and occupied by work. In this respect, Ntambi observed: "… I have to keep the time, and when I come to office, I have to ensure that the daily activities are handled and I also ensure that I leave after the normal working time." In addition, Patience explained in respect of her staff:

> *"We have so many staff here, teaching and nonteaching, that go the extra mile in their contribution in this institution. Somebody does things that may be above what they are meant to, really because of the love for the job."*

Similarly, Arnold talked about people who "give in more to serve the organization" as they reach offices at 8.00am and leave at 7.00pm. Julius on his part revealed that "some people even come over the weekend not because [they] have told them to [do so], but they feel motivated to accomplish their targets." Drawing from her personal experience and commitment, Donese stated:

> *"Knowing what it entails, I do what it takes. I am supposed to be arriving at 8.00am, but I always arrive at 6.30 to know who arrived when. If I arrive late, I will not know about others. I work till late and have never dodged for any day."*

It is evident that such high level of engagement arises out of the nature of work, and it reduces turnover intention. Mildred argued that "when you are busy and you are paid well, you have little time to meander around." Therefore, occupational engagement is also linked to the same factors as emotional engagement, but for industrial reasons (nature of work).

However, Apollo explained that people at times tend to have the "I don't care attitude" whereby they simply come to the office and keep around for hours or simply move around office, but without producing output. Similarly, Katongole talked about strategic engagement where some staff get absorbed in early stages as they pursue a particular target, say an appointment to fulltime service or position of responsibility after which they lose such engagement. This can explain the non-significant negative results of regression analysis.

9.7 Job satisfaction

Results of this study reveal Job satisfaction as significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention, and as a significant negative predictor of turnover intention, when added to the model. The

findings confirm the importance of job satisfaction in relation to turnover intention, and thus interviews provide further insights.

The HR retention strategies are revealed as affecting job satisfaction, commitment and turnover intention. Justine posited that: "Some of the factors that usually lead to employee retention are the very factors that cause job satisfaction, make one … committed … and at peace in the organization." However, the level of satisfaction varies from person to person, and their perception of the relevant factors. For example, in as much as pay is important, both Mubesi and Apollo (from different organizations within the public sector) did not appreciate it for job satisfaction, but they positively considered recognition, respect, job security, career, and skill discretion. Indeed, Mubesi noted that he was "satisfied" with his "job" although he continued "demanding for salary improvement."

At the overall level, job satisfaction was appreciated in influencing commitment to an organization and turnover intention. Drake explained:

> *"... in one way or the other, if you have job satisfaction, it is the very reason that will lead you to getting commitment to the organization... You feel like [you] want to be part of the organization because of the satisfaction you have on the job, because if there was no satisfaction, you would feel like you don't want to be associated with the organization, you don't want to be committed and in any case, you would want to leave."*

To Julius, someone being "kept for 20 years" is proof of his/her job satisfaction. However, Boniface explained that satisfaction was hard to achieve: "For a normal human being, you can't fully be satisfied unless you have reached the peak of thinking. To Christol, "you can never satisfy every human being at 100 percent, … [and] … nobody can stay happy all the time", but they keep in the job because "basic things" are available. As Arnold explained, "there is doing a job when you are not happy, but you have to do it … [because] … they are supposed to". In most situations, some aspects are lacking, for example, Christol cites the absence of adequate working tools, low salary, and no medical allowance, as affecting her job satisfaction. The few who stay in the circumstances as Katongole reasons, only "continue to gamble" without satisfaction.

9.8 Organizational commitment

The three components of organizational commitment (moral, emotional and continuance commitment) are significantly and strongly negatively correlated with turnover intention. While examining their prediction of turnover intention, the addition of the three components at step/ block 8 of the hierarchical model

revealed that moral and emotional commitment are significantly negative predictors of turnover intention (at 5% level of significance). Continuance commitment is not a significant predictor.

Wide-ranging in-depth explanations account for organizational commitment in context. *Moral commitment* is built around some form of personal feeling of obligation that make one loyal to and be part of an organization. It is morally compelling to continue working for the organization because of the value systems that create loyalty, happiness and personal meaning. Such a person feels he ought to continue working for such an organization. Boniface demonstrated his experience thus:

> *"I for one, I feel I have some innovation that I have brought on board and we are trying to draw some programs with the regional referrals, and since the ministry has been supportive, and ... we are training in human resource information systems, I will be like cheating government if I am not in the roll out team."*

Such moral obligations also arise out of organizational systems, values and processes that people get involved with, and create relationships that bond and keep them together. Drake for example, mentioned existence of "terms and conditions" that oblige people to continue in a working relationship until they "have got a way out." As Fredoe explained, these could be "regulations governing the service", which in a way "tie" one down.

Examples of the above could include benefiting from a career support programme such as a training scholarship whereby an employee is bonded or simply feels it morally proper to appreciate or pay back by continuing with such an organization. Julie Hannah expounded:

> *".... at times some organizations get opportunities like scholarships, short trainings, refresher courses; so someone at times feels obliged to stay and work for the organization because it develops him or her in a particular way."*

Confirming his organization "bonds" staff for "three years" after training, Ntambi also expressed the moral feeling one can develop:

> *"When you have been sponsored by an organization [...] to go for training, you feel so motivated when you come back, committed to work for the organization that has given you the chance and the opportunity to acquire more knowledge."*

However, quite often in a developing country context with extended families as Wycliffe argued, feelings of moral obligations may also come from outside the organization:

> *"Somebody may stay on the job not because they want to, but because they have to. We talked about the social economic issues. You have a large family to take care of, you do not*

have an option of not staying on a job where you are unhappy, you have to stay because you have no option, you cannot do otherwise."

Emotional commitment on the hand deals with attachment and a sense of belonging that makes a person feel as part of the organization as a family. It is an affective or emotional feeling where people get committed because *they feel they want to*. Emotional commitment is therefore characterized by attachment, belonging, and feeling as part of the family.

Explaining attachment, Donese argued that she is "attached to [the] organization", although she has chances and is "qualified to work anywhere in Uganda." although qualification is not a guarantee for competitive employment (Hurrel et al. 2011), her experience with the same organization for over 10 years in a managerial position gives credibility to her assertion. Additionally, Edinance explains:

[I] have worked with [name of organization] and had my satisfaction here, we have seen progress in the clients. We have people who came here and didn't have hope, but now they have. I have worked with […] and seen that people and clients and beneficiaries have moved on. So there is also that satisfaction that I want to identify with […] and what they stand for.

Emotionally committed employees also develop a sense of belonging. Edinance noted that job satisfaction and engagement result in employees who are committed because they feel "they want to belong to the organization." Such commitment mainly arises when employees are treated well and feel valued.

Lastly, ***continuance commitment*** focuses on the investments and benefits one stands to gain as compared to the costs associated with leaving an organization. Such benefits and costs can be social, financial or psychological. Christol for example reflected on staffs that generally travel for trainings abroad as always being invested in and facilitated with allowances, and hence leaving means losing such investments and benefits. To some, it could be investment in a particular career or education as Julie Hannah explained about her invested time in academics for three years. Katongole revealed he was enrolled on a PhD programme and hence could not afford to leave. Pensions are another key example in the public service as Drake explained:

"You cannot qualify for early retirement unless you have worked for 20 continuous years and you are 45 years of age; and that automatically keeps one in the service for 20 years... So that alone makes you say you have invested your life in the public service, so you cannot just go and lose the years of work, and so it ties you around."

Fredoe concured that:

> *"For somebody who has been in public service for long, he will value the time he invested, and does not see why he should leave because that one is of course linked to the terminal benefits at the end of the day. Me I have already invested here, how can I leave?"*

There is a general consensus that commitment is linked to employee engagement, job satisfaction and intention to leave. As Edinance avered, engagement, satisfaction and commitment are "all connected". Drake explained the connection between commitment and intention to leave, arguing that "immediately somebody loses commitment to the organization, then he is moving towards … existing."

However, Julius postulated incongruence between organizational and personal objectives and work targets. He viewed this among "target workers" who will always "want to move on once the target is met". Similarly, commitment should be perceived beyond just staying with an organization. Yahaya argued that "commitment is not the number of years" one stays with the organization, "but the output". Christol noted:

> *"I wake up in the morning, I have to come, it is useless to come and sit. I do my work diligently, but for commitment, I am not committed to my job, and tomorrow if I get a better opportunity, I will definitely leave without thinking twice."*

As organizations focus on moral, emotional and continuance commitment, the availability of alternative competitive opportunities should be considered alongside other factors such as age, gender, education in explaining commitment. Arnold revealed that "having many Ugandans without jobs" is "the reason local governments retain staff."

9.9 Turnover intention

Existing findings reveal prevalence of intention to leave across all the three sectors under consideration (the public, the private and the NGOs). Apollo decried the practice of local governments being used as "the stepping stone" for people to "join government service and later move elsewhere." This is, however, besides the application of uniform terms of service including permanency in employment for job security across both local and central government services.

To the contrary, Boniface from a central government ministry expressed that if he was to leave, it was "not about better pay", but to "share with others elsewhere the knowledge and skills" he had gained from the ministry. Such experiences instead strengthen a person as opposed to where they are not.

On the other hand, Edinance reported "apprehensiveness or anxiety" in the NGO sector following an "end of a grant period". In most cases, employees are given notices or are generally aware of the end of the

funding period and automatically start looking elsewhere. This again, is not the case in the public service where salaries are paid out of the consolidated fund.

Largely, factors indicated for intention to leave include lack of better opportunities, unfriendly policies, low pay, poor working environment, and performing uninteresting tasks that are routine, among others. As some respondents reported being engagemd, satisfied and committed, some pointed to the contrary, hence influencing turnover intention. Donese noted that:

> *Some staff cannot survive on one salary however much you pay them. They are given time to work elsewhere. In as much as we are trying to stop it, it has helped us to retain them by allowing them work here and elsewhere.*

The above assertion is first, proof of the limited level of commitment, and secondly, building on Drake's argument that "immediately somebody loses commitment to the organization, he is moving towards … exiting", this confirms a situation of turnover intention, with one simply keeping around as he or she awaits a better opening. Katongole in explaining the situation of turnover intention at his organization, described employees as being in the "departure lounge" only awaiting an opportunity for "take off", meaning one stays while not engaged and committed.

Sulah accounted"

> *"The attrition rates are high, but people stay on the job with less satisfaction [and] with less organizational commitment. In other words, these are odd people … retained on the job not on the basis of job satisfaction, not on the basis of organizational commitment, but because that is what exists, there is no opportunity. The moment they land on the next opportunity, then they will leave."*

For meaningful retention, organizations should focus on achieving engagement, satisfaction and commitment by implementing strategies that are perceived as supportive and motivational. These are central in addressing people's desires to leave, as Mubesi demonstrated: "I am not willing to leave because of [the] enabling environment. I am satisfied, therefore I am committed, [and] this will of course deter my desire to leave…"

9.10 Uganda's context

There are factors specific to Uganda, and probably other developing economies, different from the developed world, that explain variation in turnover intention. Economy, sector, age, gender, education qualifications are examined.

9.10.1 The economy and the sector

Developed and developing economies are reported to vary on work systems and adherence. Developing economies manifest poor work systems with limited adherence where they exist as compared to developed economies. For example, Uganda lacks the legislation on minimum wage, let alone living wage that pertains in developed economies such as Britain. Secondly, different levels of development mean different capabilities of institutions and enforcement of strategies such as pay reforms and a competitive pay structure. Drake d this point that "comparing the social economic factors, somebody in the developing world is likely to suffer, is likely not to meet his basic needs because of the nature of remuneration as opposed to those in the developed world."

There is noted variation in policies, programmes and strategies across the three sectors, and this affects retention efforts variably. While the private sector organizations are reported as not having salary systems with regular reviews, Julie Hannah demonstrated the existence of such systems in NGOs:

> *"I think our pay is not the worst, and we take initiative to do salary surveys every year. Salary survey helps to compare our pay with other NGOS and somehow where necessary, we adjust our salary to fit where market conditions dictate."*

In the public and private sectors where she has worked, Christol reported that "working tools [exist] in the private sector." Considering the variation in terms of appointment to the service of each of the sectors, Arnold argued that "employees tend to stay longer" in the public sector because of "permanent and pensionable terms", while those in NGOs, like in the private sector, tend to move a lot.

9.10.2 The individual factors

These included the culture, the family, the level of education, age, and gender. The socio-cultural aspects also differ. In most African countries such as Uganda, the African way of life is different from that in the developed world. Africans value their social heritage and collective way of life as opposed to a more individualistic life in the developed world. Many Africans up to today hold to their big families and beliefs, which is not the case in the developed economies. For example, Ntambi explained:

> *"Upon losing someone here, there are people who spend months still mourning. Every time a staff loses someone, you know their productivity is so low at work which you can't do in the UK or France."*

Similarly, the family in terms of marital status, the number of children, and dependents vary from person to person and with context, and they do influence work decisions. Donese for example revealed that: "Some nurses have left because they feel not giving enough time to the family. Their husbands protest

and they leave. Some feel the money is not enough." In addition to this, Mildred explained it from the perspective of a big family that the job may not sustain: "You find most of the people that are employed cannot keep in certain places for a long time because their demands are too many and with a given job they have, they cannot satisfy their families." Julie Hannah on her part explained:

> *"you find that someone has a job and that [he/she] is not really getting a lot out of it. .... You find that he has so many dependants and can't afford to walk away from the job. He has to keep on working no matter what because of the number of children he has at home."*

In the above regard, the family remains important in influemcing employee deicions regarding either leaving or continuing in employment. The factors may vary as the family's demands may be beyond what the job offers, or the the job could be the source of livelihood for the family. The above scenarios mainly demonstrate that families highly rely on the jobs and hence, employees are likely to continue working or look for better opportunities in order to support their families.

The level of education qualification plays a considerable role in explaining variation in satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intention. Sulah argued that "not only is commitment as a result of being sponsored *(moral commitment)*, but also alignment of job qualifications and competencies". People with higher qualifications and skills are likely to change jobs quite often because of their competitiveness as compared to their counterparts with low qualifications.

Arnold affirmed that age has a big influence on retention, with "young people" getting jobs when just fresh out of campus tending to be "jumpy". Janet explained that the young are always "on the move from one job to another", ever searching for better opportunities. It is perceived and argued that people of advanced age could "have settled in an organization" as there is "nothing much they are looking for", but they simply want to consolidate their achievements, or thinking of how to retire and therefore not disturbed by moving from one organization to another.

Females are reported to be more stable on their jobs than males. Males are perceived to really move from one place to another. Jane reasoned that females tend to stay more than the males because "men are like the young aged". She argues that men are always inquisitive and on the lookout, basically explained by the gendered responsibilities of breadwinning. This is quite different from the West where there are less gender-based responsibilities.

9.11 Conclusion

Individual retention strategies (e.g. hiring practices, pay, career, performance management, job security) can be categorized as job-entry and on-job-retention strategies. It was argued that the different strategies and factors operate in tandem to explain turnover intention by first, influencing attitudinal aspects of the employee, for example, employee perceptions, engagement, satisfaction, and then commitment. Employees' willingness to stay with particular organizations despite the demanding nature of work, and the effect of top management's veto of employee decisions, suggest the need for contextual interpretation of the different factors. Limited consideration of costs associated with leaving an organization, for example, loss of friendships and pensions, on the basis that such benefits can be got in a new workplace, challenges the relevancy of continuance commitment, which was established to be a non-significant predictor of turnover intentions. The national context, organizational and individual factors, are d in shaping explanations of turnover intention as factors such as the economy, culture, family size and gendered responsibilities, education qualifications and occupation among others, are expected to vary across countries, organizations, and individuals. As will be discussed in the following chapter, the findings partly support existing knowledge and literature, but also make new contributions to the study of turnover intention and retention.

10 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

10.1 Introduction:

This chapter discusses the findings of the current study of employee retention strategies, organizational commitment and turnover intentions in Uganda by articulating its contribution to knowledge, theory and practice. While being aware that our study develops and partly tests a theoretical model, the chapter draws from existing knowledge of what constitutes an academic and theoretical contribution (Feldman 2004; Sutton and Staw 1995; Whetten 1989). In line with Whitten's (1989) emphasis of *what, how, why and; who, where and when* of the theoretical contribution, the chapter focuses on: the components and the resultant factors or variables (e.g. job entry and on-the-job HR retention strategies) of the model (section 10.2); the relationships and influence of the factors on turnover intention (section 10.3) and; the application of the model in Uganda (section 10.4). The chapter further considers the varying organizational and individual factors (section 10.5) that help explain variations in the relationships and effects of the different factors on turnover intention. Lastly, the conclusion (section 10.6) gives key contributions in respect of the main areas of focus (the components, relationships and applicability).

10.2 The main components and factors of the model

This section addresses research question 1 and partly research question 2, on components of the model and factors that explain turnover intention respectively. It is cognizant of the competing values of parsimony and comprehensiveness that support a good theory (Whetten 1989) by not having too many (for example 50) or too few (2-3) variables (Feldman 2004; Sutton and Staw 1995). The research model integrates a wide range of influential components that include human resource retention strategies, employee perception of retention strategies, job demands, job resources, the psychological contract, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, to explain turnover intention, which is an immediate predictor of actual turnover. These components were identified and discussed in the systematic literature and model review chapters, and later linked together with assumed relationships to develop a theoretical model of employee retention (figure 4.1).

The refined theoretical model (figure 10.1) below provides a better understanding of retention in Uganda, and generally when it is adapted to context. This final model of employee retention is based on the factors revealed by principal component analysis (chapter 7). For example, while the theoretical model in chapter 4 provides general HR retention strategies based on different individual items and components, the resultant refined model reflects job-entry and on-the-job HR retention strategies as some of the factors.

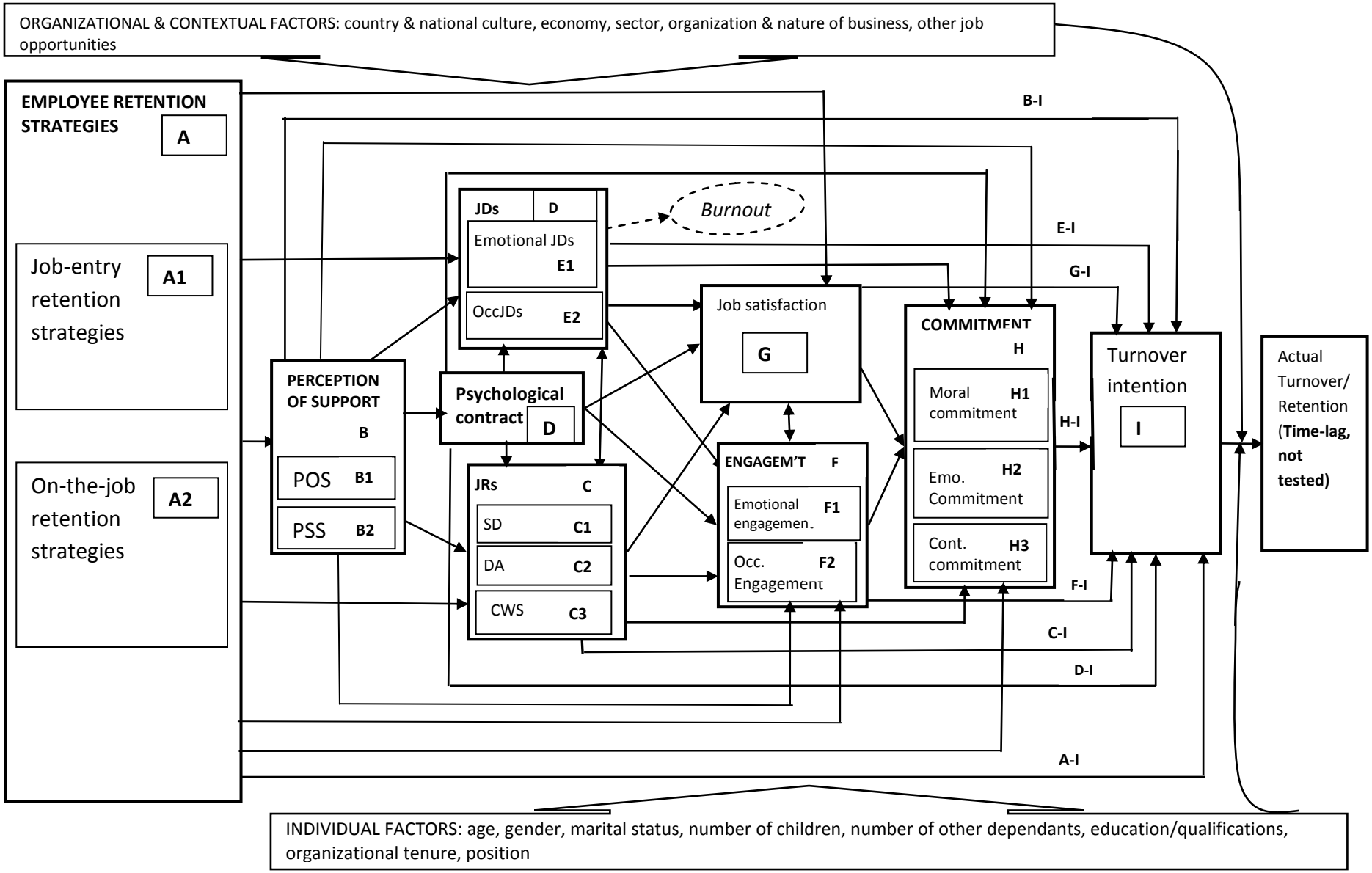

Figure 10.1 The final model of employee retention

Additionally, the representational tested predictor and outcome variables confirm most of our hypotheses. For ease of reference and in relation to sections 8.4 and 8.5 on correlations and regression, table 10.1 below summarises the hypothesized relationships with their coefficients. They are particularly for the representational study relationships A-I to H-I (also see the hypotheses and the equation model under section 6.5). The section following the table discusses the variables.

Table 10.1 summary of correlation and regression coefficients

Links	**Correlation hypotheses**	**Variables**	**Correlation Coefficients**	**Regression hypotheses**	**Regression coefficients** (Controlling first, for individual and organization factors, and then, the preceding group of variable)
A-I	H1[1]	On-the-job strategies	r = -.34, p < .01	H4[2]	b = -0.39, ß = -.29, p = .00
	H1[2]	Job-entry strategies	r = -.27, p < .01	H4[1]	b = .16, ß = -.13, p = .06
B-I	H1[3]	Organizational support	r = -.39, p < .01	H5[1]	b = -0.27, ß = -.26, p =.00
	H1[4]	Supervisor support	r = -.32, p < .01	H5[2]	b = -0.15, ß = -.13, p = .05
C-I	H1[5]	Skill discretion	r = -.26, p < .01	H6[1a]	b = -0.14, ß = -.09, p = .21
	H1[6]	Decision authority	r = -.10, p > .05	H6[1b]	b = 0.18, ß = .16, p = .02
	H1[7]	Co-worker support	r = -.20, p < .01	H6[1c]	b = 0.08, ß = .05, p = .45
D-I	H1[8]	Employee Expectations	r = -.17, p < .01	H6[2]	b = -0.07, ß = -.06, p = .34
F-I	H1[9]	Emotional engagement	r = -.44, p < .01	H7[1]	b = -0.22, ß = -.17, p = .04
	H1[10]	Occupational engagement	r = -.25, p < .01	H7[1]	b = -0.09, ß = -.07, p = .32
G-I	H1[11]	Job satisfaction	r = -.47, p < .01	H8	b = -.30, ß = -.26, p = .00
H-I	H1[12]	Moral commitment	r = -.54, p <.01	H9[1]	b = -0.28, ß = -.23, p = .00
	H1[13]	Emotional commitment	r = -.49, p < .01	H9[2]	b = -0.36, ß = -.35, p = .00
	H1[14]	Continuance commitment	r = -.31, p < .01	H9[3]	b = -0.11, ß = -.10, p = .13
E-I	H2[1]	Emotional job demands	r = .31, p < .01	H6[3a]	b = 0.24, ß = .20, p = 00
	H2[2]	Occupational job demands	r = -.11, p < .05	H6[3b]	b = -0.09, ß = -.07, p = .27
H3 Overall Model					**Total ΔR^2 = .52, p < .01.**

10.2.1 Human resource retention (HR) strategies

HR retention strategies are revealed as a two-factor component comprising of *job-entry- HR strategies* (α = .75) and *on-the-job HR strategies* (α = .86). The findings provide a generally comprehensive, systematic and logical grouping of retention strategies, different from previous studies that have considered only a few item-variables such as hiring practices, pay, career development, training and performance appraisal (Kuvaas et al. 2014; Back et al. 2011; Kuvaas 2008; Luna-Arocas and Camps 2008). Additionally, the finding of HR retention strategies as a two-factor component (job-entry and on-the-job HR strategies) has not, as far as we are aware, been identified in the literature, and the two factors are found to be highly reliable.

Job-entry-strategies, including selective hiring strategies and orientation, help in assessing the candidate's suitability, as well as supporting a new employee to settle in the job and organization in line with the value systems, policies and practices (DeCenzo and Robbins 2003). However, different organizations differently manage the process of employee entry to the jobs. While some undergo a rigorous and meticulous process, others value personal contacts and relationships, and hence, the outcomes with regard to retention vary (see section 9.2.1). Recruitment and selection are also affected across all sectors by on-the-job HR practices such as pay, career, and job security, quite different from Scotland's case where the public and the private sectors have a better rating than the NGOs (Nickson et al. 2008).

On the other hand, on-the-job HR strategies not only involve and win the loyalty of an employee, but also create some obligations and benefits with an organization. Specific strategies such as competitive pay, training, job security, career development and support, work environment, employee empowerment, among others, are individually correlated with turnover intention (Back et al. 2011). The developed factors therefore address the challenge of studying several on-the-job retention strategies differently when such strategies work in tandem. However, organizatios should be cautious in the design and implementation of such strategies for their benefit or else, some strategis such as provision of higher qualifications are evidently positively associated with turnover intention. This concern fits well with McQuaid and Lindsay's (2005) argument that skills are no guarantee of job security, but a source of attraction to other organizations.

While focusing on employee retention, organizations ought to rethink their strategies right away from job entry through the entire employment. Most importantly, such factors should be conceived and implemented as retention strategies and not solely as general HR practices.

10.2.2 Employee perception of retention strategies

Employee perceptions of HR retention strategies for example, supportive or not, from the organization or the supervisor/manager, and how such perceptions influence employees to make their viewpoints; specifically address individual value attachment to respective strategies. This is different from examining perception in respect of general workplace practices and the working environment, for example, partnership with HR and the quality of training (Kuvaas et al. 2014); and supervisor administered HR practices and supervisor related procedural justice (Armstrong-Stassen and Schlosser 2010).

Consistent with some studies (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005; Eisenberger et al. 2002; Eisenberger et al. 1986), this study confirms employee perceptions as comprising of two factors: *perceived organizational support (POS)* (α = .83), and *perceived supervisor support (PSS)* (α = .84). The finding confirms internal consistency of the scales, and provides an understanding of perception in a little examined context of Uganda in comparison to similar studies in the developed world (Eisenberger et al. 2002).

POS is here interpreted as the understanding and attachment of the available HR retention strategies to the organization, while PSS means employees attach such strategies to the supervisor/line manager. This study therefore extends knowledge of employee perceptions as a two-factor component, to another context where the subject is little examined. Similarly, assessing perception of HR retention strategies provides an understanding of employees' appraisal of retention strategies. This is important since a few studies focusing on retention strategies, albeit individual items (Allen et al. 2003; Back et al. 2011), either do not consider perceptions or if they do so, they do not examine their constructs or existent factors.

10.2.3 Job demands

Job demands are those aspects of the job that are perceived as creating pressure and being stressful to an employee in his/her job performance, hence affecting goal achievement. Having adapted psychological and emotional job demands (Karasek et al. 2007; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004; Kawakami and Fujigaki 1996; Maslach and Jackson 1981), this study instead reveals *emotional* and *occupational/workload* job demands. While being different from the originally adopted scales, this finding is quite similar to the classification by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) and Rattrie and Kittler (2014), where they examine job demands as quantitative (i.e. workload) and qualitative (i.e. emotional). Since the scales were adapted from studies conducted in different contexts from that of the current study, we argue that variations in meaning and approaches to work that are embedded in value systems shape individual and work experiences.

It is observed that Maslach and Jackson's (1981) emotional exhaustion, Karasek et al's (2007) psychological demands and Karasek et al's (1998) physical demands appear to overlap. For example, working with *much physical effort* and *rapid physical activity* can equally mean *working hard* and *working fast* respectively. The categorization of items in this study (emotional and occupational/workload demands) provides a clearer line which avoids such perceived overlap, while not deviating from the meaning of different forms of job demands.

Unlike Kawakami and Fujigaki's (1996) complex mathematical computation to determine the variable scores, this study adopts a straight forward approach of scoring the considered items on a Likert-type scale and eventually analysing for the factors using factor loadings (Field 2013). This provides uniformity and consistency in approach in comparison to other study variables. The reliability values by Cronbach's alpha of .87 and .77 for emotional and workload demands respectively, are good, with all item loadings above .62, exceeding the threshold cut-off point of .40 (Field 2013).

Emotional demands which include feelings of emotional exhaustion, fatigue and frustration with seemingly conflicting demands and little time to get work done, provide someone's state of the mind in the job, and feelings about work, which play a critical role in influencing a person's perceptions of the job and the organization. *Occupational*/*workload* job demands, on the other hand, include the nature of the job in terms of requiring one to work very fast and hard. This creates the actual work environment that is strenuous to a person. This categorization addresses the observed overlap with regard to working hard and working fast, that has previously featured across emotional, psychological and physical demands.

10.2.4 Job resources

Job resources are the physical, social, psychological or organizational aspects of the job that tackle job demands, and support work-goal achievement, personal growth and development (Rattrie and Kittler 2014; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004). They are perceived job aspects that address job stress and work pressure by creating motivation for goal achievement and personal development. They are conceived to be helpful in the interpretation of employee experiences with the different HR retention strategies. Just as retention strategies can create emotional and workload demands on the employee, they can, on the other hand, result in motivation for goal achievement and personal development (job resources).

Results of principal component analysis confirm that job resources comprise of *skill discretion, decision authority, and co-worker support*, (Karasek et al. 2007; Kawakami and Fujigaki 1996; Li et al. 2004; Taris et al. 2001). However, this study extends knowledge and application of skill discretion, decision

authority and co-worker support as factors of job resources, to Uganda as a developing country context, in the same way other studies have revealed in their relevant contexts. The Cronbach's reliability alpha values (skill discretion, α = .80, decision authority, α = .83 and co-worker support, α = 87) show internal consistency of the scales.

Skill discretion as capabilities and competencies for one to take on a variety of job tasks enables one to enjoy the work and avoid routine that comes with repetitive work. it is the degree to which the job provides a variety of tasks, less repetitive work, creativity and opportunity for one to learn new things and further develop his/her abilities. The degree to which one gains skill discretion is, however, dependent on the nature of the job itself. Some jobs are by design repetitive with limited variety of tasks, creativity and learning opportunities.

Decision authority is the ability of the employee to make decisions about one's own job and influence one's own work team and work processes. It provides decision freedom and control over work, its methods, and hence is important in explaining employee motivation and addressing job stressors. However, first, it comes with associated decision risks, and hence it is likely to be avoided by risk adverse people (Jiang et al. 2012). Secondly, those with decision authority are likely to develop a degree of freedom and influence, which can prompt them to seek greater challenges elsewhere. In line with Jones et al. (1997), managers need to train employees to make good decisions that they can approve.

Co-worker support, on the other hand, is the degree to which the fellow workers are friendly and helpful with particular interest in another person's work. This creates a sense of comradeship or partnership in work, which in itself is hoped to be interesting to employees and guide them in work goal achievement. Co-worker support, however, requires diverse skills and competences that may not be possessed by the colleagues. Additionally, developing a friendly work environment is challenging as some co-workers harbour intrigue against others.

Job resources provide a good frame of analysis of HR retention strategies, in view of how motivational they are towards goal achievement and personal development. Skill discretion, decision authority and co-worker support are, first, confirmed factors of job resources. Secondly, although decision authority is regarded as motivational (Hu and Schaufeli 2011; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004), it requires full trust in employees' decisions and control of the job in an empowering work environment, rather than veto their decisions, which makes them fear associated risks.

10.2.5 Psychological contract

The psychological contract is examined in form of employee expectations and organizational fulfilment. The social exchange theory assesses the supportive nature (organizational and supervisor support) of HR strategies and practices, and also examines employee expectations of the employer and the perception of organizational fulfilment of her obligations through implementation of different strategies. The psychological contract is justified within the social exchange theory as employees and employers develop an exchange relationship with each party reciprocating the other's contribution (Hamilton and von Treuer 2012; Chi and Chen 2007; Rousseau and Tijoriwala 1998). However, a set of expectations and obligations, and the extent to which they are fulfilled, depends on the national and organizational context, as well as individual factors. Cultural and personal differences in terms of value systems define an individual's expectations, perception of fulfilment and the response (McIntosh et al. 2015).

While some studies measure psychological contract fulfilment by subtracting the degree to which each item is provided in practice from the degree to which it was perceived to be an obligation (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler 2000; Coyle-Shapiro and Parzefall 2008), others have focused on perceived fulfilment alone, but little attention has been paid to the separate influence of employee expectations from that of perceived fulfilment or breach. This study provides a scale with a generally comprehensive list of items of *employee expectations* and *employee perception of fulfilment* with Cronbach's reliability alpha of .93 and .94 respectively. This means that *employee expectations* can be studied on their own, but also in comparison to *organizational fulfilment/breach*. *Employee expectations* and *perceived fulfilment of expectations* by the employer are both good measures of employee perception of HR retention strategies (as factors and not individual HR issues).

10.2.6 Employee engagement

HR retention strategies are envisaged to be associated with employee engagement. Different from literature defining it as a three component construct focusing on 'a positive work fulfilling, and work-related state of mind that is characterized by *vigour, dedication* and *absorption'* (Schaufeli et al. 2002 p.74; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004 p.295), this study instead reports it as a two-dimensional construct of *emotional* and *occupational engagement* (with Cronbach's reliability alphas of .91 and .67 respectively). The way engagement is perceived and understood in the context of Uganda, seems to somewhat differ from the understanding in the western context.

Emotional engagement on one hand is characterized by feelings employees develop about work. It concerns the enthusiasm and energy as well as the desire and drive one has to keep working. Key aspects

of emotional engagement include feeling strong and vigorous, energetic, inspired, enthusiastic and proud of the work one does. On the other hand, *occupational engagement* is about actual personal work experiences. It is comprised of the actual involvement in the work and experiences of such work challenges and demands amidst which one continues working. For example, it involves one's experiences of being immersed in the work, carried away while working, and fully occupied by the work.

As this finding differs from the conceptualization including affective, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004), it also differs from one by Alfes et al. (2013; 2010) regarding it as intellectual, affective, and social engagement, that is, a state by which someone 'thinks hard about their work, feels positive when they do a good job and discusses job related matters and improvements with those around them.' *Emotional* and *occupational engagement* seem to be supported by Truss et al. (2013) considering engagement as a process by which employees are genuinely physically and mentally involved, with cognitive awareness and emotional connections. Further, Bakker and Demerouti (2008p.3) confirm that some studies (e.g., Sonnentag 2003) "failed to find the three-factor structure of work engagement." They acknowledge limitations arising out of translation, and perhaps interpretation of items that contain metaphors, e.g. '*time flies when I am working'*.

This study conjectures that employee engagement depends on the working environment with attendant work policies and practices, as well as the culture that defines employee attitudes and behaviours. Indeed, Diana Aldo in an interview states:

> *"Definitely I will be more engaged if I am working in a good environment. I will be more engaged if I feel my work is equal to the income that I get…, or I will be more engaged even if I am getting less,* [but] *there are other benefits surrounding it, or I am able to go and study, however little* [I] *am getting."*

The context, working environment, culture and policies as well as practices differ between the more economically developed countries and the developing world. Employee responses to work also differ, and hence we argue that their meaning of engagement definitely differs, although the meaningfulness towards motivation remains important.

10.2.7 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an important factor for individual appraisal of HR retention strategies in view of perception of their jobs before understanding an individual's turnover intention. Job satisfaction as a component/ factor is confirmed by this study with a reliability Cronbach's alpha of .88, similar to another study in Singapore (Chay and Bruvold 2003). Although another comparative study in America registered

a reliability alpha of .91, this simply shows some minimal variation across contexts, but all the obtained reliabilities are above the threshold cut-off point of .70, which confirms general acceptability of the factor and its scale. This therefore implies that the understanding and application of job satisfaction in Uganda is not so different from that of other contexts.

10.2.8 Organizational commitment

This study emphasized the importance of organizational commitment in explaining turnover intention and eventually turnover as noted in other studies (Powell and Meyer 2004; Meyer et al. 2002). However, in as much as it remains a three-dimensional construct, the results here reveal *moral, emotional* and *continuance* commitment in comparison to affective, normative and continuance commitment (Allen and Meyer 1990; Meyer and Allen 1991; Powell and Meyer 2004). In other words, *continuance commitment* is confirmed while *moral* and *emotional commitments* are established instead of affective and normative. This is in line with studies that conceive commitment as emotional attachment and a moral duty or sense of indebtedness different from continuance commitment, which deals with the benefits costs associated with leaving (Meyer and Parfyonova 2010; Solinger et al. 2008). Their Cronbach's reliability alphas are .88, .89 and .83 respectively, confirming the scales as good measures of the respective factors.

Moral commitment is characterised by some form of personal feeling of obligation that makes one loyal to and part of an organization. It is morally compelling for one to continue working for an organization because of the value systems that create loyalty, happiness and personal meaning or indebtedness or moral duty (Solinger et al. 2008). Such a person feels he ought to continue working for such an organization, as expressed by Boniface in chapter 9.

Emotional commitment on its part deals with attachment and a sense of belonging that makes a person feel as part of the organization as a family. It is an affective or emotional feeling where people get committed because they feel they want to do so (Allen and Meyer 1996). It is therefore characterized by attachment, belonging, and feeling as part of a family of an organization, similar in meaning to affective commitment (Allen and Meyer 1990; Allen and Meyer 1996; Jaros 1997).

Continuance commitment, on the other hand, focuses on the investments and benefits one stands to gain as compared to the costs associated with leaving an organization. Such benefits and costs can be social, financial or psychological. This construct is in line with the findings of other studies (Meyer and Allen 1991).

We argue that the cultural value systems, prevailing work practices and nature of the economy that define the employment relationship, do shape the nature of commitment to the organization. Similarly, a person's commitment can be influenced by available alternative employment opportunities. Arnold explains in an interview that "people are staying with organizations across the world because of the difficulties in getting other jobs." He adds:

> *"…there are many Ugandans without jobs …. For our case we don't leave a job until you have got another one, and if you asked around, everybody will say that I want to go away, I am just waiting for an opportunity."*

10.2.9 Turnover intention

Turnover intention is considered as a person's development of the desire to leave, characterized by losing hope in continuing with a particular organization as one starts to think of leaving and eventually searching for another job. The factor composition of turnover intention as adapted with a reliability alpha of .89 (Jensen et al. 2013) is confirmed by this study with a Cronbach's alpha of .87. This means that turnover intention as applied in other contexts (Brunetto et al. 2012b; Meyer et al. 1993; Tett and Meyer 1993) is also likely to be applicable in Uganda.

Explaining employee retention is complex and requires a dynamic approach considering key components in context. With results confirming similar interpretation and understanding of some factors such as decision authority, skill discretion, co-worker support (Karasek et al. 2007; Kawakami and Fujigaki 1996; Li et al. 2004), continuance commitment (Meyer and Allen 1991), job satisfaction (Chay and Bruvold 2003) and turnover intention (Jensen et al. 2013); contributions in terms of unique findings are also noted. For example, human resource retention strategies are revealed as job-entry and on-the-job HR strategies, emotional and workload job demands as adaptations to the existing factors (Kawakami and Fujigaki 1996; Maslach and Jackson 1981), and emotional and occupational engagement integrating the three factors of vigour, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004). Although organizational commitment establishes continuance commitment in line with Meyer and Allen (1991), moral and emotional commitments emerge, although related to affective and normative commitment. To understand the importance of the different factors, question two and three on the relationships and influences of such factors with turnover intention are examined in section 10.3 below.

10.3 The association of the factors with turnover intentions

Pearson's product moment correlation and hierarchical regression in chapter nine address research questions two and three on correlations with and prediction of turnover intention by the different factors.

Whetten (1989p.491) argues that *"having identified a set of factors, the researcher's next focus is; how are they related?"* Depicting the relationships graphically for logical reasoning while also being aware that not all theorizations should contain figures (Sutton and Staw 1995; Whetten 1989); the chapter explains the postulated relationships and examines relevant explanations in view of the findings. As Feldman (2004) recommends, this section clearly specifies the independent and dependent variables, and the nature of mediating and moderating relationships, with explanations and implications for both the tested and untested relationships that are good for consideration as part of the theory (Sutton and Staw 1995).

10.3.1 Correlations with turnover intentions

Hypotheses H1[1-5 and 7-14] were confirmed as being negatively and significantly (5% level) correlated with turnover intention, while H1[6] was not confirmed. On the other hand, H2[1] was while H2[2] was not confirmed that *emotional* and *workload job demands* respectively are significantly and positively correlated with turnover intentions. These findings contribute to knowledge and theory in various regards.

The findings for H1[1-2] suggest that our defined factors of *job-entry* and *on-the-job retention strategies* are significantly and negatively associated with turnover intention. These findings are in line with other studies that that examined retention strategies (although as independent items such as salary, job security, training, benefits and recognition) and turnover intention (Luna-Arocas and Camps 2008; Pare and Tremblay 2007). The findings confirm our two factors as good measures of retention strategies and appropriate for examining turnover intention.

Hypotheses H1[3-4] on perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived supervisor support (PSS); H1[5] on skill discretion and; H1[7] on co-worker support were all confirmed, meaning that they are all negatively and significantly correlated to turnover intention. This implies that employee perceptions as measured by POS and PSS (Maertz Jr. et al. 2007; Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005; Eisenberger et al. 2002), and both skill discretion and co-worker support (Karasek et al. 2007; Li et al. 2004; Taris et al. 2001; Kawakami and Fujigaki 1996), as factors of job resources, similarly apply in Uganda as applied in other contexts. For a model of retention, the factors are important as they are related to turnover intention.

However, H1[6] was not confirmed as *decision authority is negatively*, but *not significantly* correlated with turnover intention. This finding is contrary to findings of other studies that established a significantly negative correlation (Brunetto et al. 2012a; Cheung et al. 2009). The finding suggests that employees in Uganda consider decision authority differently. Firstly, decision authority involves taking risks and hence

unlikely to be revered by those who are risk-averse. Secondly, decision authority provides new job challenges that develop employees to think beyond their current jobs and organizations. Thirdly, as revealed by interviews, decisions and control by staff are subject to top management hence not fully given weight.

Hypotheses H1[8-14] addressing employee expectations, employee engagement, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, were all confirmed. H1[8] on *employee expectations* is significantly and negatively associated with turnover intention. Although some previous studies (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler 2000; Robinson and Rousseau 1994; Robinson et al. 1994) established a similar nature of correlation, they used individual variable-items rather than psychological contract as a factor as it is for this study. This study brings out an overall assessment of the psychological contract (employee expectations) rather than disaggregated items. Previous studies mainly examined psychological contract breach, arguing that employees who perceive a psychological contract breach are more likely to lose their attachment to the organization (Lub et al. 2012; Parzefall and Coyle-Shapiro 2011; Rousseau 2001) and develop turnover intentions (Robinson and Rousseau 1994). Little is said about *employees' expectations* and their influence on turnover intention before perception of fulfilment or breach of expectations.

H1[9] on emotional engagement and H1[10] on occupational engagement were confirmed to be negatively and significantly correlated with turnover intention. Being that our structure for the two factors of employment engagement is somewhat different from the previously recommended composition (Bakker and Demerouti 2008; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004), this study still provides a similar finding confirming that employee engagement (emotional and occupational) is negatively correlated with turnover intention. This is in line with Patience's explanation that "*the starting point should be engagement. If employees are fully engaged, they like what they are doing, … so they will stay."*

Job satisfaction (H1[11]) on its part was also confirmed in our study as being negatively and significantly correlated to turnover intention. This is in line with some other studies that establish a similar relationship (Yalabik et al. 2013). However, some studies (Luna-Arocas and Camps 2008) only envisage job satisfaction as being mediated by organizational commitment in its relationship with turnover intention. Instead, the results here reveal the importance of job satisfaction to organizational commitment and turnover intention in respect of the HR retention strategies. Under section 9.7, Justine and Drake individually the importance of HR retention strategies to job satisfaction and subsequently organizational commitment and turnover intention. Known studies both in the Ugandan context and beyond (e.g.,

Tumwesigye 2010) focusing on organizational commitment and turnover intention do not consider both HR retention strategies and job satisfaction, a gap which this study addresses.

With regard to organizational commitment, H1[12-14] were confirmed that moral, emotional and continuance commitment are all significant and strong negative correlates of turnover intention. The strong negative correlation of the three forms of commitment, with turnover intention confirms the importance of organization commitment in studying turnover and retention (Meyer et al. 2002; Meyer et al. 1993). Regardless of the nomenclature of the components, commitment remains closely associated with turnover intentions. Furthermore, section 9.8 reveals expressions of what partly commits employees: "terms and conditions that oblige people to stay", programmes such as training that "make people feel motivated and committed to work for an organization", while "others stay because of social economic issues." The expressions mirror the identified three commitment components.

Hypothesis two, postulating positive relationships between the factors of job demands and turnover intention was, on the other hand, partially confirmed. H2[1] on *emotional job demands* was confirmed, while H2[2] on *workload job demands* was not since this factor is negatively and significantly correlated with turnover intention. For H2[1], section 9.4 reveals experiences of fatigue, burnout and exhaustion, pressure, and psychological 'torture' out of routine work and practices. The findings suggest that high performance targets, training and, promotional requirements create high demands. This is in line with high-performance work practices model that depicts stress and pressure out of attendant HR practices (Jensen et al. 2013).

H2[2] provides a unique finding that *workload job demand* is negatively and significantly correlated to turnover intention, contrary to the expectation. This is also contrary to the job-demands-resources model (Jensen et al. 2013; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004) where perceived stressful practices are positively correlated with turnover intention. This can be explained by increased employee occupation with work that denies one a meaningful opportunity to think and compare jobs across organizations. Secondly, job demands arising from the nature of the job are quite different from those that are of managerial nature. People in jobs with high workloads requiring more effort and speed can tend to realize their importance in an organization's work, and thus value continuity in service than leaving.

10.3.2 Variation in turnover intention

Hypothesis three (H3) aimed at assessing the overall estimation of turnover intention, before examining the contribution of different variables. H3 is confirmed that the overall model (after including all

variables in the different blocks, is a good fit to our data and strongly accounts up to 52% of the variation in turnover intention. The model proves to be a strong measure of turnover intention, considering results of other models (Blau 2009). This was also supported by the significant results of the different blocks of variables (Field 2013; Pallant 2005).

H4 is partly confirmed showing that *on-the-job HR strategies* negatively influence turnover intention (*b* = -0.39, *ß* = -.29, *p* = .00), while *job-entry strategies* as a factor does not (*b* = .16, *ß* = -.13, *p* = .06) at 5% level (with the *p* value only slightly higher at .06 for the latter). The finding confirms the importance of *on-the-job HR strategies* such as training, pay, benefits, job security among others as compared to *job-entry strategies* such as hiring practices and socialization of employees. Although the finding of job entry retention strategies is negative (and observably with a slightly higher *p* value than the 5% level), its non-significance downplays the critical emphasis given to rigorous hiring practices in explaining retention (Lwamafa 2008). Firstly, it is likely that job candidates only look at job-entry practices as a gateway to an organization that comes with anxiety. Secondly, interviews reveal that it is mainly candidates joining due to personal relationships that stay longer for fear of frustrating those that supported them while their counterparts joining on merit have the self-belief to compete for other jobs, and can leave at any time. However, contrary to high-performance work systems (Jensen et al. 2013), on-the-job HR retention strategies prove a good prediction of turnover intention. This finding is in line with Campbell (2013) and Kuvaas (2008) that establish related factors influencing turnover intention.

H5 is fully confirmed. *Perceived organizational support* (*b* = -0.27, *ß* = -.26, *p* =.00) and *perceived supervisor support* (*b* = -0.15, *ß* = -.13, *p* = .05) each negatively and significantly predicts turnover intention. The importance of employee perception of support (both organizational and supervisor) is therefore d as also established elsewhere (Kuvaas et al. 2014; Loi et al. 2006; Maertz Jr. et al. 2007). Sulah explains the importance of POS that "some things are really institutional in terms of some policies" and "such outcomes are attached to the organization", while Kyle reveals that some facilitations are "*associated with the managers because I have heard some of them* [staff] *say that ah, that one will not even approve a shilling."* These are testaments that both supervisor and organizational support are applicable.

Considering *H6*, two factors: *emotional job demands* (*b* = 0.24, *ß* = .20, *p* = 00) and *decision authority* (*b* = 0.18, *ß* = .16, *p* = .02) are significant and positive predictors of turnover intention. The stressful nature of emotional job demands (Maslach and Jackson 1981) is d in this study in line with the job demands and job resources model (Bakker and Demerouti 2008; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004), and also the high-

performance work systems (Jensen et al. 2013; Kroon et al. 2009), in their negative effect on attitudes and hence positively influencing turnover intention. Donese and Nanyonga in Section 9.4 demonstrate, for example, how "perceived poor performance" causes "fear" and "pressure" which in turn cause one to "leave an organization."

However, a notable finding at this stage is the *positive* and *significant* result for *decision authority*. This is contrary to the general perception that decision authority is a fulfilling practice that provides satisfaction and wins employees' loyalty and continuity with an organization. Firstly, Section 9.4 demonstrates that the authority employees have is "bounded" as the decisions they make are not final, but subject to top the management and the proprietors' approval. This is in line with the traditional civil service notion that a civil servant implements decisions of top management and the government of the day without question (Kiapi 1984). Employees instead need to feel free to make decisions that influence their work rather than merely make recommendations that are largely ignored by management (Chen et al. 2012). Secondly, decision authority comes with decision risk, and some people are risk-averse (Jiang et al. 2012). Thirdly, the more employees gain authority, the more they become aspiring for more, and therefore desire something new for more control.

Similarly, the revelation that *occupational/workload job demand* (b = -0.09, $ß$ = -.07, p = .27) and *co-worker support* (b = 0.08, $ß$ = .05, p = .45) are not significantly associated with turnover intention is contrary to expectations; and although both are highly non-significant they are negative and positive signed respectively which was further not expected. We discern occupational/workload job demands, as depicted by working very hard and very fast, being a result of the nature of work that is so highly demanding that it substantially occupies employees beyond the time they require for reflecting and thinking about alternative opportunities. Similarly, one's appreciation of his/her profession and occupation, and general perception of its nature of work drives some people to adapt and settle with their current organizations as changing the organization does not mean changing the nature of the work. Additionally, limited job opportunities amidst competition for the few available ones, compels one to continue working for fear of unemployment (Iverson and Buttigieg 1999).

The efficacy of co-worker support, on the other hand, depends upon an employee's own competencies and performance. While it is appreciated for one to be helpful, friendly and show interest in a colleague's work (Li et al. 2004), such work relationships can be a recipe of group influence, which can antagonize performance systems and managerial authority. This is counter to the generally held view that co-worker support improves upon employee feeling towards an organization (Bakker and Demerouti 2008; Schaufeli

and Bakker 2004). Even though not significantly established, the counter views against co-worker support ought to be given attention in the study of employee retention. Following an interview with Julie Hannah, some employees can over-rely upon others yet, the support is expected to be dual-directional.

> *"Every other day when I tell them that I am going to leave here, they always say 'you are not leaving, you are still here with us.' At times they are like, if you dare wake up one day and you are leaving, then we are 'dead'."*

In case the main person leaves or is unavailable, the rest get affected. Secondly, the co-workers may not be competent in all aspects, or may have selfish interests that may cause suspicion from the colleagues.

Skill discretion (b = -0.14, $ß$ = -.09, p = .21) and *employee expectations* (b = -0.07, $ß$ = -.06, p = .34) also do not significantly predicting turnover intention. The importance of the two variables has been empasized elsewhere (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler 2000; Robinson et al. 1994; Taris et al. 2001), but the non-significant findings suggest care in their application. The ability with which people manage a variety of tasks depends on their already held skills that can be limiting as others may have developed skills that they may fail to apply, or underutilize. Similarly, limited skills inhibit creativity while opportunities to learn new skills may also be hampered by an individual's willingness and capabilities. Going by Mubesi's statement that "… *nobody follows you up apart from a few instances where somebody calls you and asks what has gone wrong",* skill discretion can pose performance challenges that may inhibit employees' willingness to wholly embrace it, and also diminish management's full trust (Neves and Caetano 2009).

H7 was partly confirmed as *emotional engagement* significantly and negatively (b = -0.22, $ß$ = -.17, p = .04) predicts turnover intention, while *occupational engagement* is not a significant predictor (b = -0.09, $ß$ = -.07, p = .32) at 5% level. *Emotional engagement* results in a positive state upon an employee by way of a self-fulfilling state that influences one to stay in a particular organization. This is close to vigour and dedication (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004). *Occupational engagement*, however, deals with actual work experiences in terms of one's actual involvement in the work, its experiences and challenges. As this could be associated with absorption (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004), such work experiences may not highly inspire as compared to emotional factors. Under Section 9.6, Arnold clarifies that "there is doing a job when you are not happy, but you have to do it" because you are simply "supposed to." In this regard, the occupational nature of the job may not necessarily influence retention.

H8 is confirmed as job satisfaction is a negative and significant predictor of turnover intention (b = -.30, $ß$ = -.26, p = .00). The finding confirms the fit of job satisfaction in our model of employee retention as established elsewhere (Back et al. 2011; Cheung et al. 2009; Luna-Arocas and Camps 2008; Robinson

and Reio Jr. 2012). This is contrary to others that do not establish a direct effect of job satisfaction on turnover intention (Currivan 1999; Yalabik et al. 2013). The finding contrasts Uganda from South Africa, where surprisingly, *stayers* were established to have significantly lower satisfaction and commitment than did the leavers (Lee and Rwigema 2005). Drake confirms the importance of job satisfaction.

> *"… if you have job satisfaction, it is the very reason that will lead you to getting committed to the organization..., because if there was no satisfaction, you would feel like you … don't want to be committed and … you would want to leave."*

H9 was partially confirmed. *Moral* (b = -0.28, ß = -.23, p = .00) and *emotional commitment* (b = -0.36, ß = -.35, p = .00) are significantly negative predictors of turnover intention while *continuance commitment* (b = -0.11, ß = -.10, p = .13) is not. This finding contributes to the ongoing debate by a considerable number of studies examining the three-component model that reveal varying findings about affective, normative and continuance commitment (Jaros 1997; Jaros and Culpepper 2014; Jaros et al. 1993; Solinger et al. 2008). While some studies report all the three components as negatively affecting turnover intention (e.g., Maertz Jr. et al. 2007; Allen and Meyer 1990), others establish affective commitment as the only significant predictor (Jaros 1997). The non-significant finding of continuance commitment is supported by Powel and Meyer (2004 p.160) who observe little or even *negative* impact of continuance commitment on *intentions to stay* and thus argue that "continuance commitment *is not* synonymous with intent to stay", suggesting that even if people's continuance commitment is low, they may still stay and vice versa (Powell and Meyer 2004). This is justified by some continuance commitment aspects such as pensions that are transferable across the private and NGO sectors, and within the public sector (civil service).

10.4 Application of the model in Uganda and other contexts

Theory is sensitive to context as emphasized that "we understand what is going on by appreciating where and when it is happening" (Whetten 1989, p.492). The uniqueness of a particular context can limit the application of a model. All the models and theories reviewed in chapter four were developed in different contexts and with limitations, as discussed above, that justifies the need for a model that is not only applicable to Uganda, but with features that support its general application. In view of our *fourth research question* enquiring into the results of applying the developed model in Uganda as a developing country, the current study considers context-specific, organizational, and individual factors.

10.4.1 Economy

It has been presented right away from chapter 5 that Uganda has limited viable commercial activities that can have substantial implications for employment (Rwendeire 2012). There are concerns about lack of a minimum wage, let alone living wage; limited working tools, training, and poor pay coupled with limited capabilities for reforms (Mitala 2003). Together with fewer employment opportunities as compared to developed economies, these affect implementation of retention strategies in developing economies such as Uganda. This study and the resultant model attention to such contextual issues of the economy that limit application of models from other contexts (Sutton and Staw 1995).

10.4.2 Legal and institutional framework

The differences in the legal and institutional frameworks across countries, variably explain retention. The observed lack of a minimum wage law means exploitation of Uganda's workers, while the different pension schemes across sectors imply different terms of service and hence different retirement benefits (Uganda. 2006a). Although a minimum legislation is likely to limit employment opportunities especially in small scale business, it is likely to result in competitive earnings and thus retention through quality than quantity employment. Without pension reforms for example, by the entire public sector running a contributory scheme as it is with the private and NGO sector, employees of the latter are likely to continue being attracted to the former. Additionally, the institutional set up of different ministries, local governments, agencies and departments with differences in their appointing authorities, promotional and transfer policies (Uganda. 1995; Uganda. 1997; Uganda. 2000; Uganda. 2006a), require careful attention as they differently impact turnover intention and retention.

10.4.3 Population growth rate of the country

The population growth rate of 3.03 percent, having grown from 24.2 million in 2002 to 34.9 million in 2014 (Uganda 2014), bears implications on employment through competition for opportunities. The high levels of unemployment and limited opportunities expressed in interviews tend to keep people with their employer even when dissatisfied with their jobs. As some studies noted the importance of available alternative opportunities (Jaros 1997; Lee et al. 2001; Meyer and Herscovitch 2001), job opportunities are increasingly becoming difficult in Uganda because of increasing population amidst a slow growing economy, which such studies do not consider.

10.4.4 Culture

Culture is highly rooted in developing countries such as Uganda (Kamoche 2002), and thus reported to influence variations in retention. Diana Aldo demonstrates in an interview that *"upon losing someone here, there are people who spend months still mourning"* coupled with societal expectation that the employer and the colleague staff will support the bereaved family. All these confirm a strong African culture influences performance, and also commitment and retention. Although this can be associated with the reciprocity norm under the social exchange theory (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005; Eisenberger et al. 1986; Eisenberger et al. 2002), it goes beyond the work aspects to social obligations. Similarly, the collective as opposed to individualistic culture in the West, defines the way people interact at work. Contextualizing culture is important as its strong influence over management is reported in China (Ko et al. 1997; Lee et al. 2001), with the three-component model, and the organizational support theory found to be culturally bound (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005; Ko et al. 1997; Lee et al. 2001).

10.5 Organizational and individual factors

Organizational and individual factors that are considered include the employment sector, occupational line of service, nature of organization, age, gender, family and number of dependents (McIntosh et al. 2012; McIntosh et al. 2015), and educational qualifications.

10.5.1 Sector

The results reveal that the private sector is positively and significantly correlated with turnover intention in comparison to the public sector, while the NGOs are not. This can be associated to relative terms of service (fixed or temporary) vis-à-vis permanent. Unlike Elst et al's (2011) finding of more full-time workers expressing more intentions to leave; flexibilities in the public sector as established in St. Lucia, the Caribbean (Addae et al. 2008), as opposed to strict rules in the private and NGO sector, give public servants more freedom of time in as much as they are 'permanent and full-time' in appointment. Fredoe confirms that he gets "time to do other things as compared to [his] counterparts in the private and NGO" sectors. The finding also means that the reported relative availability of working tools in the private than the public sector, had little influence although Brunetto et al. (2010) reports stronger satisfaction in the private sector, which is, however, associated with supervision quality. As supported by results in *appendix A8.1***,** more employees move from the private to the public sector, and less the other way round. It is therefore evident that the strictness vis-à-vis the flexibility of the sector or organization affects employee commitment and turnover intentions, although strictness aimed at work performance is important than flexibility to accommodate ineffective employees.

10.5.2 Occupational line of service

The health occupation in comparison to administration (across all sectors) is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention (i.e. there is lower intention in the health sector), while education is not, although results point to a negative direction. The noted importance of allowances is suggestively linked to this outcome. Firstly, while allowances are prevalently used in health followed by education service, those in administration only lament the absence of such bonuses. Secondly, employees in health and education occupations have more field activities and hence travel allowances, as compared to their counterparts in mainstream administration. Thirdly, health and education occupations bear greater budgetary allocations that facilitate their employees compared to administration. This is because health and education sub-sectors are priority areas for improving the socio-economic status of a developing economy such as Uganda.

10.5.3 Family responsibilities

The family in terms of marital status, number of children and dependents is d in influencing work decisions. Some people cannot stay longer in their jobs because of family demands. McQuaid and Chen (2012) exemplify that having children was associated with shorter commuting time. Mubesi's interview is intriguing: *"my wife has been in one job for many years yet, for me I have changed several jobs looking for better pay because I have to cater for the family, for her, the children and then other responsibilities."* As the assertion has implications for gender as well, indeed some studies family size with dependents as imposing obligations that require continued work (Iverson 1999; McIntosh et al. 2012; McIntosh et al. 2015) although others do not find a relationship with turnover intention (Kidd and Green 2006). Consideration of the family especially in an African context with extended families is justified and different from the developed country context of nuclear families.

10.5.4 Gender

As in some other studies (Chen and Francesco 2000; Kuvaas and Dysvik 2010), the correlation between gender and turnover intention is noted. Women in this study are negatively correlated with turnover intentions (although not significant) in comparison to men. Jane reasons [interview] that women tend to stay [longer] than the men because *"men are … always inquisitive and on the lookout for where they should go that is better."* Other studies contend that men are more concerned about their career growth than women (Boles et al. 2007) and hence more likely to leave (Tymon Jr et al. 2011). Gender becomes more important in an African culture where the man is the head of the family and the bread-winner, as expressed by Mubesi in 10.5.3 above. Similarly, McIntosh et al (2012) reveal that elsewhere as well,

stereotypes associated with motherhood and perceptions in relation to work result in women, especially mothers, being relegated in employment. Similarly, it was also established that men commute/travell to work more than women (McQuaid and Chen 2012), which implies that women can be influenced by location and distance than men.

10.5.5 Age

As in many other studies (Elst et al. 2011; Finegold et al. 2002), older age categories are not significantly correlated to turnover intention in comparison to the young aged 30 years below. The importance of career exploration (DeCenzo and Robbins 2003) catches up with the young, searching for better opportunities as opposed to the older ones who are seeking to establish and develop themselves. Providing career opportunities for growth for the young workers is therefore important as discussed in 10.2, while the old mind more about supportive programmes to their families, and advancement than exploring.

10.5.6 Education

Lower education qualifications (secondary and tertiary) are negatively significantly correlated with turnover intention while Bachelor's degree is positively correlated, in comparison to postgraduate qualifications. This means that the low qualified employees are less likely to leave, which is in line with other studies that establish higher intent to leave among the highly qualified staff (Maynard et al. 2006). However, the finding differs from some studies that reveal no influence of education over commitment and turnover (Chen and Francesco 2000). Relatively highly educated people (Bachelors' degrees) are therefore likely to change jobs quite often compared to their counterparts with either lower or more advanced degree qualifications. This has implications for retaining bachelor's degree graduates that form the core of operations. Aligning people's qualifications to job requirements, and ensuring better skills utilisation, is important rather than simply attracting lower or higher qualifications that can pose challenges of either under or over qualifications (Maynard et al. 2006).

10.6 Conclusions

This chapter has mainly aimed at answering the research questions on the components of the model, relationships of variables with, and their prediction of turnover intention, and the application of the model in Uganda's context. Contributions have been made to methods, theory, knowledge and practice.

The establishment of *Job-entry* and *on-job HR retention strategies* (for HR retention strategies), employee expectations and organizational fulfilment (for psychological contract) provide an understanding of generally comprehensive and logical clusters of variables/factors underlying the many facets(Field 2013). Such component variables inform future studies beyond existing literature and context.

The revelation of *moral, emotional* and *continuance commitment* reignites the debate about the conceptualization of organizational commitment, suggesting the need to reconsider the scale items of affective and normative commitment because of the observed overlap that has also been noted elsewhere (Allen and Meyer 1990; Jaros 1997). The non-significant prediction of turnover intention by *continuance commitment* challenges its importance and thus the relevancy of opportunity costs such as pensions and friendships in some contexts, as such costs and benefits can be made up elsewhere. Similarly, the conceptualization of *emotional* and occupational/*workload job demands* responds to observed overlap in the scales of emotional, psychological and physical demands (Karasek et al. 1998; Kawakami et al. 1995; Maslach and Jackson 1981), which was also confirmed by the cross loading of items (see 10.2.3). Additionally, *emotional and occupational engagement* instead of vigour, dedication and absorption (section 10.2.6); reveal differences in comprehension of engagement across contexts in the same way some studies establish and suggest context relative studies (Bakker and Demerouti 2008; Sonnentag 2003).

On the other hand, the confirmation of some of the adapted scales of *perceived supervisor* and *perceived organizational support* (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005; Eisenberger et al. 1986); *skill discretion, decision authority,* and *co-worker support* (Karasek et al. 2007; Kawakami and Fujigaki 1996; Taris et al. 2001); and *job satisfaction* (Chay and Bruvold 2003), means no significant differences exist in their conception and application in Uganda and other contexts.

Decision authority (r = -.10, p >.05), reveals a unique finding (not significant), despite the rest of the variables being significantly correlated to turnover intention. Risk averseness, desire for more authority and new challenges are possible explanations. *Occupational job demand,* on the other hand, points significantly in a contrary direction in its correlation to turnover intention (r = -.11, p < .05). Such nature of the work is highly occupying that employees instead concentrate on performing than turnover cognitions. Additionally, more involvement in the work (occupation) can make one feel important and desire to continue making his/her contribution. Some employees could also lack better opportunities, or experience competition from colleagues, hence end up concentrating on their jobs despite the job

demands (Kroon et al. 2009). While all these seem to be beneficial for retention, the effects of fatigue and burnout can later be devastating (Kehoe and Wright 2013; Maslach and Jackson 1981).

The developed model is a generally good fit to our data as it significantly predicts turnover intention by 52%, which is a strong result in comparison to other comparable models (Blau 2009). Above all, the model has context relevant variables for its application to Uganda, and also adaptability and general application by emphasizing the importance of national, organizational and individual factors, for example, the sector, education, occupation, and gender, among others.

11 CONCLUSIONS

11.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out the conclusions of the dissertation, while reflecting on the statement of the problem, the research aim, the key research questions, and the respective key aspects of the literature and the findings of the current study. It is claimed that winning employee commitment for them to stay longer and continue working effectively for an organization requires focusing on specific factors that result in employee retention rather than developing HR systems and practices (Budhwar and Bhatnagar 2007; De Vos and Meganck 2008). Morrell et al (2001) express the inability of existing models to adequately explain or predict turnover as underlying methodologies are always questioned for observed limited clarity in the relationships among the established constructs such as satisfaction, withdraw cognitions and intent to leave. It is also evident from the literature that most theories and their factors, strategies and practices for retention are context bound and display varying results according to country, sector, organization and individual (Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Jaros 1997; Jaros and Culpepper 2014; Solinger et al. 2008). Additionally, context-specific studies/models that apply to Africa (Frimousse et al. 2012), as well as the development of general models (Ko et al. 1997), have been recommended. The current study has responded to these shortcomings and recommendations by developing and applying a context relevant model while considering features that allow its general application.

The aim of this study was to understand turnover intentions, turnover, and retention in a developing country context with specific focus on Uganda, while the main research questions focused on: 1) the components of the model to explain retention, 2) the factors that explain turnover intention and the relationship of such factors with turnover intention (8.4), 3) how the different factors explain variation in turnover intentions (8.5), and 4) the application of the developed model in a developing country such as Uganda (8.5 and 9.10). Adopting a pragmatic research paradigm, the study employed a sequential mixed research method to collect and analyse both quantitative and qualitative data in order to answer the above research questions. The adopted epistemological and methodological approaches permit exploration and analytical examination of the phenomena by allowing triangulation.

Pursuing the aims and objectives above, the current study examined employee retention strategies, organizational commitment and turnover intention not only in the less researched context of Uganda as a developing country, but also considered three national employment sectors: the public, the private and the NGO sectors. It recognized the important role of context in influencing employees' turnover intentions by looking at national, organizational and individual factors such as the economy, culture, legal and

institutional framework, sector, profession of occupation, age, gender, marital status and the number of dependents. This study also explained turnover intentions, turnover, and retention from the perspective of retention strategies (Budhwar and Bhatnagar 2007; De Vos and Meganck 2008), while most existing models and empirical studies (chapters 3 to 4) have mainly examined general individual HR issues e.g. training, salary and career. Building on a systematic analysis of existing work and empirical insights, the current study developed and tested a context relevant model reflecting observed key factors in the explanation of turnover intention and turnover/ retention, which has been further developed into a general model that can be adapted and applied to other contexts to explain retention.

The remainder of the chapter focuses on components and factors that explain turnover intention (11.2), the relationships of the factors to turnover intention (11.3), the influence of the factors on turnover intention (11.4), application of the model (11.5), theoretical implications and policy and practical implications (11.6), limitations of the study (11.7), directions for future research (11.8), reflections on the PhD process (11.9).

11.2 Components and factors of the model

Research question one aimed at establishing the components, while part of research question two established the factors of the model of employee retention. Basing on systematic literature review (chapter 3) and the theoretical review (chapter 4), a theoretical model to explain retention was developed comprising of key components. Such components include: HR retention strategies, employee perception of strategies, the psychological contract, job demands and job resources, employee engagement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention/ intention to stay, and retention/turnover. Such factors are argued to variably apply across contexts, sectors, organizations and individuals. The resultant model with the relevant components is presented in chapter 4 as figure 4.1. The model was developed while cognizant of parsimony and comprehensiveness (Whetten 1989) by maintaining only variables considered relevant to our understanding of retention (Feldman 2004; Whetten 1989).

For the first part of research question two, the results of principal component analysis in chapter 7 revealed important factors explaining turnover intentions as including: job entry and on-the-job HR retention strategies, perceived organizational, and supervisor support, skill discretion, decision authority, co-worker support, employee expectations and organizational fulfilment, emotional and occupational/workload demands, emotional and occupational engagement, job satisfaction, and moral, emotional and continuance commitment. The resultant factors are informative in the study of retention/turnover as explained below.

Firstly, unique results are established and reported, for example *job entry* and *on-the-job HR retention strategies* (for employee retention strategies) and *employee expectations* and *organizational* fulfilment (for psychological contract) support a comprehensive study of such key HR components instead of studying individual items which become many to integrate (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler 2000). Secondly, variation in the established factors from the ones originally applied in literature and existing models, for example job demands (emotional and occupational), organizational commitment (moral, emotional and continuance), and employee engagement (emotional and occupational); provide new insights into their meaning and held interpretations in Uganda's context, differently from existing literature (Allen and Meyer 1996; Ko et al. 1997). Thirdly, the confirmation of some factors, for example perceived organizational and supervisor support (for employee perception of support), skill discretion, decision authority and co-worker support (for job resources), job satisfaction, and turnover intention, means that the interpretations and application of some variables in Uganda share common understanding as in similar studies elsewhere (Brunetto et al. 2012b; Chay and Bruvold 2003; Kawakami and Fujigaki 1996). However, there are some differences justified by contextual, organizational and individual factors (Ko et al. 1997) that ought to be considered.

11.3 Relationship of variables with turnover intention

The second part of research question two aimed at establishing the relationship between the revealed factors and turnover intention. Almost all variables were established to have significant correlations with turnover intention in the expected directions. Hypotheses H1[1-5 and 7-14] (section 8.4; on-job HR retention strategies, job entry retention strategies, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisor support, skill discretion, co-worker support, employee expectations, emotional and occupational engagement, job satisfaction, moral, emotional and continuance commitment), were confirmed being negatively and significantly (at 5% level) correlated with turnover intentions. H2[1] was confirmed that *emotional job demands* on the other hand, are significantly and positively correlated with turnover intentions.

However, H1[6] and H2[2] were not confirmed as *decision authority* is not significantly (although negative as postulated), while *occupational/workload job demand* is negatively and significantly correlated with turnover intention (at 5% level). Only two out of the total of 16 variables did not confirm the existence of an assumed relationship with turnover intention. The finding on decision authority is inconsistent with other studies that establish a significantly negative correlation with turnover intention (Brunetto et al. 2012a; Cheung et al. 2009). The implication of decision authority in terms of risks

associated with employee decisions, the quest for new challenges after attaining decision authority, and subjecting staff decisions to top management are noted as diminishing the importance of decision authority. Similarly, a negative correlation of occupational/workload demand as a subcomponent of job demands is contrary to the view that it results in employee stress and turnover intention (Jensen et al. 2013; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004). *Occupational/workload demands* in terms of *working with high effort* is associated with an increased occupation of employees with the work and perception of individual importance and value contribution to the organization to the extent that such employees feel they should continue working than leave such an organization.

11.4 The influence of the different variables on turnover intention

Research question three aimed at examining how the established factors explain or predict the variation in turnover intention. A reasonable number of individual variables of the model were confirmed as significantly predicting the variation in turnover intention. *On-the-job HR retention strategies, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisor support, emotional engagement, job satisfaction, moral* and *emotional commitment,* are each negatively significant predictors of *turnover intention* while *emotional demands* and *decision authority* significantly and positively do so. Such factors were therefore confirmed as good predictors of turnover intention in the context of this study. On the other hand, *Job-entry HR retention strategies, occupational job demands, co-worker support, skill discretion, psychological contract, occupational engagement* and *continuance commitment* were not found to be significant predictors of turnover intention.

It is discernible that organizations need to focus more on *on-the-job HR* in comparison to *job-entry HR retention strategies*, and similarly, *moral* and *emotional commitment* were confirmed as being more important in predicting *turnover intention* than *continuance commitment*. Whereas the likely costs of leaving a job for example, pension, friendships, and psychological disconnection are important, availability of better opportunities and the prospect of accessing elsewhere the would-be lost benefits, seem to outweigh the importance of *continuance commitment*. Explanation of turnover by different factors is dependent upon national, organizational and individual factors, which underlie the model's application in context.

11.5 Application of the model to Uganda and other contexts

Research question four sought for results of applying the developed model to a developing context, specifically in Uganda. The tested model is arguably good, accounting for 52% of the variation in

turnover intention, in the context of the study and the prevailing factors. The different blocks of variables make significant contributions (see section 8.5.1 and table 8.6). In addition to the contribution by individual variables at different blocks, as discussed under section 11.4 above, the model emphasizes contextual, organizational and individual factors for its application in Uganda, and general adaptation to other contexts. Section 5.4 decries limited viable economic activities in Uganda that can significantly influence employment opportunities and hence support competitive HR strategies such as a living wage. Similarly, a lack of a minimum wage legislation and differentiated structure for the central and local governments, limit transfers and promotions across the two administrative units of government (see sections 9.2.6 and 9.2.7). The study notes the need to address the variation in the provision of allowances across occupations, for example in health and education vis-à-vis administration as further evidenced by less reports of turnover intention in the former two service occupations compared to the latter. Additionally, the reported low turnover intentions among the females and employees with lower qualifications point to gendered responsibilities and limited opportunities for people with tertiary and secondary education since most jobs require graduates and postgraduates, who in essence are many and more competitive. Similar findings, for example higher turnover cognitions for the highly educated and the males, have been confirmed elsewhere although underlying circumstances of education, gender and family responsibilities differ in Uganda (Chen and Francesco 2000; DeCenzo and Robbins 2003; Maynard et al. 2006). For example, the gendered family roles are more entrenched in Uganda and other developing than in developed economies. Therefore, as the findings and explanations suggest a general application of the model, the unique contextual factors ought to be observed.

11.6 Implications for policy, theory and practice

This study provides an understanding of key aspects of HR retention strategies, employee perception of support, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in explaining turnover. It also challenges any possible consensus on the universal applicability of Western management theories, and suggests a contextualized understanding of organizational commitment and turnover/retention in developing countries, particularly Uganda. The study also offers some counter-intuitive insights such as retention strategies, which are considered helpful for policy makers and HR practice. The following subsections address the theoretical (11.6.1), and policy and practical implications (11.6.2).

11.6.1 Theoretical implications

The current study extends the existing body of knowledge in terms of the tested model and its findings as emphasized under section 10.6. Factors such as perceived organizational and supervisor support, skill

discretion, decision authority, co-worker support, job satisfaction, continuance commitment and turnover intention confirm their application in Uganda as in other contexts, but the variation in factors such as emotional and occupational engagement, the overlap between affective and normative commitment hence resulting in moral and emotional commitment, explains the varying comprehension and interpretation.

The significant association of almost all the factors of the model (except decision authority) with turnover intention endorses the importance of the considered variables. The exception of decision authority (as a significantly positive predictor of turnover intentions) is, however, explained by the nature of management control that poses decision risks. Employees do not seem to feel empowered to make meaningful decisions as their efforts in this refard are always subject to top management control. Additionally, it was revealed that employees are held responsible for any decisions that may backfire. The end result is that employees become risk averse, hence the limited influence of decision authority.

Additionally, on-the-job HR retention practices, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisor support, emotional engagement, job satisfaction, moral and emotional commitment, emotional job demands and decision authority are all significant predictors of turnover intention. Factors such as job-entry HR strategies and on-the job HR retention strategies provide a systematic and logical approach to categorizing and studying retention strategies rather than considering numerous individual HR retention scale items (Back et al. 2011; Freese et al. 2011). While the organizational support theory is supported by the confirmation of both perceived organizational and supervisor support, and their correlations with and prediction of turnover intention, the current study finds other models, such as the three component model of commitment, job demands and job resources model and, high commitment work practices as not fully applying in Uganda's context. While organizational commitment is confirmed as a three-component model, firstly, this study reveals moral, emotional and continuance commitment, with the former two being different although similar in meaning to affective and normative commitment. There is observed overlap between affective and normative commitment as also observed elsewhere (Allen and Meyer 1990; Jaros 1997; Solinger et al. 2008), which questions the independence of the two variable scales. Secondly, the distinction of continuance commitment as observed in other studies (Ko et al. 1997; Meyer and Allen 1991), and the emergence of moral and emotional commitment as supported by Solinger (2008), reignites debates about the conceptualization of organizational commitment. Thirdly, in line with some other studies (Jaros 1997; Jaros and Culpepper 2014; Lee et al. 2001; Powell and Meyer 2004; Solinger et al. 2008), the current study queries the relevance of continuance commitment in predicting turnover intention as only moral and emotional commitment are the significantly observed predictors.

Similarly, the finding of decision authority as a positively significant predictor of turnover intention challenges its interpretation and application. Explained as one of the employee motivational factors towards goal achievement and thus presumed to negatively impact turnover intention, decision authority is constrained by decision risks especially for risk-averse people (Jiang et al. 2012). Additionally, decision authority empowers employees to consider new greater challenges than what they experience in their current jobs. However, the degree to which employees attain meaningful decision authority is a matter of analysis and interpretation (Chen et al. 2012), especially where employees confirm their decisions are subjected to a veto by top management and governance. The theoretical consideration of decision authority should therefore be mindful of the risk propensity, the likely growth challenges and management's trust in view of true employee empowerment.

Caution is posed for any unequivocal consideration of job demands as being stressful and positively while job resources (such as decision authority) as motivational and thus negatively influencing turnover intention. It is important in some instances to consider *workload/occupational job demands* as highly potential occupiers of employees working in particular occupations that are highly involving especially in terms of *effort* and *speed.* Although not revealed as a significant predictor of turnover intention, *occupational job demands* have a negative bearing on *turnover intention* in some contexts despite their generally perceived stressful nature that is associated with leaving an organization (Jensen et al. 2013; Kroon et al. 2009). In this regard, employees do not experience stress through any loss of resources, threat to the current resources, and inadequate return on investments made as claimed by the Conservation of Resources (COR) model (Campbell et al. 2013; Hobfoll and Schumm 2002). Employees therefore do not find themselves in need of exercising withdrawal as a coping mechanism, but they instead perceive the importance of their work both to themselves and the organization as replenishing their resources (Campbell et al. 2013; Hobfoll and Schumm 2002; Kumar and Bhatnagar 2010).

Extant literature shows a lack of a clear common meaning of employee engagement as its conceptualization also varies. This study suggests that its interpretation and application depends on the nature of the work and work environment, and it is here conceptualized as *emotional* and *occupational engagement*. *Emotional engagement* is a self-fulfilling state of mind with a positive influence upon the employee. It is related to vigour and dedication (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004). *Occupational engagement,* on the other hand, focuses on actual work experiences, including one's actual involvement in work performance, the work conditions and challenges. It is associated with absorption (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004), and such work experiences may not highly inspire as compared to emotional factors.

Employee retention and its strategies, and components such as perceived organizational and supervisor support, job satisfaction and organizational commitment are also relative to specific contextual factors (Alfes et al. 2010; Baruch and Winkelmann-Gleed 2002; McIntosh et al. 2015). For example, turnover intentions were stronger in the private compared to the public sector, administration compared education occupation and tertiary compared to postgraduate qualifications.

11.6.2 Policy and practical implications

This study provides rich policy and practical implications for multiple stakeholders within and outside the scholarly community. Section 5.4 expressed limited economic activities in Uganda, while limited job opportunities together with low pay are bemoaned in chapter 9. Government's deliberate strategic efforts towards supporting industrialization and growth of the service industry should result in a vibrant economy with competitive employment opportunities. The role of the economy has indeed been emphasized in influencing the outcomes of retention efforts.

Enacting a legislation that does not only provide a minimum, but a living wage, can become critical in employee retention across different sectors of the country. Lack of the minimum wage legislation is revealed in chapter 9 as a potential cause for exploitation of workers, especially in the private sector. Although it can reduce the total number of employment opportunities, the minimum wage protects low cadre staff from exploitation and ensure more gainful employment, while a living wage results in competitiveness of all sectors in the region and hence reduce on labour exodus to other countries for 'greener pasture' (Lwamafa 2008).

Reviewing and harmonizing the general terms of service for ministries local governments, government agencies and departments (in terms of management and pay structures) can considerably address inter-public sector labour movement. Policy reforms to allow deployment and transfer of both central and local government employees across both government units can go a long way in addressing the challenge of limited opportunities and hence retain both local and central government employees.

Higher turnover intentions for highly qualified staff suggests a series of options such as job rotation, creating career opportunities that support promotions, redesigning and enriching jobs to match employee skills and qualifications. Additionally, re-orientation of the education system and review of institutional curricular to change the belief that a higher qualification leads to a better job search, becomes inevitable.

The study empahasizes the need to develop and implement rigorous on-the-job HR retention strategies, organizational and supervisor support to employees, emotional engagement, job satisfaction, and moral

and emotional commitment, since they are confirmed factors in influencing turnover intention and thus supporting retention. HR policy makers and practitioners need to ensure through different mechanisms such as supportive HR strategies, that employees find their jobs to be self-fulfilling, happy about their jobs and are highly committed, through a feeling of obligation and emotional attachment. The study highlights organizational commitment especially moral and emotional commitment, as the strongest immediate predictor of turnover intention and thus a worthwhile effort towards achieving retention.

The significantly positive finding of the influence of decision authority on turnover intention suggests that employees require meaningful involvement in decision-making and control over their jobs without management's veto and apportionment of blame over such decisions. Employees instead fear risks associated with decisions and job control, which affect turnover intentions.

11.7 Limitations of the study

This study is contextually bound and its findings ought to be interpreted in the context of a developing country, and specifically Uganda. The contextual factors in Uganda are not the same elsewhere, including other developing economies of Africa. The level of development and working conditions, employment opportunities, culture, and legal and institutional frameworks vary across contexts, and they differently influence employment strategies and employee decisions. Even though the current study makes considerable attempts to integrate contextual factors to address such limitations, caution ought to be taken when interpreting the findings.

Most of the models and theories upon which this study is anchored were conceived and tested in the developed world, with limited studies in the developing world. Their conceptualization and findings evidently vary, and such mismatches are likely to affect the findings of this study. The limited or varying interpretation of concepts such as employee engagement and organizational commitment, their constructs and measures, influence the responses which may differ from the original meaning (Bakker and Demerouti 2007). Despite considerable efforts towards accuracy, for example pre-testing and consultation with the developers of some scales (such as employee engagement) for their adaptation, the findings of the current research should still be interpreted in context.

The self-report nature of the quantitative part of the study is prone to common method bias. Some respondents could have opted to simply tick available options to complete the survey, thereby affecting data quality. However, measures were taken for data quality. Firstly, the questionnaire was designed with some reverse-coded questions, and it was pre-tested for correctness, consistency and proper flow and

logic in the questions. Secondly, the scale items were checked for reliability by the Cronbach's alpha to confirm the consistency of the scales. Thirdly, the mixed-method nature of the study, adding qualitative insights to quantitative data allowed for exploration and in-depth analysis of key issues, and this approach strengthened the findings of the study beyond a single design approach. Additionally, the direct personal presence and follow up of the questionnaires, and the conduct of interviews by the principal researcher allowed clarification of any emerging issues in the course of data collection.

The breadth of the study design, covering the three employment sectors (the public, the private, and the NGOs), and the many variables involved, could have limited a deeper analysis of issues. The study involved vast literature review on all the model variables, the methodological design, and analysis. The adoption of systematic literature, the broad time frame of three years, and the team of two highly committed and professional supervisors that provided expert support, were instrumental for the success of the project.

The sample size in terms of the studied organizations and the actual respondents across each of the three sectors and within the selected organizations could have limitations of representativeness. The complex and broad nature of the three sectors resulted in a myriad of approaches in deciding the organizations of study (chapter 6 explains the methods). Acceptability issues by selected organizations limited their objective selection from the targeted education and health service organizations. Lack of clearly established staff lists also limited strict application of systematic approach to the selection of respondents as existent lists were not exhaustive and up to date. Despite the limitations, the researcher worked through available lists vis-à-vis staff on ground, and based on established sample guidelines at design (Krejcie and Morgan 1970) and for data analysis techniques.

Overall, the current study appreciates the contextual and methodological limitations to the application and generalization of the findings of this study. However, it is noted that limitations in "methods do not invalidate the inherent nature of relationships of a theory" (Whetten 1989 p.491). Such limitations are only aimed at providing boundaries for interpretation of the results, and hence become benchmarks for further research.

11.8 Direction for future research and conclusion

The developed model strongly accounts for turnover intention within the context and design of this study of the public, the private and the NGO sectors of Uganda. Further empirical tests and its application to different and related contexts are recommended to confirm such findings and expand the reach of this

study. Firstly, it is important to apply the model to other contexts both in the developing and developed world. Secondly, applying the model to only one sector and specific organization(s) should check the consistency of the model across different scopes.

The unique finding on decision authority as a significantly positive predictor of turnover intention needs further critical analysis in the same and related contexts. This should consider the nature and extent of decisions and control that employees have over their jobs, and risks associated with such decisions together with the way employees respond in the circumstances.

Further studies should examine the factor composition of *employee retention strategies* as a follow up of the finding of this study that reveals *job-entry* and *on-the-job HR retention strategies*. With previous studies having focused on individual items of employee retention strategies such as pay, job security and career while leaving out many others, a new approach that categorizes and studies generally all strategies is encouraged.

Studies examining the psychological contract by subjecting organizational fulfilment against employee expectations while using the established factors instead of individual scale items (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler 2000; Coyle-Shapiro and Parzefall 2008; Robinson and Rousseau 1994) should, firstly, provide a global level analysis of psychological contract (both expectations and fulfilment) and support potential development of psychological contract theory. Secondly, provide the difference if at all any, between the influence of employee expectations and organizational fulfilment, over turnover intentions.

Employee engagement and organizational commitment have, firstly, been less studied in Uganda and other developing countries of Africa and, secondly, their conceptualization and results vary by different studies across different contexts (Alfes et al. 2013; Meyer and Parfyonova 2010; Solinger et al. 2008). The current study established *emotional* and *occupational engagement* instead of the three strands of *vigour, dedication* and *absorption* (Bakker and Demerouti 2008; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004) or *intellectual, affective* and *social* (Alfes et al. 2013) (Alfes et al, 2013), in the case of engagement. On the other hand, *moral* and *emotional commitment*, although quite similar in meaning to *affective* and *normative commitment*, and independent of *continuance commitment* (Allen and Meyer 1990; Meyer and Allen 1991), there is confirmed overlap between the former two-factor scales (affective and normative). This does not only challenge the components of organizational commitment, but its constructs as well (Allen and Meyer 1990; Jaros 1997; Solinger et al. 2008). Additionally, the varying results of some factors such as *occupational engagement*, and *continuance commitment* in relation to turnover intention,

suggest further studies of these concepts and their association with turnover intentions in Uganda, and other developing countries especially in Africa.

The theoretical model in figure 10.1 has only been partially examined for the scope of this study, and the findings here remain representational of the model. Studies examining all the paths of the model, including mediation and moderation effect of the different variables are recommended.

A longitudinal study to follow up with the respondents over time to examine the expressed degree of *turnover intention* against the extent of *actual turnover* would be important in determining *actual turnover* vis-à-vis *retention*, but also re-examine the importance of the generally perceived view that *turnover intention* is a strong immediate predictor of *turnover* (Allen and Meyer 1990; Meyer and Herscovitch 2001; Wang et al. 2011). This would go beyond any limitations imposed by common method and self-reported data discussed above as respondents would be asked about their retention/turnover status with the organization, and the reasons for this.

While future research and attempts to examine turnover intention, turnover, and retention have been predominantly conducted in the developed world with limited studies evidently present in the developing world and more so in Uganda (Addae et al. 2008; Frimousse et al. 2012; Tumwesigye 2010), this study has already contributed towards reducing this imbalance. The study aimed at understanding the components and factors of a model that can explain retention, how such factors are related to and influence turnover intention, and applying the model in Uganda. Both qualitative and quantitative findings reveal some variations as well as similarities in some of the factors of the model. The developed model strongly explains variation in turnover intention by 52% which is relatively good (Blau 2009). Findings on the conceptualization and influence of HR retention strategies, employee engagement and organizational commitment, that provide new ideas, ignite debates that challenge our thinking and understanding. Similarly, decision authority is reported to bear risks especially where management limits employee decisions and control over the job, hence positively influencing turnover intention. The results should be interpreted in context with awareness that the model can generally be adapted to other contexts by considering country, organizational and individual factors. Similar future research in Uganda and other contexts, focusing on the three, two or one sector for specific analysis, conducting a longitudinal study to establish any extent of actual turnover should influence future research on employee retention strategies, organizational commitment and turnover intentions/turnover.

11.9 Reflections on the PhD process

This PhD journey of three years started on 01 October 2014 and has been a holistically developing, but also a considerably challenging experience. Its success has mainly been driven by the professional and effective mentorship provided by the candidate's two highly committed and supportive supervisors. The cordial, professional and supportive relationship has been unequivocal and educative. As an academic, I have gained positive lessons for personal development, future development of academia, the field of HRM, and service to the community.

The engaging and interactive courses offered in the first year of study, for example, Fundamentals and Philosophy of Management Research, Qualitative Methods 1, Understanding statistics, and Qualitative Methods 2, became the bedrock upon which the study Programme was founded. These provided the candidate with knowledge and skills not only for this project, but also for future use.

The systematic literature review established a strong grounding in the knowledge of HRM, HR retention, employee perceptions, employee engagement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention. Although systematic literature was highly challenging due to its rigour and the intermittent malfunctioning of RefWorks and Write-N-Cite, two conference papers (British Academy of Management, at Portsmouth University, and African Research Group, at Weston Hotel in Nairobi) are its products. A third paper has been reviewed by the Methods Matters section of the European Journal of Management and revisions are underway for resubmission for publication.

Training opportunities by the University provided vast knowledge and skills in the areas of general research design, systematic literature review, data analysis and report writing. Some of the training included database searching, data analysis, business proposal writing, and in-text citation using Write-N-cite, which this thesis has relied upon.

Research seminars and presentations, public lectures, and laboratory hands-on experiences organized by the university (at departmental and school levels) provided an interactive learning environment for knowledge and skills development. The PhD journey and this thesis in particular, have been challenging, but highly enriching by providing a holistic approach to personal development. This thesis provides theoretical and empirical contributions to academia, policy makers and practitioners, on the broad issues of employee retention strategies, employee perceptions, employee engagement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention/ intentions to stay and turnover/retention.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 2.1: Key words and strings

1. HR OR "Human Resourc*" OR Staff OR worker* OR Employ* AND Strateg* OR framework OR "frame work" OR Theor* OR Approach* AND Commitment OR Identif* OR retention OR Turnover OR Engagement OR stay* OR Leav*

2. HR OR “Human Resourc*” OR “Human Resourc* Management” OR HRM AND Turnover OR Retention OR Leav* OR Stay* AND Commitment OR Engagement OR Identif*

3. Staff OR Employ* OR Worker*AND Turnover OR Retention OR Leav* OR Stay* AND Commitment

4. Strateg* OR Practic* OR Approach*AND Retention OR Turnover OR Leav* OR Stay* AND Commitment OR Engagement AND NOT patient OR customer* OR consum* OR student* OR patient* OR bed* OR plant OR blood OR veg* OR chemi* OR drug* OR chain OR biolog* OR nutri* OR climate OR purchase* OR stigma* OR football OR ecology OR DNA OR Therapy OR Volunteer* OR Union* OR Food OR Soil

5. Public OR "Civil Service" OR Government OR Private AND Uganda OR Africa OR "Developing World" OR Developing Countr* AND Retention OR Turnover OR Leav* OR Stay* AND Commitment OR Engagement OR Identif* NOT patient OR customer* OR consum* OR student* OR patient* OR bed* OR plant OR blood OR veg* OR chemi* OR drug* OR chain OR biolog* OR nutri* OR climate OR purchase* OR stigma* OR football OR ecology OR DNA OR Therapy OR Volunteer* OR Union* OR Food OR Soil

6. Uganda OR Africa OR "Developing World" OR Developing Countr* AND Retention OR Turnover OR Leav* OR Stay* AND Commitment OR Engagement OR Identif* NOT patient OR customer* OR consum* OR student* OR patient* OR bed* OR plant OR blood OR veg* OR chemi* OR drug* OR chain OR biolog* OR nutri* OR climate OR purchase* OR stigma* OR football OR ecology OR DNA OR Therapy OR Volunteer* OR Union* OR Food OR Soil

Appendix 6.1: Interview guide

UNIVERSITY of STIRLING
Management School
FK9 4LA, Stirling, UK

TOPIC INTERVIEW GUIDE

Dear respondent,

You are requested to provide your views on this PhD study on *Employee Retention Strategies and Organizational Commitment in Uganda*, by responding to a given set of questions. The information you provide will be strictly confidential and anonymous and used for only academic purposes. The interview record will be kept securely and destroyed within two years of any final academic publication.

Participation in this study is voluntary and should be done out of freewill. The interview is planned to last for about 30 – 40 minutes. You are also free to terminate your participation in this study at any stage should you choose so.

If you agree to participate in this study, please sign the provided consent form as confirmation of your acceptance. You are also requested to indicate if you consent to this interview being recorded. The data will be destroyed after the PhD research and any associated academic publications or research are fully completed.

Thank you.

==========

CONSENT FORM

I ..... voluntarily participate in the study titled 'Employ Retention strategies and Organizational commitment in Uganda' being conducted by Seperia Bwadene Wanyama.

Having been clearly explained to the purpose and aim of the study, I willingly accept to volunteer information to the relevant questions on my own without any form of coercion or inducement.

I agree/ do not agree to this interview being recorded, and I agree/ do not agree to the researcher contacting me later to follow up this study (*please cross out whatever is not applicable*).

Signed: ..... Date: .....

No.	Theme	Issues/Questions
1	Components of the model	What are the main factors that explain why employees stay with an employer: a) generally and, b) in a country like Uganda? *(i.e. probe for the main components and how they are linked together to influence employee retention i.e. effect on* a) job satisfaction, b) employee engagement (i.e. enthusiasm, involvement and energy with which they work), *c)* commitment to the organization and, d) turnover intentions (intention to leave)? *)*
2	Model application	How important is each factor identified above in explaining why employees stay with an employer, in a country like Uganda? Do you think these factors differ from those in a more developed economy (like the UK), and if so, how? *(Consider the influence of the different components in view of contextual, sector and individual factors: age, gender, marital status, number of dependants, private vs public, vs NGO; centre-local operations)*
3	Employee Retention Strategies	What are the key strategies/ or factors used in your organization to retain employees, and what effects do such strategies have on: a) job satisfaction, b) employee engagement (i.e. enthusiasm, involvement and energy with which they work), *c)* commitment to the organization and, d) turnover intentions (intention to leave)? *(Probe for the strategies in the model, and why they are important; variations between public/private/NGO)*
4	Employee Perceptions	How do employees perceive the different retention strategies and, what effects do such perceptions have on a) employee expectations from the employer and perceived of employer obligations , b) job satisfaction, c) employee engagement (i.e. enthusiasm, involvement and energy with which they work), *d)* commitment to the organization and, e) turnover intentions? *(probe for perceived organizational and Supervisor support by way of valuing contributions and, motivations and stress arising out of such strategies)*
5	Psychological contract	What is the influence of employee expectations on: a) job satisfaction, b) employee engagement, c) commitment to the organization, and d) turnover intentions? Do your perceptions of the obligations of employers influence job satisfaction, b) employee engagement, c) commitment to the organization, and d) turnover intentions; and if so, how? *(Probe for employee expectations and perceived obligations of the employer and, the extent to which they are actually fulfilled and, how these affect employee's job and well-being).*
6	Job satisfaction and employee engagement	1. What is your assessment of your job in terms of its satisfaction to you and, what are the effects of job satisfaction on a) the commitment of employees to the organization and, b) their turnover intentions? 2. What is your assessment of your job in terms of engagement and, what are the effects of employee engagement on a) the commitment of employees to the organization and, b) on their turnover intentions?
7	Organizational commitment	What is the influence of an employee's commitment to the organization on his/her turnover intentions (intention to leave)? *(Probe for the feelings of attachment to, obligation and loyalty to continue working for the organization and with colleagues as well as investments made in the job*

		that would be lost and available opportunities outside the current organization).
8	Background Information	1. Briefly tell us about yourself (look out for gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, education, religion, number of dependents) 2. Tell us about your work experience (obtain type of organization and duration with each, change of departments within same organization, current position/ management level). 3. Terms of service with your current organization in comparison to the previous organizations (consider type of service contract).

Contact Sheet:

Note:
The researcher would like to make brief contacts with the respondents in future to establishment changes in their work related aspects over time. If you are willing to be contacted, please provide some personal contacts for this purpose only. This information will be kept totally separate from any responses to the questionnaire. It will not be used for any other purpose other than re-contacting you, and it will not be given to any third parties. Please complete the attached sheet for this purpose.

1. Surname: …….. …… Other Name (s): ……...……
2. Position/ Job title: ……
3. Organization: ……...
4. Department: …….
5. Address of work place:

   i. District: …… ii. Telephone number: …….

   iii. E-mail: …… iv. Postal address: ……...
6. Permanent/Home Address (Different from above):

   i. District: …….. ii. Sub county: …….

   iii. Village: ……... iv. Tel. No: ……

   v. Private/alternate e-mail: ……..
7. Any other contact person (Next of kin):

   i. Name: ……..

   ii. Work place (Organization): …….

   iii. District of location (Work): …….

   iv. vii. Telephone number…….…… viii. E-mail: …….……..

THANKS

Appendix 6.2: Survey questionnaire

001

UNIVERSITY of STIRLING
Management School
FK9 4LA, Stirling, UK

Dear respondent,

This is to request you to participate in a study titled 'Employee Retention Strategies and Organizational Commitment in Uganda' by completing the attached survey questionnaire. The study is being conducted in selected organizations across the public, private, and NGO sectors in Uganda.

It is being undertaken as a PhD project by Seperia Bwadene Wanyama at the University of Stirling, UK. Seperia is an Assistant Lecturer at the College of Business and Management Sciences, Makerere University. The information you provide will be used purely for academic purposes (the PhD and associated academic papers) and will be **anonymous** and treated with utmost confidentiality. The recommendations will help inform the study of organizational management.

Participation in this study is voluntary and should be done out of freewill. At any point you can stop your involvement. You are simply requested to participate by responding to the questions set out below.

Please endeavour to answer all the questions following the given instructions. ***Carefully read each statement before ticking the appropriate option*** as they have different meanings, even though some statements could appear similar. It should take you between 20 to 25 minutes (but you have up to 2 days to complete the questionnaire and have it ready for collection). Please put the fully-filled questionnaire in the envelope provided. It will be collected from you by the Researcher or his Assistant.

Your participation will be highly appreciated.

For any information, please contact: Seperia Bwadene Wanyama – 0772 586089, 0701 586089, b.s.wanyama@stir.ac.uk.

Thank you.

::

CONSENT FORM

I agree to voluntarily participate in the study titled 'Employ Retention strategies and Organizational commitment in Uganda' being conducted by Seperia Bwadene Wanyama.

Having been clearly explained to the purpose and aim of the study, I willingly accept to volunteer information to the relevant questions on my own without any form of coercion or inducement.

I agree/ do not agree to the researcher contacting me later to follow up this study (*please cross out whatever is not applicable*).

Signed: ..... Date: .....

SECTION A: ABOUT YOUR JOB

A1. What is the name of your organization? _____

A2. District of Work: _____

A3. How many years in total have you been working at this organization? *(Tick the appropriate box)*

1) Less than 1 year ◯ **2)** 1 to less than 2 years ◯ **3)** 2 to less than 5 years ◯

4) 5 to less than 10 years ◯ **5)** 10 or more years ◯

A4. During these years, have you ever voluntarily (on your own initiative) changed from one department to another within the same current organization? Yes ◯ No ◯

A5. Which of the phrases below best describes your job in your current organization?

1. Permanent – Open time contract and with secure terms of service ◯
2. Renewable contract – Regular terms, but variable-time contract (Renewable) ◯
3. Fixed period – with an agreed end-date (Non-renewable) ◯
4. Part-time – For a specific period or hours ◯
5. Temporary – with no agreed end-date, and not on regular terms ◯

A6. State your profession: _____

A7: Level of management: Manager ◯ **Supervisor** ◯ **Staff** ◯

A8. Did you work anywhere before joining this organization?

1. Yes ◯ 2. No ◯ If No, skip to B1

A9. If *yes*, for how many years did you work with your most previous organization before joining the current one? _____

A10. Please indicate if your previous employer was:

1) Public ◯ **2)** Private ◯ **3)** NGO ◯ **4)** Other: ◯ : Please specify: _____

SECTION B: HR RETENTION STRATEGIES AND EMPLOYEE PERCEPTIONS

B1. To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your organization? (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*).

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Somewhat Agree, 5 = Agree, 6 = Strongly Agree

Code	Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6
EP1	A rigorous selection process is used to select new recruits.						
EP2	The company hires only the very best available candidates for the job.						
EP3	The company hires her employees on merit.						

EP4	The company provides relevant socialization/induction to its employees.						
EP5	I have sufficient training and development opportunities to prepare me to progress in my career.						
EP6	I receive the training I need to do my job.						
EP7	This organization keeps me informed about business issues and about how well it is doing.						
EP8	Team working is strongly encouraged in our organization.						
EP9	Management involves me in making decisions that affect my work.						
EP10	Communication *within* this organization is good.						
EP11	I feel my job is secure for the foreseeable future.						
EP12	The pay rewards I receive are directly related to my performance at work.						
EP13	Total pay for this job is competitive for the type of work in my field/ profession.						
EP14	Career management is given a high priority in this organization.						
EP15	I have the opportunities if I wanted to be promoted						
EP16	The appraisal system provides me and the organization with an accurate assessment of my strengths and weaknesses.						
EP17	I am given meaningful feedback regarding my performance at least once a year.						
EP18	I regularly receive formal communication regarding company goals and objectives.						
EP19	I am allowed to make important work related decisions.						
EP20	I am allowed to initiate and implement new work ideas.						
EP21	My salary is paid on time.						
EP22	My organization has a strong public reputation.						

B2. As an employee, please assess the extent to which you agree whether the organization values your contribution and cares about your well-being.

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Somewhat Agree, 5 = Agree, 6 = Strongly Agree

Code	Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6
POS1	The organization values my contribution to its performance.						
POS2	The organization strongly considers my personal goals.						
POS3	The organization really cares about my well-being.						

B3. On a scale of 6, please indicate the extent to which you agree to the following statements.

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Somewhat Agree, 5 = Agree, 6 = Strongly Agree

Code	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
PD1	My job requires working very fast.						
PD2	My job requires working very hard.						
PD3	My job has no excessive work.						

PD4	I seem never to have enough time to get my work done.						
PD5	I seem to often receive conflicting demands/orders in my job.						
ED1	I feel emotionally drained from my work.						
ED2	I feel used up at the end of the workday.						
ED3	I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.						
ED4	I feel burned out from my work.						
ED5	I feel frustrated by my job.						

B4. On a scale of 6 (from strongly disagree to strongly agree), please indicate the level to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Somewhat Agree, 5 = Agree, 6 = Strongly Agree

Code	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
SD1	My job provides me with opportunities to learn new things.						
SD2	My job has repetitive work.						
SD3	My job requires creativity.						
SD4	My job requires high level skill.						
SD5	My job provides a variety of tasks.						
SD6	My job enables me to develop my own abilities.						

Code	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
DA1	My job allows me to make my own decisions with regard to what I do in my job.						
DA2	My job gives me little decision freedom in terms of deciding how I work.						
DA3	I have a lot of say in my job.						
DA4	My job allows me to make decisions that affect my own work.						
DA5	My job allows me to make decisions that affect my clients.						
DA6	My job allows me to make decisions that influence my co-workers.						

Code	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
SS1	My supervisor is willing to extend a hand in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability.						
SS2	My supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments at work.						
SS3	My supervisor tries to make my job as interesting as possible.						

Code	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
CWS1	My co-workers are competent in their jobs.						
CWS2	My co-workers are generally interested in me as their workmate.						
CWS3	My co-workers are friendly to me.						
CWS4	My co-workers are helpful to me.						

SECTION C: THE INFLUENCE OF THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT

C1. On a scale of 6, indicate the extent to which you believe your employer ***should be obliged to provide*** the following items.

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Somewhat Agree, 5 = Agree, 6 = Strongly Agree

Code	Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6
EO1	Long term job security.						
EO2	Good career prospects.						
EO3	Up to date training and development opportunities.						
EO4	Pay increases to match standards of living.						
EO5	Timely payment of salary						
EO6	Required working tools.						
EO7	Management/ supervisor support.						
EO8	Fair pay for the responsibilities I have in my job.						
EO9	Fringe benefits that are comparable to employees doing similar work in other organizations.						
EO10	Involvement in decision making.						
EO11	Fair performance management process.						
EO12	Promotional opportunities.						
EO13	Conducive work environment.						
EO14	Meaningful retirement benefits.						
EO15	Adequate allowances for work related expenses.						

C2. On a scale of 6, indicate the extent to which you believe that in practice your employer ***actually provides*** the following:

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Somewhat Agree, 5 = Agree, 6 = Strongly Agree

Code	Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6
OF1	Long term job security.						
OF2	Good career prospects.						
OF3	Up to date training and development opportunities.						
OF4	Pay increases to match standards of living.						
OF5	Timely payment of salary						
OF6	Required working tools.						
OF7	Management/ supervisor support.						
OF8	Fair pay for responsibilities I have in my job.						
OF9	Fringe benefits that are comparable to employees doing similar work in other organizations.						
OF10	Involvement in decision making.						
OF11	Fair performance management process.						
OF12	Promotional opportunities.						
OF13	Conducive work environment.						
OF14	Meaningful retirement benefits.						
OF15	Adequate allowances for work related expenses.						

SECTION D: JOB SATISFACTION AND EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

D1. How satisfied are you with each of the following aspects of your job?

1 = Very Dissatisfied, 2 = dissatisfied, 3 = Somewhat Dissatisfied, 4 = Somewhat Satisfied 5= Satisfied, 6 = Very satisfied

Code	Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6
JS1	Generally speaking, I am satisfied with my job.						
JS2	Knowing what I know now, if I had to decide all over again whether to take the job I have now, I would definitely take it.						
JS3	I would recommend a job like mine to a good friend.						

D2. On a scale of 6, please indicate how frequently you feel in your job on each of the following statements.

Never **Rarely** **Sometimes** **Often** **Very Often** **Always**
1 2 3 4 5 6

Code	Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6
EEV1	At my work, I feel bursting with energy.						
EEV2	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.						
EEV3	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.						
EEV4	I feel fit and strong when I am working.						
EED1	I am enthusiastic about my job.						
EED2	My job inspires me.						
EED3	I am proud of the work that I do.						
EEA1	I feel happy when I am working intensely.						
EEA2	I am immersed in my work.						
EEA3	I get carried away when I am working.						
EEA4	My work fully occupies me.						

E: ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND TURNOVER INTENTION

E1. On a scale of 6, please indicate by a tick how true each of the given statements describes your feelings about your organization.

1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Somewhat Agree, 5 = Agree, 6 =Strongly Agree

Code	Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6
AC1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.						
AC2	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.						
AC3	I do *not* feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.						
AC4	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.						
AC5	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.						
AC6	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.						
NC1	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.						
NC2	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.						

NC3	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.						
NC4	This organization deserves my loyalty.						
NC5	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to my colleagues.						
NC6	I owe a great deal to my organization.						
CC1	I have invested too much time in this organization to consider working elsewhere.						
CC2	Leaving this organization now would require considerable personal sacrifice.						
CC3	For me personally, the costs (financial, social, and psychological) of leaving this organization would be far greater than the benefits.						
CC4	I would not leave this organization because of what I would stand to lose.						
CC5	If I decided to leave this organization, too much of my life would be disrupted.						
CC6	I continue to work for this organization because I don't believe another organization could offer the benefits I have here.						
LoAlt1	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.						
LoAlt2	One of the few negative consequences of leaving my organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.						
LoAlt3	What keeps me working at this organization/ company is the lack of opportunities elsewhere.						

E2. On a scale of 6, please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree to each of the statements by ticking in one of the corresponding columns.

1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Somewhat Agree, 5 = Agree, 6 =Strongly Agree

Code	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
TOI1	I often think of leaving this job.						
TOI2	I am actively looking for another job.						
TOI3	It is likely that I will look for another job with a different employer during the next year.						
TOI4	It is likely that I will look for another job, but with the current employer during the next year.						
TOI5	There isn't much to be gained by staying in this job.						

SECTION F: PERSONAL INFORMATION

F1. What is your gender? Male ☐ Female ☐ Prefer not to say ☐

F2. Age Bracket:

24 and below ☐ 25-30 ☐ 31-35 ☐ 36-40 ☐ 41-45 ☐

46-50 ☐ 51-55 ☐ 56-60 ☐ 61 and above ☐

F3. Your current marital status:

Single ☐ Married or living with a partner ☐ Divorced/separated ☐ Widowed ☐

F4. Your highest academic qualification:

O-Level ☐ A-Level ☐ Ordinary Diploma ☐ Advance Diploma ☐

Bachelor's Degree ☐ Postgraduate Diploma ☐ Master's Degree ☐ PhD ☐

Other: ☐ Please specify: _____

F5. Your nationality: Ugandan: ☐ Other ☐ Please specify_____

F6. Home District (District of Origin): _____

F7. Your religion:

Christian ☐ Muslim ☐ Buddhist ☐ Hindu ☐ Jewish ☐ Traditional ☐

None ☐ Other Religion, Please specify: _____; Prefer not to say ☐

F8. Do you have dependent children? YES ☐ NO ☐ If No, skip to F10.

F9. How many dependent children do you have, if any, in the following age groups?

Enter the number of children in the box(es) corresponding their age group(s).

1) 0 – 2 years: _____ **2)** 3 – 4 years: _____ **3)** 5 – 7 years: _____

4) 8 – 11 years: _____ **5)** 12 – 15 years: _____ **6)** 16 – 18 years: _____

F10. Do you have any adult dependent(s) that you look after or give help or support?

1) Yes ☐ (if yes, continue with F10) **2)** No ☐ (if no, end survey; thank you)

F11. If yes, do you live with them? **1)** Yes ☐ **2)** No ☐

Please see the information sheet on the next page.

Contact Sheet:

Note:
The researcher would like to make brief contacts with the respondents in future to establish any changes in their work related aspects over time. You are requested to voluntarily provide some personal contacts for the purpose of only contacting you. The information you provide will be kept totally separate from your responses to the questionnaire. It will not be used for any other purpose other than contacting you, and it will not be given to any third parties. Please complete this sheet for the stated purpose.

8. Surname: …….. …… Other Name (s): ……...……
9. Position/ Job title: ……
10. Organization: ……...
11. Department: …….
12. Address of work place:

    i. District: …… ii. Telephone number: …….

    iii. E-mail: …… iv. Postal address: ……...

13. Permanent/Home Address (Different from above):

    i. District: …….. ii. Sub county: …….

    iii. Village: ……... iv. Tel. No: ……

    vi. Private/alternate e-mail: ……..

14. Any other contact person (Next of kin):

    i. Name: ……..

    ii. Work place (Organization): …….

    iii. District of location (Work): …….

    iv. vii. Telephone number…….…… viii. E-mail: …….……

THANKS

(Kindly check the work to ensure that all relevant Questions on all pages are answered)

Appendix 6.3: Thematic Coding Framework and source/reference summary

Name	Sources	References
Background variables		
Age	9	24
Culture	4	7
Dependence	15	26
Economy	21	64
Education	10	17
Place of Work	7	10
Policies	6	11
Position in Organization	2	4
Private Sector	15	29
Religion/Faith	2	4
Sector	19	53
Social Networks	3	6
Terms of Service	9	18
Employee Engagement	0	0
Absorption	20	47
Dedication	23	61
Vigour	24	49
Employee Expectations	3	3
Career Advancement	11	12
Communication Information On Policies	5	5
Conducive Environment	6	9
Empowerment	2	2
Fairness	5	6
Job Rotation	2	2
Job Security	4	5
Other Benefits	8	10
Policies	2	3
Promotion	6	6
Salary	17	20
Socialization	1	1
Teamwork	3	3
Training & Development	6	6
Work	3	3
Working Tools	4	4
Family	10	19
Gender	8	13
HR Retention Strategies	0	0
Career Planning & Support	18	36
Employee Empowerment	16	26
Flexi-Working Arrangements	1	1
Hiring Practices	8	18
Job Rotation	6	13
Job Security	19	39
Management-Leadership Style	1	1

Other Benefits	17	53
Performance Management	14	27
Promotion	16	30
Public Reputation	4	4
Retirement	8	12
Rewards	25	104
Social Atmosphere & Working Environment	21	44
Team Work	7	11
Training & Development	20	51
Working Tools	7	12
Job Demands	0	0
Emotional Demands	16	30
Psychological Demands	16	26
Job Resources	0	0
Co-Worker Support	10	18
Decision Authority	11	21
Skill Discretion	13	26
Job Satisfaction	24	87
Length of Service	1	1
Marital Status	3	3
NGO Sector	5	13
Organizational Commitment	0	0
Affective	23	66
Continuance	19	48
Low Employment Opportunities	15	45
Normative	21	41
Organizational Fulfilment of Expectations	20	49
Perceptions of Strategies	1	1
Organizational Support	18	35
Supervisor Support	21	64
Turnover Intention	24	87

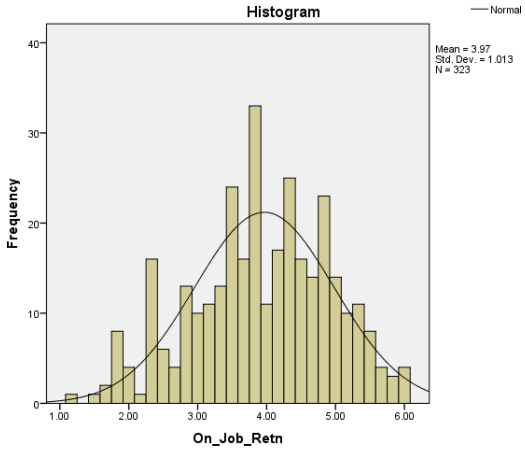
Appendix 6.4: Sample tables of descriptive statistics and graphs of distribution

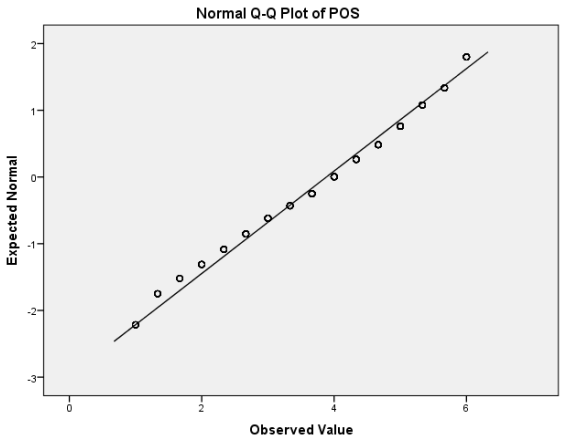
A sample table of descriptives for variables

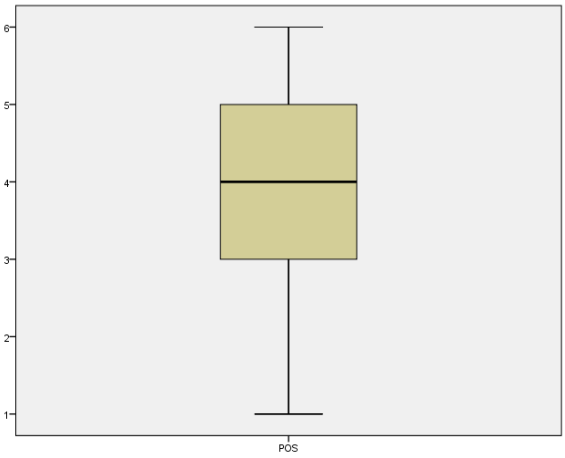
			Statistic	Std. Error
Job_Entry_Prtcs	Mean		4.3965	.05957
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.2793	
		Upper Bound	4.5137	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.4427	
	Median		4.5000	
	Variance		1.217	
	Std. Deviation		1.10333	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		6.00	
	Range		5.00	
	Interquartile Range		1.50	
	Skewness		-.466	.132
	Kurtosis		-.458	.263

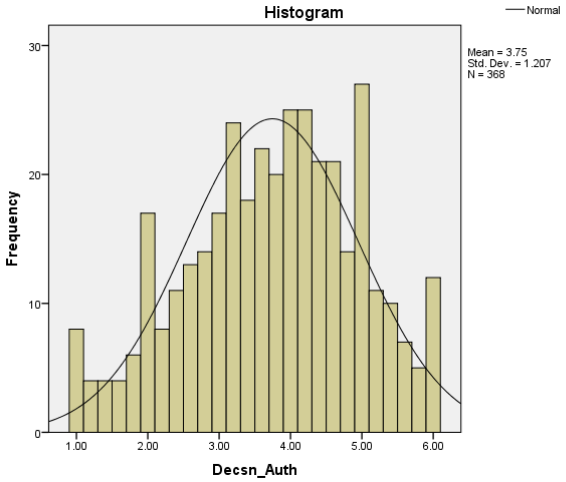
A sample of an output table of extreme values

			Case Number	Value
Job_Entry_Prtcs	Highest	1	12	6.00
		2	15	6.00
		3	18	6.00
		4	27	6.00
		5	31	6.00[a]
	Lowest	1	2	1.00
		2	255	1.50
		3	383	1.75
		4	303	1.75
		5	65	1.75[b]


Histogram
Normal
Mean = 3.97
Std. Dev. = 1.013
N = 323
Frequency
On_Job_Retn


Normal Q-Q Plot of POS
Expected Normal
Observed Value


POS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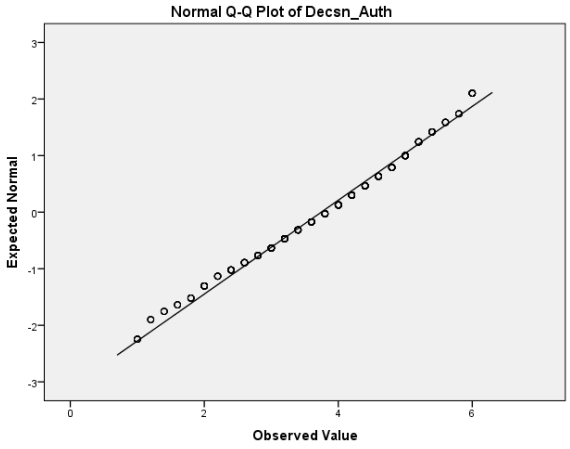
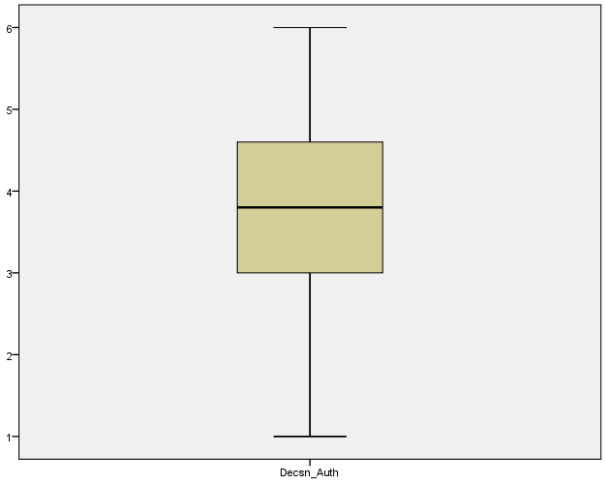
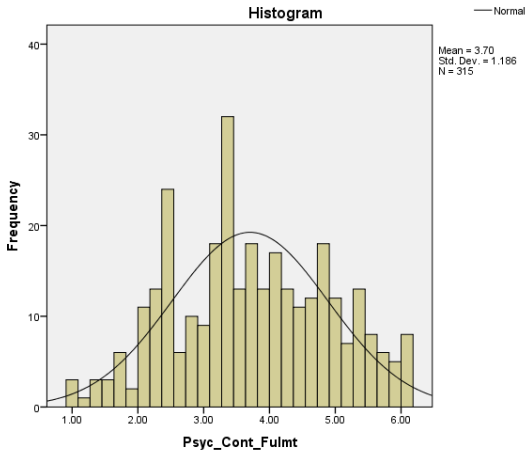
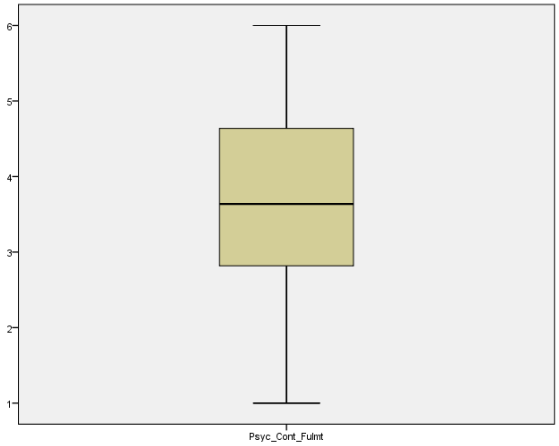
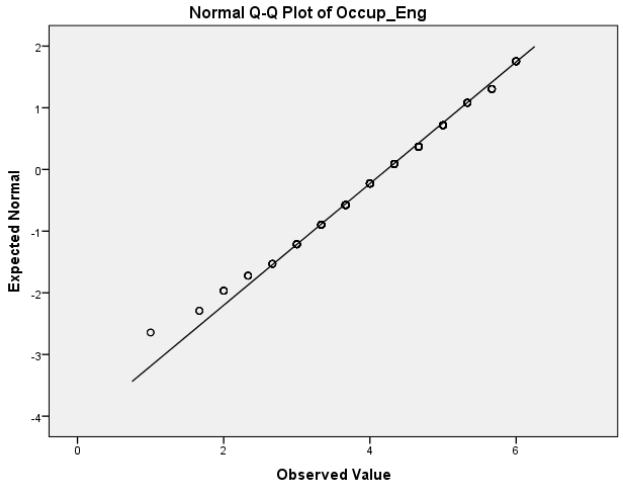
Normal
Mean = 3.75
Std. Dev. = 1.207
N = 368
Frequency
Decsn_Auth

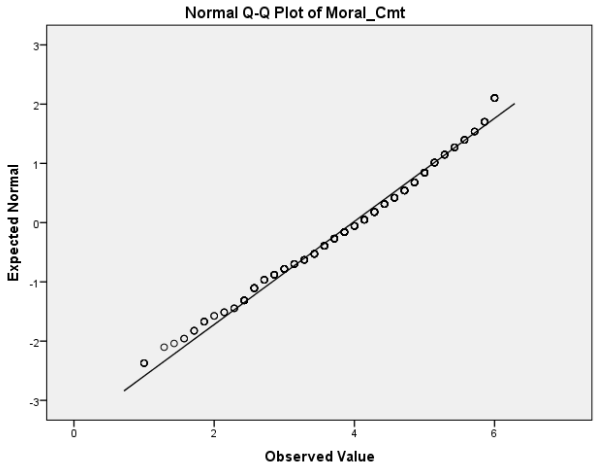

Normal Q-Q Plot of Decsn_Auth
Expected Normal
Observed Value


Decsn_Auth


Histogram
Normal
Mean = 3.70
Std. Dev. = 1.186
N = 315
Frequency
Psyc_Cont_Fulmt


Psyc_Cont_Fulmt


Normal Q-Q Plot of Occup_Eng
Expected Normal
Observed Value


Normal Q-Q Plot of Moral_Cmt
Expected Normal
Observed Value

Appendix A7: A sample output table of factor analysis for employee perceptions of support

Appendix A7.1: Kaizer-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of Sampling adequacy, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for Employee perceptions of support

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.806
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1034.381
	df	15
	Sig.	.000

Appendix A7.2: A table of communalities of items for employee perceptions of support

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
The organization values my contribution to its performance	1.000	.697
The organization strongly considers my personal goals	1.000	.808
The organization really cares about my well-being	1.000	.755
My supervisor is willing to extend a hand in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability.	1.000	.762
My supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	1.000	.765
My supervisor tries to make my job as interesting as possible.	1.000	.793

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

```
VARIABLES POS1 POS2 POS3 SS1 SS2 SS3
```

Appendix A7.3: A table showing the total variance explained by the factors of employee perceptions of support

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.369	56.152	56.152	3.369	56.152	56.152	2.291	38.182	38.182
2	1.210	20.174	76.326	1.210	20.174	76.326	2.289	38.144	76.326
3	.445	7.422	83.748						
4	.383	6.391	90.139						
5	.315	5.246	95.385						
6	.277	4.615	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix A7.4: A Scree Plot for the factors of employee perceptions of support

Appendix A7.5: A table of Parallel Analysis of the factors for employee perceptions of support

```
08-Jan-17   12:34:40 PM
Number of variables:      6
Number of subjects:     387
Number of replications:1000

++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
Eigenvalue #     Random Eigenvalue     Standard Dev
++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
      1               1.1695               .0397
      2               1.0870               .0280
      3               1.0255               .0215
      4               0.9695               .0228
      5               0.9091               .0265
      6               0.8394               .0334
++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
08-Jan-17   12:34:45 PM

Monte Carlo PCA for Parallel Analysis
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```

Appendix A7.6: The un-rotated Component Matrix for employee perceptions of support

Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
My supervisor tries to make my job as interesting as possible.	.825	-.334
The organization values my contribution to its performance	.766	.333
My supervisor is willing to extend a hand in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability.	.757	-.434
The organization really cares about my well-being	.745	.447
The organization strongly considers my personal goals	.714	.546
My supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	.681	-.549

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 2 components extracted.

Appendix A7.7: The Rotated Component Matrix of items for employee perceptions of support

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
The organization strongly considers my personal goals	.891	
The organization really cares about my well-being	.843	
The organization values my contribution to its performance	.777	.305
My supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments at work.		.870
My supervisor tries to make my job as interesting as possible.	.348	.820

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

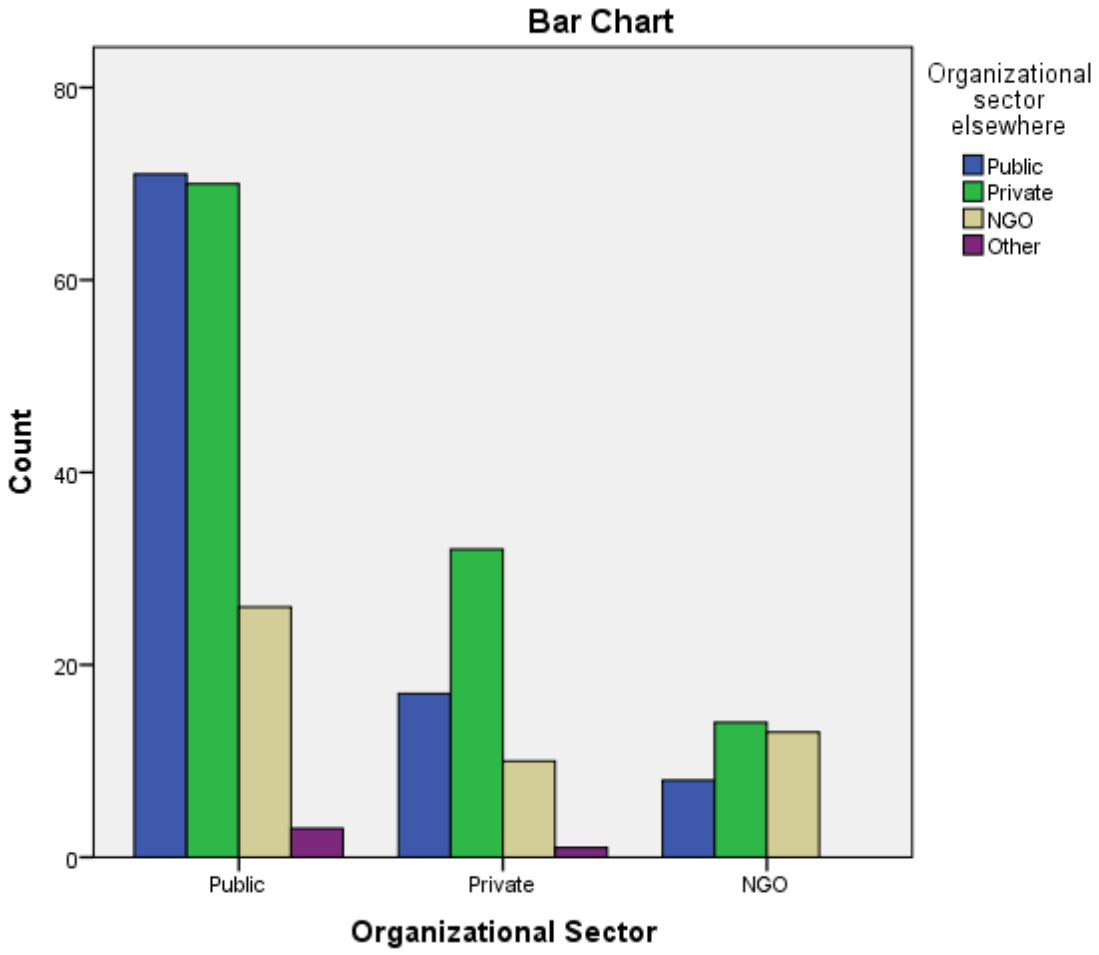
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Appendix: A8 Additional tables and figures of results

Appendix A8.1: Current organizational sector * organizational sector worked in elsewhere

		Organizational sector worked in elsewhere				
		Public	Private	NGO	Other	Total
Current Organizational Sector	Public	71	70	26	3	170
	Private	17	32	10	1	60
	NGO	8	14	13	0	35
Total		96	116	49	4	265

Appendix A8.2: A Bar Chart of organizational sector * organizational sector elsewhere



Appendix A8.3: A vertical step by step results of the hierarchical regression model

Variables	*B*	*SEB*	*ß*	R^2	ΔR^2
Step/Model 1 Enter individual and organizational control variables				*.054*	*.054*
(Constant)	3.39	0.22			
Age 31-40	-0.29	0.22	-0.10		
Age 41-50	-0.23	0.25	-0.07		
Age 51+	-0.52	0.33	-0.11		
Secondary Edu	-0.90	0.43	-0.14*		
Tertiary Edu	-0.70	0.24	-0.20**		
Bachelor's Edu	-0.13	0.22	-0.04		
Gender (F)	-0.05	0.18	-0.02		
Step/Model 2: Addition of employee retention strategies				*.094*	*.040**
(Constant)	3.43	0.26			
Age 31-40	-0.17	0.23	-0.06		
Age 41-50	-0.08	0.26	-0.02		
Age 51+	-0.39	0.33	-0.08		
Secondary Edu	-0.90	0.47	-0.14		
Tertiary Edu	-0.68	0.29	-0.19*		
Bachelor's Edu	-0.26	0.24	-0.09		
Gender (F)	-0.09	0.18	-0.03		
Private Se	0.47	0.22	0.15*		
NGO Se	-0.22	0.28	-0.05		
Education Sv	-0.58	0.25	-0.17*		
Health Sv	-0.32	0.28	-0.09		
Step/Model 3: Addition of employee retention strategies				*.218*	*.124***
(Constant)	5.71	0.44			
Age 31-40	-0.16	0.21	-0.06		
Age 41-50	-0.15	0.25	-0.04		
Age 51+	-0.28	0.31	-0.06		
Secondary Edu	-0.88	0.44	-0.14*		
Tertiary Edu	-0.55	0.28	-0.16*		
Bachelor's Edu	-0.12	0.22	-0.04		
Gender (F)	-0.28	0.17	-0.10		
Private Se	0.36	0.21	0.11		
NGO Se	0.09	0.27	0.02		
Education Sv	-0.61	0.23	-0.18**		
Health Sv	-0.42	0.26	-0.12		
OJHRP	-0.39	0.10	-0.29**		
JEP	-0.16	0.09	-0.13		
Step/Model 4: Addition of perceived organizational support				*.270*	*.052***
(Constant)	5.98	0.46			
Age 31-40	-0.14	0.21	-0.05		
Age 41-50	-0.15	0.24	-0.04		
Age 51+	-0.33	0.30	-0.07		
Secondary Edu	-0.83	0.43	-0.13*		
Tertiary Edu	-0.43	0.27	-0.12		
Bachelor's Edu	-0.08	0.22	-0.03		
Gender (F)	-0.23	0.16	-0.08		
Private Se	0.41	0.20	0.13*		
NGO Se	0.22	0.27	0.05		
Education Sv	-0.59	0.23	-0.17**		
Health Sv	-0.49	0.25	-0.14		
OJHRP	-0.09	0.12	-0.06		
JEP	-0.12	0.08	-0.09		
POS	-0.27	0.09	-0.26**		
PSS	-0.15	0.08	-0.13*		
Step/Model 5: Addition of job demands, job resources and psychological contract				*.325*	*.056***

(Constant)	5.28	0.71			
Age 31-40	-0.10	0.20	-0.04		
Age 41-50	-0.10	0.23	-0.03		
Age 51+	-0.35	0.30	-0.07		
Secondary Edu	-0.62	0.42	-0.10		
Tertiary Edu	-0.36	0.27	-0.10		
Bachelor's Edu	-0.04	0.21	-0.02		
Gender (F)	-0.12	0.16	-0.04		
Private Se	0.44	0.20	0.14*		
NGO Se	0.32	0.26	0.08		
Education Sv	-0.61	0.22	-0.18**		
Health Sv	-0.63	0.25	-0.18**		
OJHRP	-0.07	0.12	-0.05		
JEP	-0.08	0.09	-0.06		
POS	-0.27	0.08	-0.26**		
PSS	-0.13	0.09	-0.11		
EmoJD	0.24	0.07	0.20**		
OccJD	-0.09	0.08	-0.07		
SD	-0.14	0.11	-0.09		
DA	0.18	0.07	0.16*		
CWS	0.08	0.11	0.05		
PsyCo	-0.07	0.08	-0.06		
Step/Model 6: Addition of employee engagement				*.349*	*.023**
(Constant)	5.57	0.71			
Age 31-40	-0.06	0.20	-0.02		
Age 41-50	0.00	0.23	0.00		
Age 51+	-0.25	0.29	-0.05		
Secondary Edu	-0.59	0.41	-0.09		
Tertiary Edu	-0.32	0.26	-0.09		
Bachelor's Edu	0.01	0.21	0.00		
Gender (F)	-0.13	0.16	-0.05		
Private Se	0.43	0.20	0.14*		
NGO Se	0.29	0.26	0.07		
Education Sv	-0.59	0.22	-0.17**		
Health Sv	-0.58	0.25	-0.16*		
OJHRP	-0.07	0.12	-0.05		
JEP	-0.04	0.09	-0.03		
POS	-0.22	0.08	-0.21*		
PSS	-0.10	0.09	-0.09		
EmoJD	0.20	0.08	0.17**		
OccJD	-0.05	0.08	-0.04		
SD	-0.08	0.11	-0.05		
DA	0.18	0.07	0.16*		
CWS	0.09	0.10	0.06		
PsyCo	-0.05	0.08	-0.04		
EmoEE	-0.22	0.11	-0.17*		
OccEE	-0.09	0.09	-0.07		
Step/Model 7: Addition of job satisfaction				*.378*	*.029**
(Constant)	5.61	0.69			
Age 31-40	-0.12	0.20	-0.04		
Age 41-50	0.00	0.23	0.00		
Age 51+	-0.33	0.29	-0.07		
Secondary Edu	-0.49	0.41	-0.08		
Tertiary Edu	-0.32	0.26	-0.09		
Bachelor's Edu	-0.02	0.21	-0.01		
Gender (F)	-0.13	0.16	-0.05		
Private Se	0.48	0.20	0.16**		
NGO Se	0.29	0.25	0.07		
Education Sv	-0.56	0.22	-0.16**		
Health Sv	-0.56	0.24	-0.16*		

OJHRP	0.02	0.12	0.01		
JEP	-0.01	0.08	-0.01		
POS	-0.22	0.08	-0.21*		
PSS	-0.10	0.08	-0.08		
EmoJD	0.18	0.07	0.15*		
OccJD	-0.06	0.08	-0.05		
SD	-0.06	0.11	-0.04		
DA	0.18	0.07	0.16**		
CWS	0.08	0.10	0.05		
PsyCo	-0.03	0.07	-0.03		
EmoEE	-0.08	0.11	-0.06		
OccEE	-0.07	0.09	-0.05		
JS	-0.30	0.09	-0.26**		
Step/Model 8: Addition of organizational commitment				*.520*	*.142***
(Constant)	5.92	0.62			
Age 31-40	-0.01	0.17	0.00		
Age 41-50	0.06	0.20	0.02		
Age 51+	-0.38	0.26	-0.08		
Secondary Edu	-0.37	0.36	-0.06		
Tertiary Edu	-0.10	0.23	-0.03		
Bachelor's Edu	0.23	0.19	0.08		
Gender (F)	-0.11	0.14	-0.04		
Private Se	0.39	0.17	0.13*		
NGO Se	0.52	0.23	0.12*		
Education Sv	-0.48	0.20	-0.14*		
Health Sv	-0.54	0.22	-0.15**		
OJHRP	0.13	0.11	0.09		
JEP	0.02	0.07	0.02		
POS	-0.18	0.07	-0.17*		
PSS	-0.11	0.07	-0.10		
EmoJD	0.19	0.07	0.16**		
OccJD	-0.07	0.07	-0.05		
SD	0.09	0.10	0.05		
DA	0.11	0.07	0.10		
CWS	0.08	0.09	0.05		
PsyCo	0.01	0.07	0.01		
EmoEE	-0.04	0.10	-0.03		
OccEE	-0.03	0.08	-0.02		
JS	-0.10	0.09	-0.09		
MorCmt	-0.28	0.10	-0.23**		
EmoCmt	-0.36	0.06	-0.35**		
ContCmt	-0.11	0.07	-0.10		

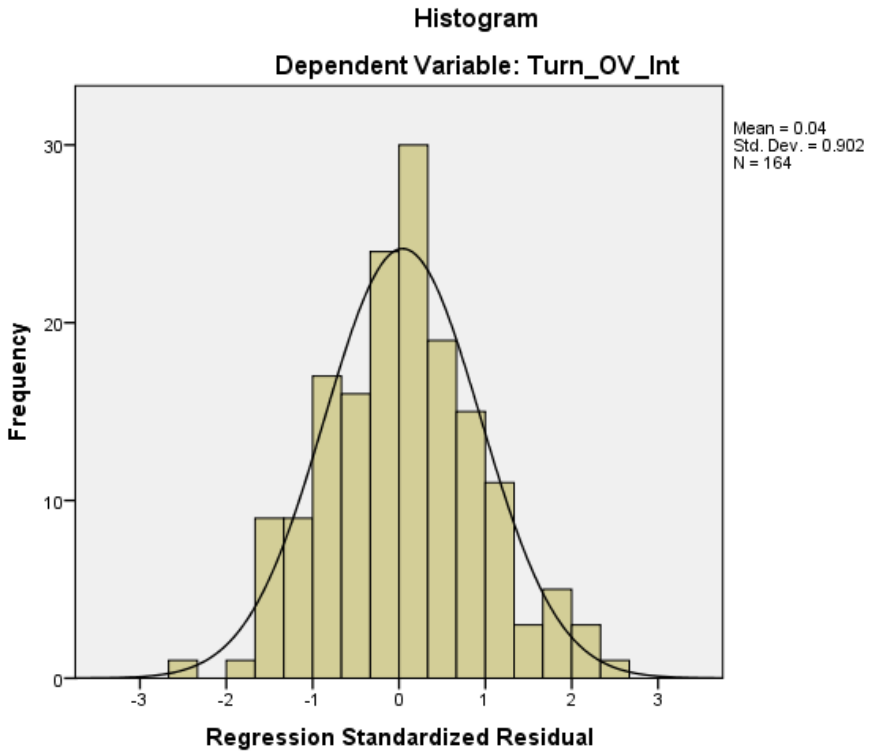
Total $\Delta R^2 = .52$, $p = .00$, Durbin-Watson = 1.93.

**. p < 0.01. *. $p < 0.05$.

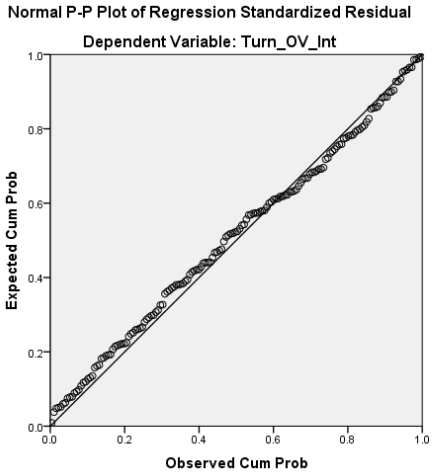
Dependent variable = TOI (Turnover intention). Predictors: OJHRP = On-job-HR practices, JEP = Job entry practices, POS = Perceived Organizational support, PSS = Perceived supervisor support, EmoJD = Emotional job demands, OccJD = Occupational job demands, SD = Skill discretion, DA = Decision Authority, CWS = Co-worker support, PsyCo = Psychological Contract, JS = Job satisfaction, EmoEng = Emotional Engagement, OccEng = Occupational Engagement, MorCmt = Moral commitment, EmoCmt = Emotional Commitment, ContCmt = Continuance Commitment.

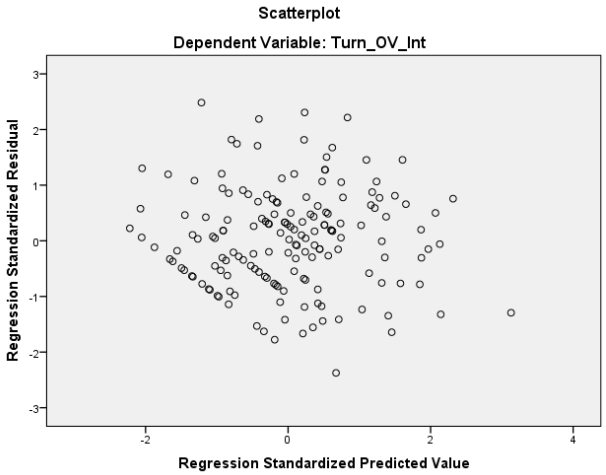
**Reference variables for categorical data: Sector (Se) = Public, Profession of service = Administration, Age category = 30 yrs below, Education = Postgraduate, Gender = Male.

Appendix A8.4: A histogram standardized residuals against turnover intention



Appendix A8.5: A normal probability of residuals against turnover intention





Appendix A8.6: A sample of partial regression plots of some predictors and turnover intention