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A Social Exchange Perspective of Intention to Quit

Shawn Michael Keough

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A SOCIAL EXCHANGE PERSPECTIVE OF INTENTION TO QUIT

By

Shawn Michael Keough

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Faculty of
Mississippi State University
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
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This dissertation introduces a social exchange perspective of intention to quit and examines the relationship of several work-related and non work-related variables with intention to quit. Specifically, the relationships between the following – perceived organizational support (POS), perceived supervisor support (POS), family responsibility, kinship responsibility – and intention to quit were examined. POS and PSS were examined to provide a better understanding of the role each plays in the development of intention to quit. Family responsibility and kinship responsibility were examined because prior research has generally ignored the role each may play in the development of intention to quit.

A cross-sectional design was utilized and data was collected from three prison sites within the Mississippi Department of Corrections (MDOC) using a questionnaire. Correctional officers at each of the three sites were asked to complete a questionnaire,

were told their participation was voluntary and their responses would be held in complete confidentiality, and were given time during working hours to complete the questionnaire. The data collection yielded 392 usable questionnaires. Hierarchical regression was used to analyze the hypotheses.

By utilizing social exchange theory, this dissertation provided a broader theoretical perspective of intention to quit by allowing the inclusion of work-related and non work-related variables. The results provided support for the role POS and PSS play in the development of intention to quit. Specifically, POS and PSS do not appear to have a direct effect on intention to quit. Rather, the relationship seems to be fully mediated by job satisfaction and organizational commitment. No support was found indicating family responsibility or kinship responsibility had an effect on intention to quit. However, possible limitations concerning the measurement of family responsibility and kinship responsibility were noted and further development of these measures may be necessary.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, Gary and Marsha Onley.

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This dissertation could not have been completed without the time, effort, and support of a number of people. Therefore, I wish to acknowledge their contributions.

To Dr. Taylor, thank you for serving as my dissertation chair, mentor, and friend. Your patience, insight, and requirement for rigor throughout the dissertation process created an environment that allowed me to perform good research.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation includes five chapters. This introductory chapter describes why it is important to study intention to quit, introduces social exchange theory and the concepts of inertia and embeddedness, provides an overview of the results, and points out some limitations existing in the current intention to quit literature which this study intends to address. Chapter Two discusses the three major perspectives in which intention to quit has been studied and the major variables considered. Using the theoretical framework of social exchange theory, hypotheses are developed. Chapter Three provides a description of the method to be employed in the study. Chapter Four presents a detailed explanation of the analysis and hypothesis test results. Chapter Five summarizes the results, points out the limitations of this study, and suggests directions for future research.

Dissertation Purpose

Employing the theoretical framework of social exchange, a broader perspective of intention to quit is presented in this dissertation than that provided in past research by considering both work-related and non work-related factors. As will be discussed, the concepts of inertia and embeddedness, incorporated within the theoretical framework of social exchange theory, serve as the means to bridge work- and non work-related factors.

In doing so, non work-related factors largely ignored in previous research, such as family responsibility, kinship responsibility, and personality dimensions, can be examined. Additionally, this dissertation will consider perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support simultaneously which has not been previously done.

Thus, this dissertation extends the intention to quit literature in several important ways. First, a broad theoretical framework is presented which can be utilized to encompass a wide variety of work and non work-related variables in intention to quit studies. Second, the effect of perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support on intention to quit is considered simultaneously. Past research has considered each type of support individually. Third, the effect of family responsibility and kinship responsibility on intention to quit, an area researchers have generally ignored, is examined.

Intention to Quit

A great deal of research has been conducted on factors that impact an individual's intention to quit. Understanding what prompts an individual to consider leaving a current job is important because intention to quit is often the precursor to turnover.

Organizations are interested in decreasing turnover levels because the cost associated with replacing employees is high (Ramlall, 2003; Richard, LeMay, & Taylor, 1995; Steel, Griffeth, Hom, 2002; Tang, 2005). Using the theoretical framework of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), this study will broaden the scope with which intention to quit has been viewed.

Because social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) allows a broad view of turnover intention, this dissertation considers the impact of both work and non work-related factors on the development of intention to quit. As such, the purpose of this dissertation is to present the development of turnover intention as a result of social exchanges and to test expected relationships between intention to quit and:

- Perceived organizational support
- Perceived supervisor support
- Family responsibility
- Kinship responsibility

Intention to quit is the extent to which an employee plans to leave an organization. Stronger feelings of withdrawal intentions typically result in an increased likelihood that the employee will leave (Steel & Ovalle, 1984). An abundance of terms synonymous with intention to quit have been used by researchers including “withdrawal intentions and cognitions” (Maertz & Campion, 1998), “intent to leave” (Barak, Nissly, & Levin, 2001), “turnover intention” (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997), and “propensity to leave” (Murray & Murray, 1998). For purposes of clarity, the phrase “intention to quit” will be used hereafter to describe the extent to which employees feel they will leave an organization.

Intention to quit is behavioral in nature. A number of factors contribute to the development of a person’s intention to quit, some of which are not necessarily job-related (Gaertner & Nollen, 1992). However, identifying all of these factors is a formidable task and researchers are continually trying to develop better models to predict turnover

intentions. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) is used in this study to provide a theoretical framework that addresses behavioral aspects and also permits the consideration of a wide variety of factors that may impact intention to quit, thus allowing a more comprehensive model to be developed.

Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory centers on transactions involving the exchange of valued things, which are not economic in nature (Blau, 1964). The value an individual places on a specific thing can influence the actions a person takes to attain or retain the item. The job setting provides a forum in which exchanges that provide value to the individual constantly occur. Thus, social exchange theory is very applicable. Further, because people try to maximize the value received from exchanges, thus serving self-interest (Lawler & Thye, 1999), the exchanges pertaining to or linked to the job can influence intention to quit

Thus, the question “what causes people to think about leaving?” becomes central in the development of intention to quit. Perhaps just as important is the question, “what prevents people from thinking about leaving?” A recurring word in the literature addressing the latter question is “inertia” (Dodson & Haskew, 1976; Flowers & Hughes, 1973; Parker & August, 1997; Zipperer, 2001). Inertia is the tendency of an object to remain at rest or in motion until another force acts upon it. While inertia has been studied in the context of consumer cognitions in marketing (Banerjee & Bandyopadhyay, 2003; Fishman & Rob, 2003; Mattila, 2003) and organizational structure (Guillen, 2002; Kelly & Amburgey, 1991; Peli, Polos, & Hannan, 2000; Reger, Gustafson, Demarie, &

Mullane, 1994), it has not been explored in detail concerning intention to quit (Dodson & Haskew, 1976; Flowers & Hughes, 1973; Parker & August, 1997; Zipperer, 2001).

The unfolding model of voluntary employee turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) implicitly addresses the role of inertia. This model provides four paths followed by employees when they consider leaving an organization. Three of the four paths involve a “shock” which sufficiently “jars employees toward deliberate judgments about their jobs and, perhaps, to voluntarily quit their job” (p. 61). These “shocks” could be considered forces that disrupt the inertia an employee has toward staying with an organization, leading to higher intention to quit. With relation to social exchange theory, inertia can be likened to the job-related exchange relationships that an individual is currently maintaining. When job-related relationships are balanced, inertia occurs and the relationships carry on smoothly. Inertia continues until some event upsets the relationship balance, or produces a “shock” that jolts the individual out of their inertial state. An event could include the introduction of a new job-related exchange relationship, a change in the current exchange relationship, or even something happening outside the work environment. The “shock” these events produce causes the individual to assess the value of their current exchange relationships.

Job embeddedness, a construct developed by Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, and Erez (2001), specifically addresses many issues that may affect intention to quit, inertia, and the impact of “shocks.” Mitchell et al. (2001) proposes that as employees become more embedded, or attached to the organization, the less likely they are to leave voluntarily. Embeddedness ties directly to social exchange theory. As an individual’s

network of exchange relationships develops, the individual may be loath to sever the relationships in the network. Mitchell et al. (2001) likens this phenomenon to being trapped in a net or web. Individuals become trapped due to the three major components of embeddedness; links, fit, and sacrifice. Each of these components is expected to decrease an employee's level of intention to quit by reducing the impact "shocks" or other forces might have. Essentially, as individuals become more embedded to their job through the development of strong job-related exchange relationships, the harder it should be to disrupt the balance, or inertia, of those relationships. However, the existence of non work-related exchange relationships may have the ability to stymie the balance of even a strong job-related exchange relationship.

Limitations of Past Research

Previous research has generally ignored non work-related factors (Maertz & Campion, 1998; Miller & Labovitz, 1973) such as family responsibility and kinship responsibility. In fact, despite repeated encouragement spanning 30 years to include these variables in intention to quit studies, little has been done to incorporate them (Dreher, 1982; Price, 2001; Sauber, Snyir & Sharifi, 1991; Sussman & Cogswell, 1971). Establishing that the exchange relationships developed due to family responsibility and kinship responsibility have a significant impact on intention to quit could kindle new research streams that increase the relatively low predictive accuracy of turnover and retention models. Additionally, considering demographic issues, such as the changing structure of the workforce and its effect on family and kinship responsibility, could provide clearer insight into intention to quit.

Another non work-related factor that has been excluded in intention to quit studies is the aspect of personality, specifically the Big Five personality dimensions. While the Big Five personality dimensions have been included in some types of research (e.g., job performance), studies involving them in intention to quit are lacking. An individual's personality could have considerable impact on how they view, process, and handle exchange relationships. Thus, personality may play a part in the development of intention to quit much like it has contributed to models involving job performance.

Unlike family responsibility, kinship responsibility and personality, perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support have received a great deal of attention in intention to quit studies. However, perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support have not been considered simultaneously. Including both in a single study could help identify the relative importance of each type of support with regard to employee attitudes.

Methodology

Sample, Design & Measures

The sample for this study was drawn from three Mississippi Department of Corrections (MDOC) facilities. The three facilities employ approximately 1,600 total employees. However, only employees serving as correction officers directly involved in the day-to-day care and supervision of prison inmates were included in the study.

A cross-sectional design was utilized to obtain the data for this study. A one-day period was spent collecting data at each of the three site locations. As each site requires

all correction officers of each shift (three shifts daily) to muster at specific locations to receive their daily assignments, it was announced at each of the three daily musters that the study was being conducted, that participation was voluntary, and that employees could take the time to fill out a survey before starting their workday.

The survey consisted of established scales that measured a variety of variables: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisor support, family responsibility, kinship responsibility, met expectations, external opportunity, two personality dimensions (conscientiousness and agreeableness), social desirability, and intention to quit. Demographic questions about gender, ethnicity, tenure, age, and education were also included. To help increase participation rates, a drawing was held in which participants had the opportunity to win cash prizes. The data collection efforts resulted in a total of 392 (42.5% response rate) usable surveys.

Analysis

Before any analysis was performed pertaining to hypotheses, an internal reliability measure test (Cronbach's coefficient alpha) and a factor analysis (generalized least squares with an equamax rotation) were run. While the internal reliability measure did not indicate any major problems, the factor analysis revealed cross-loading problems. Using methods suggested by Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998) and Podsakoff and Organ (1986), the cross-loading problems were resolved. In resolving the cross-loading problems, one scale - social desirability - was completely removed from the study and several items from other scales were removed.

After measuring internal reliabilities and performing the factor analysis, simple linear regression and hierarchical regression analysis were used to test the hypotheses. Simple linear regression was used to test Hypotheses 1 and 2. Hierarchical regression was used to test the remaining hypotheses. A list of the hypotheses tested can be found in Table 1.1.

Results

Direct Effects

Five hypotheses involved direct effects. Met expectations was posited to have a direct effect on perceived organizational support (Hypothesis 1) and perceived supervisor support (Hypothesis 2). The remaining three posited that difficulty in finding alternative employment (external opportunity; Hypothesis 3), family responsibility (Hypothesis 10) and kinship responsibility (Hypothesis 12); would be negatively related to intention to quit. Results indicated support for Hypothesis 1, 2 and 3. Hypotheses 10 and 12 were not supported.

Moderation Effects

Four hypotheses involved moderation effects. Difficulty in finding alternative employment (external opportunity) was posited to moderate the relationship between each of the following; organizational commitment (Hypothesis 4), job satisfaction (Hypothesis 5), family responsibility (Hypothesis 11), and kinship responsibility (Hypothesis 13); and intention to quit. Results indicated no support for any of the moderation hypotheses.

Table 1.1 Hypothesis Summary

Hypothesis		Results
1	Met expectations will be positively related to POS	Supported
2	Met expectations will be positively related to PSS	Supported
3	Lack of external opportunity will be negatively related to intention to quit	Supported
4	Lack of external opportunity increases the negative relationship between organizational commitment and intention to quit	Not Supported
5	Lack of external opportunity increases the negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit	Not Supported
6	Organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between POS and intention to quit	Supported
7	Job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between POS and intention to quit	Supported
8	Organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between PSS and intention to quit	Supported
9	Job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between PSS and intention to quit	Supported
10	Family responsibility will be negatively related to intention to quit	Not Supported
11	Lack of external opportunity increases the negative relationship between family responsibility and intention to quit	Not Supported
12	Kinship responsibility will be negatively related to intention to quit	Not Supported
13	Lack of external opportunity increases the negative relationship between kinship responsibility and intention to quit	Not Supported

Mediation Effects

Four hypotheses involved mediation effects. Organizational commitment was posited to mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and intention to quit (Hypothesis 6) and perceived supervisor support and intention to quit (Hypothesis 8). Job satisfaction was posited to mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and intention to quit (Hypothesis 7) and perceived supervisor support and intention to quit (Hypothesis 9). Results indicated support for all four hypotheses.

Research Contributions

This dissertation extends the current body of knowledge in several ways. First, by using the theoretical framework of social exchange, a broader perspective of intention to quit was introduced. This perspective provided a theoretical rationale for the inclusion of work and non work-related factors in this intention to quit study. Other researchers will be able to build off the theoretical base presented in this dissertation to include a number of other work and non work-related factors in future intention to quit studies.

Second, a clearer picture of the role POS and PSS plays in the development of intention to quit was provided. It appears that POS and PSS do not directly affect intention to quit. Rather, they serve a more distal role through organizational commitment and job satisfaction, and serve as important components in establishing an exchange relationship between organizations and employees.

Third, this dissertation addresses two frequently ignored variables in prior research: family responsibility and kinship responsibility. While no support was

provided, it seems illogical that family responsibility and kinship responsibility would have no effect on intention to quit. Based on the premises of social exchange theory, the relationships built between immediate and extended family members through a life-time of exchanges could guide decisions made by individuals for a variety of things, not just whether or not a person decides to leave their job. However, as noted in the limitations section, inadequate measures of family responsibility and kinship responsibility and/or low analytical power could have contributed to non-significant findings.

A final interesting result was noted. Although included in this dissertation as a control variable, the personality dimension “agreeableness” had a significant relationship with intention to quit. To date, no other studies indicated that agreeableness might have an effect on intention to quit. While this result may be unique to this study, it is possible that agreeableness can offset intention to quit in other professions involving high levels of stress and constant interaction with a large number of people. Having a high level of agreeableness may provide individuals a “buffer” of sorts to make social exchanges less stressful or more rewarding for the individual. However, further research is necessary to determine whether agreeableness has the same effect in other studies.

Study Limitations

Several limitations must be noted about this dissertation. First, the use of a cross-sectional study design does not allow causality to be assumed. A longitudinal study with data collected at several different times would be necessary to predict intention to quit with any confidence.

A second limitation involves the subjects used in this study. The sample involves only a single organization and the results may be unique to this sample rather than generalizable. Additionally, the unique profession of the sample - correction officers - may not be generalizable to other professions.

A third limitation stems from the lack of scale development within the family responsibility and kinship responsibility literature. The current indexes have seen little development and may lack relevant aspects of the constructs they intend to measure. Thus, the results of this study may not be a true reflection of the effect family responsibility and kinship responsibility has on intention to quit.

Another limitation involves two of the measures used in the study. The first involves the use of a two-item measure. This study used a two item measure of job satisfaction. The use of single or two item measures is not generally recommended because critical aspects of the construct in question may not be fully captured (Hair et al., 1998). The second limitation involves the agreeableness scale. The Cronbach's alpha for the agreeableness scale ($\alpha = .66$) was slightly below the suggested internal reliability level of .70. Therefore, because of the global nature of the job satisfaction scale used and the low internal reliability of the agreeableness scale, caution should be exercised when considering the results pertaining to these constructs.

A final item limits the precision of this dissertation's findings. Due to the inclusion of multiple interaction terms in the model tested, the power of the statistical analyses was well below suggested levels. Thus, it is possible that some relationships existed, but the power was too low for proper detection.

Conclusion

While this study did provide some additional insight into the development of intention to quit, it left many questions unanswered. As such, a great deal of additional research is still required to better understand those factors which lead to intention to quit. The framework developed in this dissertation and the findings of this study will provide a theoretical means to guide that research.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The intention to quit literature is reviewed in this chapter. Drawing upon three major perspectives (Iverson & Roy, 1994) (Table 2.1), research pertaining to intention to quit (Table 2.2 and 2.3) is discussed. Hypotheses are then developed using the theoretical framework of social exchange theory.

Perspective Views

Iverson and Roy (1994) identify three major perspectives researchers have used in the study of intention to quit. These are the economic, psychological, and sociological perspectives. Each perspective focuses on different variables and contributes to a better understanding of an individual's reasoning to leave an organization.

Economic Perspective

The economic perspective assumes a cost/benefit analysis is conducted by employees whereby employees carefully consider all aspects of employment decisions, and that they always choose the organization providing the highest tangible benefits (Gitlow, 1971). Employees do this by weighing the benefits of staying with an organization against the costs of leaving it (Iverson & Roy, 1994). Therefore, by comparing items such as pay, opportunity for professional growth (e.g., promotions), and

safety issues between jobs, employees make decisions based on a combination of objective and subjective measures. Maertz and Campion (1998) suggests this process becomes a valence-instrumentality-expectancy calculation (Vroom, 1964) on the part of the employee, with the organization that scores the highest in overall outcomes being the one in which the employee chooses to work. Research supports the idea that employees actively engage in these cost/benefit analyses (Hyman, 1970; Mattila, 1974; Parsons, 1973), as reflected in the number of employees who secure new employment before they leave their current organization (Barak, Nissly, & Levin, 2001; Mattila, 1974).

Psychological Perspective

The psychological perspective considers employee affective responses to the general environment of the organization. If the environment of the organization is considered unsuitable by the individual, then some kind of affective response will be initiated (Dalton & Todor, 1979). For example, employees bring with them certain expectations about an organization. When those expectations are not met, intention to quit is impacted (i.e., employees tend to leave). Meeting or exceeding expectations results in maintaining or reducing the individual's intention to quit. Other organizational related variables that may elicit an affective response include realistic job previews, psychological contracts, job satisfaction, job security, perceived organizational support, and perceived supervisor support.

Sociological Perspective

The sociological perspective combines aspects of both the economic and psychological perspectives as well as including a structural component (Forrest, Cummings & Johnson, 1977; Iverson & Roy, 1994; Price, 1977). The structural component is the level of formalization or standardization an organization places on employee behavior. The structural component sets parameters as to how work is to be performed (e.g., standardized work processes) and can affect employee work behavior as well as elicit affective responses. Because the sociological perspective combines aspects of both the economic and psychological perspectives, considerable overlap among the variables considered occurs.

Variable Types and Impact on Intention to Quit

The three perspectives previously discussed are comprised of multiple variables. Iverson and Roy (1994) identify four classes in which these variables seem to fit (see Table 2.1): pre-entry, structural, environmental, and employee orientation variables. Because quit intentions are considered the best predictor of turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000), it is important to understand the variables which influence intention to quit. Therefore, a detailed explanation of the variables within each class and the impact of those variables on intention to quit as evidenced through prior studies will be presented in the next few pages. To provide the reader with a quick reference of each study cited on the following pages, a brief description and the findings of the studies cited are summarized in Tables 2.2 and 2.3.

Table 2.1 Variables by Class and Perspective

Variable Class:	Variable:	Originating Perspective
Pre-Entry	Met Expectations	Psychological
	Psychological Contract	Psychological
	Realistic Job Preview	Psychological
Structural	Pay	Economic
	Internal Opportunity	Economic
	Perceived Supervisor Support	Psychological
	Perceived Organizational Support	Psychological
	Management Style	Sociological
	Equity	Economic Psychological
	Stress	Psychological
	Organizational Justice	
	Safety	Economic
	Job Security	Economic
Centralization	Sociological	
Environment	External Opportunity	Economic
	Community Relations	Sociological
	Family Responsibility	Economic Sociological
	Kinship Responsibility	Economic Sociological
	Normative Pressure	Sociological

Table 2.1 (continued)

Variable Class:	Variable:	Originating Perspective
Orientation	Job Satisfaction	Psychological
	Organizational Commitment	Psychological Economic Sociological
	Professional Commitment	Psychological
	Job Search	Psychological
Other	Demographics	???
	Personality	???

Table adapted from Iverson & Roy, 1994

Table 2.2 Empirical Studies of Variables Affecting Intention to Quit

Study	N	Intention to Quit Items	Sample
Lo & Aryee (2003)	152	3	Chinese Employees
Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid, & Sirola (1998)	361	3	Nurses
Geurts, Schaufeli, & Rutte (1999)	90	2	Healthcare Professional
Abraham (1999)	108	3	Service Industry
Liou (1998)	109	1	Detention Workers
DeConinck & Bachmann (1994)	336	4	Marketing Managers
Lambert, Hogan, & Barton (2001)	1095	1	National Sample
Weisberg & Kirschenbaum (1991)	589	1	Israeli National
Chang (1999)	227	3	Institute Researchers
Klenke-Hamel & Mathieu (1990)	187	2	Blue Collar
	272		Staff
	92		Engineers
	69		University Faculty

Table 2.2 (continued)

Study	N	Intention to Quit Items	Sample
Motowidlo (1983)	89	2	Sales Reps
Aryee & Chay (2001)	187	3	Singapore Union
Larwood, Wright, Desrochers, Dahir (1998)	259	6	General Employees
Lachman & Aranya (1986)	344	2	CPA Partners & Sole Prac.
	150		CPA Acct. Firms
	298		CPA Bureau. Org.
Good, Sisler, & Gentry (1988)	595	N/A	Retail Executives
Aryee, Wyatt, & Min (1991)	245	2	Singapore Accountants
Jenkins (1993)	183	2	Fluid Power Plant Emp.
Turnley & Feldman (2000)	804	6	Managers
Futrell & Parasuraman (1984)	263	1	Salespeople

Table 2.2 (continued)

Study	N	Intention to Quit Items	Sample
Fogarty, Singh, Rhoads & Moore (2000)	188	3	CPAs
Griffith & Hom (1988)	244	2	Nurses
Turnley & Feldman (1999)	804	6	Managers
Hsu, Jiang, Klein, & Tang (2003)	153	3	IS Professional
Harrington, Bean, Pintello, & Mathews (2001)	106	5	Air Force Officers
Blegen, Mueller, Price (1988)	180	1	Hospital Employees
Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs (2000)	380	3	Production Employees
Chan (2001)	160	2	Singapore Entry Admin
Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness (1999)	276	3	Masters Alumni

Table 2.3 Intention to Quit Studies and Variable Relationships

Studies	OC	PC	JS	IO	EO	PSS	POS	RC	RA	Equity	DJ	PJ	Auto	Pay	Kin	Psy	Met	Fam	Gen	Age	Ten	Educ	Exp
Lo, 2003																*			n.s.	n.s.	n.s.		
Lum, 1998	*		*											+				*	n.s.				+
Geurts, 1999	*									+													
Abraham, 1999										*									n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	
Liou, 1998			*																*	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	
DeConinck, 1994	*			+							+							n.s.			n.s.		
Lambert, 2001			*		*			n.s.					n.s.	n.s.					n.s.	*	*	n.s.	
Weisberg, 1991			*	*																*	*	n.s.	
Chang, 1999	*			n.s.		n.s.														n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	
Klenke, 1990			*					*	*										*	n.s.		*	
Motowidlo, 1983			*											n.s.						n.s.	n.s.		
Aryee, 2001							n.s.				n.s.	*							n.s.	*	*		
Larwood, 1998			*		*											*							
Lachman, 1986	*	+	*																				
Good, 1988	*		+					+	+														
Aryee, 1991	*	n.s.	*																				
Jenkins, 1993	*		*																n.s.	n.s.	n.s.		
Turnley, 2000			*													*	*		*	*	n.s.		
Futrell, 1984			*	*		*								n.s.									
Fogarty, 2000								*	*														
Griffith, 1988			*		*																		
Turnley, 1999					*							*				*			*	*	n.s.		
Harrington, 2001			*	*		n.s.								*					n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	
Blegen, 1988																		*					
Bishop, 2000	*							+															
Chan, 2001	*		*					+															
Thompson, 1999						*													n.s.	n.s.	n.s.		
Rhoades, 2002								*															

* p < .05; + indirect relationship through another variable; n.s. not statistically significant

OC = Organizational Commitment, PC = Professional Commitment, JS = Job Satisfaction, IO = Internal Opportunity, EO = External, PSS = Perceived Supervisor Support, POS = Perceived Organizational Support, RP = Role Conflict, RA = Role Ambiguity, DJ = Distributive Justice, PJ = Procedural Justice, Auto = Autonomy, Kin = Kinship Responsibility, Psy = Psychological Contract, Met = Met Expectations, Fam = Family Responsibility, Gen = Gender, Ten = Tenure, Educ = Education, Exp = Experience

Pre-entry Variables

Pre-entry variables are based on the expectations employees have prior to arriving at the organization, and are primarily drawn from the psychological perspective. Pre-entry variables are often driven by an individual's impression of the organization during the hiring process. Pre-entry variables include met expectations, psychological contracts, and realistic job previews (see Table 2.1).

Met Expectations

Met expectations are “the extent to which one's expectations concerning organizational life have been met on the job” (Spencer & Steers, 1980). By meeting or exceeding the expectations of employees, organizations can decrease an individual's level of intention to quit (Turnley & Feldman, 2000). Met expectations have also been found to directly affect job satisfaction (Michaels & Spector, 1982), another precursor to intention to quit (Aryee, Wyatt, & Min, 1991; Chan, 2001; Jenkins, 1993; Lachman & Aranya, 1986).

Psychological Contracts

Turnley and Feldman (2000) describe psychological contracts as an “individual's beliefs regarding the terms and conditions of an exchange agreement between themselves and their organizations” (p. 25). Psychological contracts can be based on any implicit or explicit agreement. Negative outcomes often result when the employee perceives a failure by the organization to fulfill any obligations included in the psychological contract (Turnley & Feldman, 2000). These outcomes include increased intention to quit, actual

turnover, burnout, and unmet expectations along with decreased job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust in the organization, and job performance (Larwood, Wright, Desrochers, & Dahir, 1998; Lee, 2001; Lo & Aryee, 2003; Robinson, 1996; Turnley & Feldman, 1999, 2000).

Realistic Job Previews

Realistic job previews (RJPs) are accurate depictions that present both desirable and undesirable aspects of a job to potential job candidates (Meglino, DeNisi, & Ravlin, 2000; Phillips, 1998; Rynes, 1991). Exposure to candid positive and negative information regarding jobs allows applicants to address four psychological mechanisms; self-selection, met expectations, trust and honesty, and ability to cope (Breugh, 1983; Dugoni & Ilgen, 1981). Through these four psychological mechanisms, RJPs generally produce two positive outcomes for organizations. First, satisfaction with the job tends to be higher when RJPs have been utilized (Wanous, 1980). Second, voluntary turnover is lower (Phillips, 1998; Reilly, Brown, Blood, & Maletesta, 1981).

Since the late 1950's, considerable time and effort has been devoted to the study of RJPs. This is reflected by the number of meta-analyses performed by researchers (McEvoy & Cascio, 1985; Meglino, DeNisi, & Ravlin, 2000; Phillips, 1998). Research in this area has typically examined the relationships between RJPs and the two primary attitudinal determinants of intention to quit, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Colarelli, 1984; Dilla, 1987; Hicks & Klimoski, 1987). A meta-analysis by Phillips (1998) indicates RJPs increase job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Structural Variables

Structural variables are factors specific to the work setting. Structural variables can be found in the economic perspective (pay, safety issues, and opportunity for professional growth), the psychological perspective (job security, perceived organizational support, and perceived supervisor support), and the sociological perspective (standardization of practices and forms of leadership; centralized, decentralized) (see Table 2.1).

Pay

Pay consists of money (in the form of wages or salaries), benefits (e.g., medical/dental/life/ disability/accident insurance, paid vacation/sick leave) (French, 1998; Jackson & Schuler, 2003), and any other financially related item provided to an employee for work performed. The inclusion of pay in intention to quit models has produced fairly consistent results. Motowidlo (1983) found pay had a direct effect on intention to quit in a sample of sales representatives. Similar results have been found using nursing home employees (Newman, 1974), a national sample of the U.S. general population (Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001), and nurses (Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid, & Sirola, 1998). In addition to a direct effect, pay often has an indirect effect on intention to quit through job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001; Lum et al., 1998).

Pay practices of an organization also can have an impact, albeit limited, on turnover. However, critics argue that many studies do not provide enough variance in the pay and the intention to quit variables to capture adequately the relationship between pay

and turnover (Steel & Griffeth, 1989; Steel, Shane, & Griffeth, 1990). Guthrie (2000), using a sample of New Zealand firms, found skill-based pay systems led to decreased turnover rates while group incentive plans led to increased turnover rates.

Internal Opportunities

Internal opportunities are “opportunities to learn new techniques and strategies” (Gersten, Keating, Yovanoff, & Harniss, 2001), as well as the availability of alternative jobs (Berg, 1991) or promotional opportunities within a given organization (Price & Mueller, 1986). Internal opportunities typically affect intention to quit indirectly through organizational commitment (Chang, 1999; DeConinck & Bachmann, 1994). However, using an Israeli national sample, Weisberg and Kirschenbaum (1991) found internal opportunities had a direct effect on intention to quit.

Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support (POS) is based on the idea that “employees develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being” (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986, p. 501). POS has been found to correlate with intention to quit (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000; Chan, 2001). However, further analysis found POS had an indirect effect on intention to quit through organizational commitment (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000).

Perceived Supervisor Support

Perceived supervisor support (PSS) is an employee's perception "concerning the degree to which supervisors value their contributions and care about their well-being" (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002). Results concerning the relationship between PSS and intention to quit are mixed. For example, Chang (1999) found an indirect effect of PSS on intention to quit through affective commitment. However, in a similar study, Thompson, Beauvais, and Lyness (1999) found a direct effect of PSS on intention to quit.

Equity

Equity theory is based on the perception of an employee's job outcomes to inputs compared to a referent others' job outcomes to inputs (Adams, 1963). Outcomes typically include, but are not limited to, all the components of pay. When an employee perceives a difference between the ratio of his/her outcomes to inputs and the referent others' outcomes to inputs, inequity can exist.

Perceived inequity has several effects on intention to quit. Abraham (1999) found equity directly affected intention to quit, and also had an indirect effect through job satisfaction. Other studies (Berg, 1991; Miner, 1980) found inequity decreased satisfaction with a job. Using hierarchical regression, Geurts, Schaufeli and Rutte (1999) found that the relationship between equity and intention to quit was fully mediated by organizational commitment. This suggests that equity may only have an indirect effect on intention to quit because the Abraham (1999) study did not consider organizational commitment. Studies including both job satisfaction and organizational commitment,

along with equity, are necessary to determine the actual impact of equity on intention to quit.

Stress

Stress is “the extent to which they [employees] experience feelings such as tension, being upset, frustration, and nervousness in relation to their work” (Cross & Billingsley, 1994). Stress is accumulated through “stressors” (i.e., role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload, and resource inadequacy) and can lead to increased levels of intention to quit (Klenke-Hamel & Mathieu, 1990) and burnout (Fogarty, Singh, Rhoads, & Moore, 2000), and decreased performance (Mulinge, 2001), job satisfaction (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Cross & Billingsley, 1994; Gersten et al., 2001; Mulinge, 2001; Singh & Billingsley, 1996; Summers, Sweeney, & Wolk, 2000; Taunton, Boyle, Woods, Hansen, & Bott, 1997), and commitment (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Cross & Billingsley, 1994; Gersten et al., 2001; Mulinge, 2001; Summers, Sweeney, & Wolk, 2000).

Intention to quit literature has focused primarily on two of four stressors; role conflict and role ambiguity. Studies involving role conflict consistently show an indirect effect on intention to quit through job satisfaction (Good, Sisler, & Gentry, 1988; Klenke-Hamel & Mathieu, 1990; Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001). One study, which included burnout, found that burnout mediated the relationship between role conflict and intention to quit and job satisfaction (Fogarty, Singh, Rhoads, & Moore, 2000). Role ambiguity typically has the same effect as role conflict, namely an indirect effect on intention to quit

through job satisfaction and burnout (Fogarty et al., 2000; Klenke-Hamel & Matheiu, 1990).

Organizational Justice

Organizational justice is “the role of fairness as a consideration in the workplace” (Greenberg, 1990). The level of fairness employees perceive in their organization stems from the way the organization handles situations ranging from employee selection procedures (Bauer, Truxillo, Sanchez, Craig, Ferrara, & Campion, 2001; Gilliland, 1993) to performance evaluations (Bartol, Durham, & Poon, 2001; Landy, Barnes-Farrell, & Cleveland, 1980) to termination procedures (Gopinath & Becker, 2000; Hemingway & Conte, 2003). The literature has identified two major types of justice - distributive and procedural. Distributive justice is the perceived fairness involved in rewarding or punishing employees for performance in an organization (Greenberg, 1990). Procedural justice is the perceived fairness of the procedures used to allocate rewards or punishment, and the level of input employees have in developing those procedures (Fields, Pang, & Chui, 2000; Greenberg, 1993).

Distributive and procedural justice are both prevalent in the intention to quit literature. Distributive justice appears to have a weaker relationship with intention to quit than does procedural justice. DeConinck and Bachmann (1994) found distributive justice had an indirect effect on intention to quit through job satisfaction and organizational commitment. However, Aryee and Chay (2001) and Turnley and Feldman (1999) found a direct effect of procedural justice on intention to quit.

Environmental Variables

Environmental variables are those variables outside the work setting that effect employees. Environmental variables consist of availability and quality of other job opportunities, normative pressure exerted by family and friends (Maertz & Campion, 1998), kinship responsibility (Price, 2001), work/family conflict (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), financial responsibilities, and community relations (Flowers & Hughes, 1973; Iverson & Roy, 1994) (see Table 2.1).

External Opportunity

External opportunity is the availability of equivalent or better jobs in the immediate area outside the organization (Mulinge, 2001). External opportunity assumes a certain level of ‘visibility,’ or an employee’s level of awareness of other available jobs (Berg, 1991). External opportunities consistently have been found to have a direct effect on intention to quit (Griffeth & Hom, 1988; Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001; Larwood et al., 1998; Turnley & Feldman, 1999).

Community Relations

Community relations is the voluntary involvement in community organizations, including churches, social organizations, and clubs (Iverson & Roy, 1994; Martin, 1979). As the number of links or amount of community involvement increases, individuals may feel more inclined to stay in their current job in order to maintain their community relationships (Mitchell et al., 2001), thus decreasing their intention to quit.

The relationship of community relations with intention to quit and turnover has not been investigated thoroughly. Frost and Jamal (1979) and Jamal (1981) found community relations were negatively and significantly correlated with intention to quit. Thompson and Terpenning (1983) found community relations had a direct, negative effect on intention to quit. Mitchell et al. (2001) found the number of links to a community was negatively correlated to voluntary turnover and intention to quit.

Family Responsibility

Family responsibility involves the level of obligation an individual has to immediate family members (Iverson & Roy, 1994). Immediate family members are defined as dependent children and their parents (Garey, Hansen, Hertz, & MacDonald, 2002; Hall & Cummings, 1997; Proctor, 1990; Willmott, 1958). Family responsibility centers around two basic roles, that of the breadwinner and that of the caregiver (Hood, 1986). The breadwinner assumes responsibility for a majority of the financial needs of the family, while the caregiver assumes a nurturing role for the family by fulfilling physical and emotional needs (Thoits, 1992). As the two roles are distinct dimensions, an individual may be required to fill both (e.g., single parents) (Amatea, Cross, Clark, & Bobby, 1986).

The typical measurement of family responsibility is derived from items such as marital status, number of children, and whether other members contribute financially to the well-being of the family. The relationship of family responsibility with intention to quit has generally been ignored. One study, involving dental hygienists, indicated family

responsibility to be the primary influence in the decision to quit their jobs (Johns, Gutmann, DeWald, & Nunn, 2001).

Kinship Responsibility

Kinship responsibility is the level of association with relatives in the surrounding area (excluding immediate family members). The level of financial obligation an employee may have toward supporting relatives outside the immediate family also may contribute to kinship responsibility. Blegen, Mueller, and Price (1988) found significant correlations between kinship responsibility and intention to quit, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. However, the kinship responsibility index used in the study included both immediate and extended family components, which significantly complicates interpretation of the kinship responsibility-intention to quit relationship.

Orientation Variables

Employee orientation variables are a combination of the structural, pre-entry, and environmental variables, and their effects on an employee. These are the affective responses discussed within the psychological perspective, and include job satisfaction, commitment, and job search (see Table 2.1). These responses develop over time and are shaped by the variables included in the three other classes.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is “the appraisal of one’s job as attaining or allowing the attainment of one’s important job values, providing these values are congruent with or help fulfill one’s basic needs” (Locke, 1976). Job satisfaction has proved to be a reliable

predictor of turnover (i.e., more satisfied employees tend not to leave an organization) (Hellman, 1997; Manlove & Guzell, 1997; Oktay, 1992; Siefert, Jayaratne, & Chess, 1991; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Job satisfaction has been shown to have a direct effect on intention to quit as well (Futrell & Parasuraman, 1984; Harrington, Bean, Pintello, & Mathews, 2001; Klenke-Hamel & Mathieu, 1990; Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001; Liou, 1998; Motowidlo, 1983; Weisberg & Kirschenbaum, 1991). However, some researchers contend that job satisfaction is a precursor to commitment, leading to higher levels of organizational commitment followed by lower intention to quit.

Including both job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the same study often produces results which do not reflect a consistent, direct relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit. In some studies including both constructs, job satisfaction has an indirect effect on intention to quit through organizational commitment (DeConinck & Bachmann, 1994; Good, Sisler, & Gentry, 1988; Lachman & Aranya, 1986; Lum et al., 1998). Others have found job satisfaction has a direct relationship with intention to quit (Aryee, Wyatt, & Min, 1991; Chan, 2001; Jenkins, 1993; Lachman & Aranya, 1986). Currivan (1999) suggests the job satisfaction-commitment relationship is spurious due to similar determinants. Bassett (1994) concludes that job satisfaction “is a complex matter,” and that findings “are typically moderate and by no means explain all of the variability in observed absence or turnover rates (p. 62).”

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is the level of loyalty an employee has toward an organization (Mueller, Wallace, & Price, 1992), and dictates the level of effort willingly

exerted for it (Barak, Nissly, & Liven, 2001; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Meyer and Allen (1991) presented organizational commitment as having three components – affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment involves “an affective or emotional attachment to the organization such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in, the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 2). Continuance commitment entails the assessment of weighing the costs of leaving against the benefits of staying (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Shore & Wayne, 1993). Normative commitment, which has received little more than cursory attention, is the level of obligation an employee feels to remain with an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Organizational commitment provides the most consistent, direct relationship with intention to quit across a wide variety of samples (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000; Geurts, Schaufeli, & Rutte, 1999). Unlike job satisfaction, the relationship between organizational commitment and intention to quit remains consistent even when job satisfaction is included in the study (Aryee, Wyatt, & Min, 1991; Chan, 2001; DeConinck & Bachmann, 1994; Jenkins, 1993; Lachmann & Aranya, 1986; Liou, 1998; Lum et al., 1998).

Professional Commitment

Professional commitment, also referred to as career commitment (Mueller, Wallace, & Price, 1992), is similar to affective commitment except instead of having an emotional attachment to the organization the individual has an attachment to the profession (Barak, Nissely, Levin, 2001; Billingsley & Cross, 1992). While Lee and

Ashforth (1993) found professional commitment to have a direct effect on intention to quit, most research indicates an indirect effect through organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Aryee, Wyatt, & Min, 1991; Chang, 1999; Lachmann & Aranya, 1986).

Other Variables

Other variables impacting intention to quit which do not easily fit into Iverson and Roy's (1994) typology include demographic (Fields, Pang, & Chiu, 2000; Price & Kim, 1993; Yoder, 1995) and personality (Rasch & Harrell, 1990) variables. Demographic variables are considered in this dissertation because a number of other studies have included them and found significant effects on intention to quit. Personality variables are assessed because they have been found to significantly impact job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991) and a similar effect may be found with relation to intention to quit (Barrick & Mount, 1996).

Demographics

Demographics describe the characteristics and composition of human populations. Typical demographic information gathered for empirical research include - age, sex, race, education, tenure, and previous work experience (Fisher, Hinson, & Deets, 1994; Price & Kim, 1993). Demographics are often used as control variables (Chen, 2001; Fields, Pang & Chiu, 2000; Mulinge, 2001), and several, including gender, age and tenure, appear to have a direct effect on intention to quit (Aryee & Chay, 2001; Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001; Liou, 1998; Turnley & Feldman, 1999, 2000; Weisberg & Kirschenbaum, 1991). However, the contribution of demographic variables to intention to quit is

inconsistent in nature and varies significantly from study to study. Table 2.3 highlights the inconsistency of demographic variables.

Personality

Personality, according to Hogan (1990), “refers both to a person’s social reputation and to his or her inner nature.” An individual’s personality consists of different traits that have been categorized into five dimensions (Digman, 1990). These five dimensions are referred to as the Big Five or the five-factor model (FFM) and include conscientiousness, neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, and agreeableness.

Conscientiousness entails being dependable, achievement oriented, and organized (Colquitt & Simmering, 1998). Neuroticism is reflected by an individual’s emotional behavior (moody versus stable, doubtful versus confident) (Judge & Ilies, 2002). Extraversion portrays the level of social interaction and assertiveness one has with others (Barrick & Mount, 1996). Openness to experience is the level to which one is imaginative, willing to learn, and inquisitive (Barrick & Mount, 1996). Agreeableness shows itself through consideration for others, gentility, and compliance (Hogan, 1990; Boudreau, Boswell, Judge, & Bretz, 2001).

While the Big Five personality dimensions have been used extensively to examine the personality-job performance relationship (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hertz & Donovan, 2000), studies involving the Big Five dimensions and intention to quit are limited (Barrick & Mount, 1996). However, some research has been conducted exploring the relationship of other personality characteristics and intention to quit. Rasch & Harrell

(1990) found Type A/B personality traits had direct and indirect effects (through job satisfaction) on turnover intentions in accounting professionals. Ross (1995) found personality characteristics to impact job satisfaction. Jenkins (1993) examined the effect of self-monitoring on intention to quit through job satisfaction and commitment. The results indicated self-monitoring did contribute to intention to quit. Allen, Weeks, and Moffitt (2003) found self-monitoring and locus of control affected the intention to quit and actual turnover relationship.

Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses Development

To consider adequately what contributes to an individual's level of intention to quit, it is important to look beyond the primary reason people work. Generally, a job fills a financial need. An individual provides some sort of service in exchange for compensation. While money may be the primary basis for accepting a job, other factors such as the fulfillment of socioemotional needs (Arneli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998; Eisenberger et al., 1986) play a critical part in an individual's decision to stay or leave (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mitchell et al., 2001; Steel & Griffeth, 1989). In fact, pay and pay related variables are typically "modest in light of their significance to compensation theorists and practitioners" (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000, p. 479). As such, consideration must be given to factors other than money in order to better grasp why employees stay or leave. Because employees are exchanging their time and efforts for more than monetary compensation, a broader perspective is required. Social exchange theory provides a broad theoretical framework

for examining a wide variety of exchanges and the effect of those exchanges on an individual's intention to quit.

The remainder of this chapter will integrate eight independent variables and two control variables into an intention to quit model using social exchange as a theoretical framework. Three other control variables will also be included. In total, this dissertation will develop and test thirteen hypotheses. Figure 2.1 presents the model to be tested.

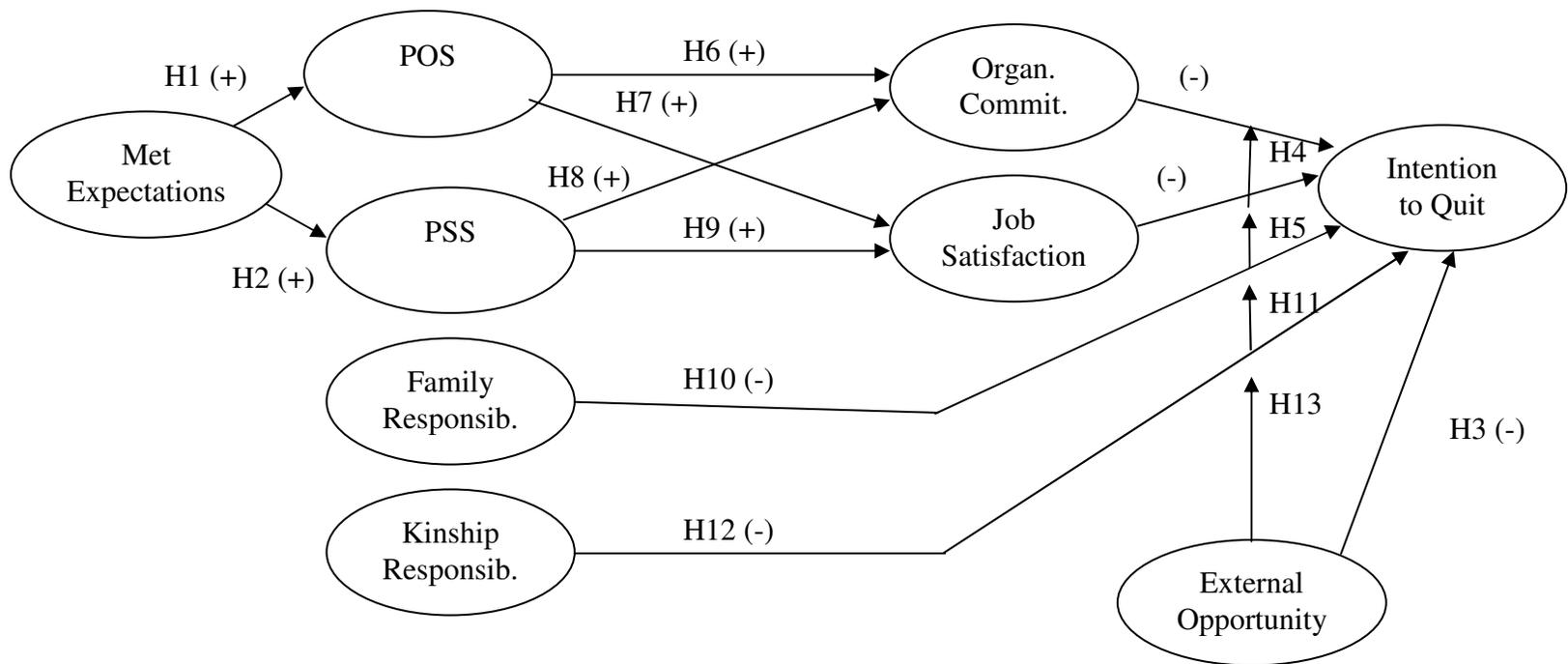


Figure 2.1 Proposed Model

Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) states that individuals engage in transactions involving the exchange of valued things. For example, a worker could exchange his/her time and energy on a job for the opportunity for a promotion. Note that the promotion is not guaranteed. Any exchange involving a guaranteed result is an economic exchange. As such, care must be taken to not confuse social and economic exchanges. Economic exchanges involve specific obligations, such as a contract requiring a person to pay a predetermined sum of money for an item. As outlined by Blau (1964), “[s]ocial exchange, in contrast, involves the principle that one person does another a favor, and while there is a general expectation of some future return, its exact nature is definitely *not* [original emphasis] stipulated in advance” (p. 93).

An important part of social exchange theory is the assumption of a “norm of reciprocity.” Reciprocity refers to the feeling of obligation an individual has toward another entity that provides something of value. The norm of reciprocity requires individuals to repay *quid pro quo* any help provided to them (Gouldner, 1960; Riggs & Rantz, 2001). For example, if someone gave another person a gift, then the receiver should feel some obligation to respond. The response might be a simple “thank you,” or a more elaborate act such as purchasing a gift for the gift-giver. The level of felt obligation to reciprocate, to only say “thank you” or purchase a gift for the original giver, varies from person to person. One factor contributing to the level of felt obligation is whether the exchange involved a voluntary or involuntary component. Actions which are voluntary in nature are often viewed as reflecting a genuine interest in the well-being of

an individual and tend to impart a higher level of felt obligation (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995).

Two other important parts of social exchange theory include self-interest and interdependence (Lawler & Thye, 1999). Social exchange involves the exchange of “valued” things (Blau, 1964). Self-interest drives all parties involved to try to maximize the personal value received from the exchange. Because all exchanges depend on other entities for reciprocation, interdependency is established. In other words, all parties are required to participate in order for the exchange to occur.

Societal views about the appropriateness of the exchange also contribute to the level of felt obligation (Astone, Nathanson, Schoen, & Kim, 1999). People often allow the views of others to affect their behavior concerning exchanges. However, an exchange which causes one person to reciprocate may not elicit a similar response in a different person. One possible explanation for the different levels of felt obligation involves personality dimensions. Some people may feel a stronger need to reciprocate exchanges because they have a strong moral sense requiring the maintenance of a balanced exchange relationship. Additionally, some people may place a high value on social acceptance or approval, and thereby allow the views of others to dictate behavioral responses.

Social approval is given if the exchange is considered appropriate, while social disapproval is given if the exchange is considered to be inappropriate (Nord, 1969). Because individuals typically do not want to be viewed by society as bad, social approval serves to reinforce the equality of social exchanges (Homans, 1961). Thus, some

individuals may not wish to reciprocate an exchange, but will because they wish to avoid social disapproval. Allen (1965) describes this as conformity by the individual in order to stay in the good graces of society as a whole. Thus, society can exert pressure on individuals to act within certain constraints in order to receive social approval (Guillet, Sarrazin, Carpenter, Trouilloud, & Cury, 2002; Homans, 1961; Nord, 1969). Of course, the norms of some individuals and social groups have more impact on individual behavior than others. For example, the opinions and views of close friends and family are typically valued greater than those of acquaintances. In order to maintain a good relationship with a particular social group, acquiescence to the norms of the group may be required.

Previous Approaches to Intention to Quit

A majority of intention to quit research has focused on work-related attitudes, employment alternatives, or an integrated version of work-related attitudes and alternatives (Mitchell et al., 2001; Mitchell & Lee, 2001). In the context of the three perspectives discussed in the literature review, work-related attitudes fall within the psychological perspective and employment alternatives fall within the economic perspective. Non work-related exchanges, to be discussed later, fall within the sociological perspective.

From the psychological perspective, the focus has been on the attitudinal constructs of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, as well as factors which impact these constructs (Aryee, Wyatt, & Min, 1991; Chan, 2001; Hom, & Griffeth, 1995; Jenkins, 1993; Lackman & Aranya, 1986; Maertz & Campion, 1998). From the

economic perspective, the alternatives approach has explored how the perceived availability of alternative employment affects intention to quit and voluntary turnover (Mitchell et al., 2001; Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Turnley & Feldman, 1999). The inclusion of job search has been a major part of the alternatives perspective (Blau, 1993; Judge, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1994; Gerhart, 1990). The integrated approach combines both attitudinal and alternative variables (Griffeth & Hom, 1988; Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001; Larwood et al., 1998). To date, these three approaches have been the primary basis for turnover research or, as Maertz and Campion (1998) put it, “[t]ogether with turnover intentions and cognitions, affect and alternatives have been the predominant antecedents to turnover” (p. 56).

It is important to investigate intention to quit in terms of an exchange view because this will provide a broader theoretical framework within which to examine the factors that impact intention to quit than has previous research. However, because affect and alternatives have served as the basis for much turnover research (Maertz & Campion, 1998), it is important to consider these variables as well. Social exchange theory provides a framework supporting work-related variables not included within the realm of affect and alternatives, allowing a more comprehensive picture of factors leading to intention to quit. Additionally, social exchange theory allows the simultaneous consideration of work-related and non work-related exchanges. As will be discussed later, non work-related exchanges could have considerable impact on an individual’s turnover intentions, but have not been explored extensively.

The literature review provided earlier in this chapter identified variables that have consistently been found to directly affect intention to quit. These variables are: job satisfaction (Griffeth & Hom, 1988; Harrington et al., 2001; Liou, 1998; Motowidlo, 1983), organizational commitment (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000; Chang, 1999; Geurts, Schaufeli, & Rutte, 1999), met expectations (Turnley & Feldman, 2000), and external opportunity (Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001; Larwood et al., 1998; Turnley & Feldman, 1999). At this point, it is important to integrate these variables into the framework of social exchange theory.

Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

Meta-analyses consistently show that job satisfaction and organizational commitment, the main attitudinal variables examined in turnover literature, are the primary predictors of turnover, turnover intentions (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Steel & Griffeth, 1989) and retention (Mitchell et al., 2001). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are also the most commonly found variables in turnover intention studies (See Table 2.3) (Arnold & Davey, 1999; Aryee, Wyatt, & Min, 1991; Chan, 2001; Chen, 2001; Jenkins, 1993; Mulinge, 2001; Price & Mueller, 1986; Taunton et al., 1997).

Locke (1976) defines job satisfaction as “the appraisal of one’s job as attaining or allowing the attainment of one’s important job values, providing these values are congruent with or help fulfill one’s basic needs” (p. 1342). Accordingly, if an individual has a job which meets his/her needs and values, then that individual will have higher job satisfaction (Rice, McFarlin, & Gentile, 1991). Thus, how well an organization provides

exchanges that fulfill the work values of the individual could affect the level of job satisfaction felt (Kristof, 1996; Taris & Feij, 2001). Therefore, if an individual experiences high job satisfaction, then the attitude the employee has toward the job should be positive and promote behaviors which support remaining with the organization.

Organizational commitment, or the level of identification and involvement an employee has with an organization (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979), also contributes to the attitude employees have toward staying or leaving their current job. However, unlike job satisfaction, commitment appears not only to affect the attitude toward a behavior, but also integrates a “norm of reciprocity” and a personal cost analysis. Meyer and Allen’s (1991) concepts of affective, normative, and continuance commitment support this rationale.

Each of these forms of commitment fit within the social exchange framework. Affective commitment centers on emotional attachment to an organization. A major source of emotional attachment is the relationships developed with supervisors and co-workers. Daily exchanges of pleasantries, concerns, advice, and teamwork efforts help to fulfill such socioemotional needs as the need for esteem, the need for affiliation, the need for emotional support (Arneli et al., 1998; Eisenberger et al., 1986). Because social contact exchanges in the workplace allow fulfillment of these needs, individuals develop emotional attachment to the source of the fulfillment (Hill, 1987). As people become more emotionally attached, dependence on the organization to satisfy socioemotional needs may increase. Leaving the organization could potentially sever the exchange relationships developed because the forum for the relationship, the organizational setting,

is no longer available to all parties. Additionally, if the values held by the organization and the individual are similar, then the individual should be exposed to an environment which supports his/her values (Kristof, 1996). As such, the organization could become an emotional “haven” for the individual. The potential loss of relationships and a supportive workplace also tie to the concept of links, fit, and sacrifice in embeddedness, which will be discussed later in this chapter.

Normative commitment can be tied to social exchange theory because individuals may not necessarily want to stay at a particular organization, but will remain because they feel obligated to reciprocate the things the organization has provided (e.g., special training, support, fair human resource practices). For example, an employee is given a promotion resulting in a higher salary, more responsibility, and greater autonomy. Most employees will feel an obligation to repay the organization for entrusting them with the promotion, thus leading to higher normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Scholl, 1981). Additionally, normative commitment could have a societal norm component because not fulfilling obligations to the organization could be viewed as inappropriate not only by those within the firm, but also by external people resulting in social disapproval (Weiner, 1972). Societal norms could have an impact over a wide variety of behaviors ranging from that of fulfilling organizational obligations to providing support for family and relatives.

Through the lens of exchange theory, continuance commitment develops as an individual makes investments in an organization. Employees initially invest time and effort in organizations in return for a salary and benefits. Over time, these investments

can result in seniority-based privileges, opportunity for training, promotions, and status (Clugston, Howell, & Dorfman, 2000; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Unlike normative commitment, which emphasizes employee obligation to reciprocate to the organization, continuance commitment focuses on all of the things that an employee has received as a result of the relationship with the organization and would be loathe to give up (Allen & Meyer, 1990). For example, seniority may result in getting a more spacious office, a better office view, or a better parking spot. These things are direct exchanges for the longevity the individual has had with the employer. Leaving the organization would result in losing anything accrued. Continuance commitment also ties to the sacrifice component of embeddedness which will be discussed later in this chapter.

While job satisfaction and organizational commitment are both included in the intention to quit model tested for this dissertation, no direct relationships between job satisfaction/organizational commitment and intention to quit are hypothesized. The reason for this is due to the overwhelming evidence from previous studies that such relationships exist (Aryee & Chay, 2001; Chan, 2001; Chang, 1999; Geurts, Schaufeli & Rutte, 1999; Good, Sisler, & Gentry, 1988; Jenkins, 1993; Klenke, -Hamel & Mathieu, 1990; Lachman, & Aranya, 1986; Lambert, Hogan & Barton, 2001; Liou, 1998; Lum et al., 1998; Motowidlo, 1983; Weisberg & Kirschenbaum, 1991).

Met Expectations

Met expectations contribute to a “norm of reciprocity” because individuals have certain beliefs about what an organization should provide to them as an employee in exchange for work efforts (Spencer & Steers, 1980). To a certain degree, expectations

are formed from societal norms concerning work conditions, safety issues, and ethical issues. Prior employment and the input of individual acquaintances (e.g., family, friends) also may contribute to development of expectations about what a job should entail and what benefits it should provide. By meeting or exceeding these expectations, organizations can establish a baseline of perceived support which could serve as a buffer keeping an employee from leaving the organization.

This could occur for several reasons. The first is the norm of reciprocity. Employees may feel obligated to stay with an organization in order to “repay” the met expectations (Geurts, Schaufeli, Rutte, 1999). Another reason could be that employees who have their expectations met are hesitant to leave the organization because a similar outcome (i.e., met expectations) at another company cannot be guaranteed. Further, if the current employer has fulfilled an employee’s expectations, then the groundwork of trust has been laid concerning future expectations. Thus, employees may reciprocate the current met expectations because of their anticipation that future expectations will be similarly fulfilled (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002; Coyle-Shapiro & Neuman, 2004). That is to say, employees believe that the organization will continue to provide the same level of support in the future that has been provided in the past.

Similarly, employees may feel obligated to stay with an organization because a supervisor ensured expectations were met. The employee may feel the need to “repay” the supervisor’s efforts. Thus, by meeting the expectations of employees, organizations and supervisors might be able to increase an employee’s perception of support. The previous discussion leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Met expectations will be positively related to POS.

Hypothesis 2: Met expectations will be positively related to PSS.

External Opportunity

External opportunities provide employees a chance to compare what they are receiving for their current efforts at a job with an alternative. Individuals often engage in search behavior to ensure a replacement job is available before they quit their current job (Blau, 1993). The lack of equivalent or better jobs could temper employees' intention to quit, even if they hate their job. However, an abundance of better jobs in the immediate area can increase an employee's intention to quit because the alternative positions could provide higher returns for the employee's efforts. The potential to participate in exchanges which provide more value could adversely impact the level of satisfaction and commitment an employee has concerning their current employer.

Of primary concern when evaluating alternative opportunities is the potential for the new organization to reciprocate exchanges. Unless some kind of exchange relationship has already been established with the new organization, the individual will not know with any certainty if good performance will be rewarded or if discretionary support will be provided. Thus, an individual has a point of reference concerning exchanges from a current employer, but does not for a new employer. Much like military encounters, fighting a known adversary is better than fighting an unknown adversary because a known adversary can be expected to respond in familiar ways, whereas the responses of an unknown adversary are uncertain.

From the previous discussion, the following are hypothesized:

Hypothesis 3: Lack of external opportunity will be negatively related to intention to quit.

Hypothesis 4: Lack of external opportunity increases the negative relationship between organizational commitment and intention to quit.

Hypothesis 5: Lack of external opportunity increases the negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit.

Additional Variable Considerations

The four variables just discussed reflect work-related factors. Exploration of these factors is important and research on them has provided insight about turnover intentions. However, turnover intention models limited to work-related factors are insufficient for several reasons. First, work-related factors have not been considered within the context of a theory that allows the inclusion of non work-related factors. By simultaneously considering both types of factors, a clearer picture of turnover intentions can be developed. Another reason research considering only work-related factors is lacking is reflected by the small amount of variance the turnover intention models explain (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Steel & Griffeth, 1989). Maertz and Campion (1998) suggest that factors outside the workplace could play a significant role in the development of turnover intentions. This suggestion is not new. Miller and Labovitz (1973) said basically the same thing, “we should not expect evaluations of the work setting to be particularly useful in explaining critical personal choices, such as the decision to stay or to leave” (p. 558).

Social exchange theory provides the theoretical framework to address Maertz and Campion's (1998) and Miller and Labovitz's (1973) suggestions to simultaneously include both work-related and non work-related factors in turnover intention research. To do this, the concept of embeddedness (Mitchell et al., 2001) will be used in this study as a bridge between work-related and non work-related factors within the social exchange framework. Because social exchange theory allows the examination of a wide variety of relevant exchanges pertaining to a job, a broader array of variables than just work-related ones can be considered. By examining a broader array of relevant exchanges, a better explanation of turnover intentions may be developed.

Embeddedness

Mitchell et al. (2001) recently introduced the construct of job embeddedness to help address the effect of non work factors on turnover intentions. The premise of job embeddedness is that employees become attached to organizations by means of organizational and community links, fit, and sacrifice components. Social exchange theory allows the inclusion of these three dimensions of embeddedness, as will be illustrated in the following paragraphs.

Links

Links are connections among employees and their organizations, other people (both inside and outside the organization), and with their communities. Much like a spiderweb, the more links an employee has to the organization, the people around them,

and the community, the less likely he/she is to quit, especially if relocation is necessary (Abelson, 1987; Cohen, 1995; Mitchell et al., 2001).

Links are developed as a result of some sort of exchange between individuals. For example, neighbors who never have anything to do with each other cannot be considered as having a link. However, neighbors who develop relationships with each other (e.g., lending tools to one another, watching the house when the other is absent) are establishing links. The development of these links is contingent on the premises of social exchange theory, specifically the aspect of self-interest. People establish links with other people that can provide value as a result of exchanges. Accordingly, if a link does not provide some kind of value for the individual through personal satisfaction or reciprocation, then the link will not be maintained. While the value provided by the link varies depending on the context of the relationship, each link must provide something the individual wants or needs (e.g., access to resources and contacts, emotional support).

Fit

Fit describes the compatibility an employee has with both the work and community environment. Work environment fit has been found to decrease turnover and has been examined through concepts such as person-organization fit (Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991) and person-job fit (Villanova, Bernardin, Johnson, & Dahmus, 1994). Community fit involves the proximity of activities or entertainment the individual enjoys (e.g., theater, sporting events, camping), fulfillment of cultural needs, or even local weather patterns (Mitchell et al., 2001).

Fit falls within the framework of social exchange theory because how well a person fits with an organization, job, or community revolves directly around whether or not the organization, job, or community provides things the individual values. Congruence between what the individual values and what is provided can lead to the person continuing a relationship with the source of fit (Kristof, 1996; Taris & Feij, 2001). For example, if a job provides things valued by a person, such as autonomy and opportunities to learn new things, then that person should want to stay. Likewise, if a community provides things valued by an individual, such as a safe neighborhood and a good social aspect, then the individual should not only be inclined to maintain the residence, but to give back to the community (e.g., help with the neighborhood watch program, support neighborhood social outings) (Locke, 1976; Taris & Feij, 2001).

Sacrifice

Sacrifice involves anything that could be lost due to leaving a job. Work related sacrifices include salary, benefits, perks (e.g., personal parking space, office with a view), and losing the interaction with colleagues, and can be tied to Becker's (1960) idea of "side-bets" and Allen and Meyer's (1990) continuance commitment. Becker (1960) describes "side bets" as accumulated personal commitments and normative expectations which constrain an individual's activities. Allen and Meyer's (1990) concept of continuance commitment builds on these "side bets" and purports that employees are aware of the costs involved with leaving an organization. As such, those costs are weighed against the benefits of taking a new job. However, another part of sacrifice involves community sacrifices, especially if the employee needs to relocate. Individuals

may have to sacrifice a short drive to work, give up a home they have come to love, or leave a community they like (Mitchell et al., 2001).

Sacrifice should be considered within the social exchange framework because sacrifice is the conscious appraisal of the exchanges which will be lost if a relationship is ended. The things sacrificed are direct outcomes of relationships built over time. For example, if an organization requires five years of tenure before considering someone for promotion and an individual has just completed five years of service, then the person will be giving up the promotion opportunity. Additionally, leaving a job may entail giving up the chance to “call in favors,” or receive reciprocation for favors that a person has given in the past. In essence, the individual will be giving up exchange relationships established over time for new exchange relationships which may or may not provide the same value provided by the old exchange relationship.

Bridging Work and Non Work-Related Factors

These three components (links, fit, and sacrifice) literally serve as tent stakes. The more stakes the tent has, the harder it will be to uproot. Another way to view embeddedness is through the concept of inertia. The more embedded an individual is, the greater the inertia, hence the greater the force required to induce the person to leave. As described by Mitchell and Lee (2001), “[i]t [inertia] is the forces that keep us from thinking about leaving” (p. 213). Empirical findings support this statement, as higher levels of embeddedness result in lower intention to quit and decreased turnover (Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Mitchell et al., 2001). From a social exchange perspective, links, fit, and sacrifice are all results of exchange relationships with other people. As the number of

links, degree of fit, and amount of sacrifice increases, the bond of the exchange relationship increases. As relationships grow stronger, the entities involved become interdependent while still serving self-interest, two major components of social exchange (Lawler & Thye, 1999), making it difficult to break the relationship.

Lee and Mitchell (1994) present an unfolding model of voluntary employee turnover that implicitly includes inertia and embeddedness. The unfolding model describes four paths which employees follow when considering leaving an organization. Three of the paths require some kind of “shock” or outside force to cause the employee to reconsider staying with an employer. Shocks are not limited to work factors and may include any factor which causes an employee to consider leaving a current job (e.g., getting married, having children, getting a job offer from another company). As mentioned in the previous paragraph, the strength, or level of interdependence, of a relationship can make it difficult to end that relationship.

The concept of embeddedness and the unfolding model seem to suggest that intention to quit can be buffered by variables involving links, fit, and sacrifice (both on- and off-the-job). Mitchell and Lee (2001) have suggested an integration of the unfolding model of voluntary turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) and embeddedness (Mitchell et al., 2001) in order to more thoroughly examine the variables which may contribute to decreased tendencies to leave an organization. Mitchell and Lee (2001) further suggest that these variables may serve to reinforce against “shocks” that otherwise might increase an individual’s intention to quit. However, as Mitchell and Lee (2001) point out, more research is necessary to fully develop this stream of thought.

Because embeddedness includes variables from both work- and non work-related factors, it can serve as a bridge between the domains. By incorporating the concepts introduced in embeddedness (i.e., links, fit, and sacrifice) as a bridge between work-related and non work-related factors within the theoretical framework of social exchange theory, the current literature can be expanded upon because social exchange theory not only allows, but also requires examining more than work-related factors. As such, this study included variables that reflect exchanges between individuals. Specifically, perceived organizational support (POS), perceived supervisor support (PSS), family responsibility, and kinship responsibility and their impact on intention to quit were examined. As stated earlier, the bulk of turnover intention literature has concentrated on work-related factors because the theoretical frameworks previously used did not allow for the inclusion of non work-related factors. As such, this study will examine two work-related factors - perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support - and two non work related factors - family responsibility and kinship responsibility.

Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support (POS) is the result of a relationship which develops between individual employees and the organization for which they work. The basis of the relationship revolves around the types of exchanges which occur between the employee and the organization. Exchanges which are viewed by employees as helpful strengthen the relationship. Over time, the level of support an organization provides to an employee should create a feeling of employee obligation (Eisenberger, Arneli,

Rexwinkel, Lynch & Rhoades, 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). As noted several times before, the level of obligation felt by individuals varies from person to person.

Based on the norm of reciprocity, organizational support should reinforce the level of obligation employees feel to conduct themselves in ways that promote the organization's goals (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). As employees experience exchanges that are perceived to satisfy self-interest, trust in the organization and/or supervisor is developed. This trust results in a stronger expectation that the organization will continue to provide exchanges that benefit the employee (Riggs & Rantz, 2001). Thus, providing organizational support serves to propagate interdependence between the employee and the organization because each entity provides something which contributes to the other's self-interest. Ultimately, high levels of POS should lead to positive employee-related outcomes (e.g., higher performance and lower turnover) (Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Note, however, that the employee must perceive the exchanges as being supportive.

Another important aspect of perceived support involves voluntary support. By providing support voluntarily, a real interest in the professional growth and well-being of the employee is expressed. As voluntary support is considered to create a greater level of felt obligation than required support (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger, Cummings, Arneli & Lynch, 1997; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995), employees receiving voluntary support should feel higher levels of obligation toward the organization. This high level of obligation to "pay back" (i.e., reciprocate the exchange) perceived support can serve as a reason to stay at an organization (Eisenberger et al.,

1986, 1990; Shore & Wayne, 1993). POS has been found to be related to organizational commitment (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000; Fuller, Barnett, Hester, & Relyea, 2003), intention to stay (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), and intention to quit (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000; Chan, 2001).

A majority of POS studies has only examined single relationships (e.g., POS with organizational commitment, POS with job satisfaction, POS with intention to quit). Thus it is difficult to determine whether the relationships vary when multiple relationships are considered simultaneously. A recent study by Allen, Shore, and Griffeth (2003) addressed this problem by including POS with organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to quit. Results indicated that organizational commitment and job satisfaction fully mediated the relationship between POS and intention to quit.

These results are not surprising when viewed from a social exchange perspective. High levels of POS should lead to organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Because employees may feel the need to reciprocate the support given by the organization, organizational commitment should increase (Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003; Shore & Wayne, 1993). Arneli et al. (1998) further suggest that POS may affect organizational commitment because POS could help fulfill socio-emotional needs such as “esteem, affiliation, emotional support, and approval” (p. 289). Job satisfaction should also be impacted because organizational support may allow the work values of individual to be expressed. For example, if the individual prefers a high level of autonomy and the organization supports independent working conditions, then that need for autonomy has been met. Employees with the means to attain important job values should have higher

levels of job satisfaction. Based on the previous discussion, as well as prior research, the following hypotheses are made.

Hypothesis 6: Organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between POS and intention to quit.

Hypothesis 7: Job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between POS and intention to quit.

Perceived Supervisor Support

In and of itself, a study examining the relationship between POS and intention to quit with organizational commitment and job satisfaction serving as mediators does nothing more than replicate earlier work (Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003). Therefore, in order to extend earlier research, other variables must be considered. Perceived supervisor support (PSS) is one such variable. Including PSS in this study serves two purposes. First and foremost, PSS is the result of exchanges between an employee and a supervisor, and therefore fits within the realm of social exchange theory. Second, including PSS will extend the current body of literature pertaining to turnover intentions because no studies could be found which simultaneously consider the effect of both POS and PSS on intention to quit.

PSS is very similar to POS. However, the relationship developed is between the employee and the supervisor, not the organization. The basis of the relationship revolves around the types of exchanges which occur between the employee and the supervisor. While a supervisor is often considered an agent of the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986), the relationship between the employee and the supervisor is often distinctly

different than the relationship with the organization (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003).

As with POS, the level of support a supervisor provides an employee should create a feeling of employee obligation (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski & Rhoades, 2002). This obligation develops over time as employees experience exchanges which promote both work- and non work-related efforts. As a result, employees will come to expect the supervisor to continue to provide support which benefits the employee in exchange for continued performance and retention. Thus, similar to POS, perceived supervisor support propagates interdependence between the employee and the supervisor because each entity provides something which contributes to the other's self-interest, leading to higher performance and decreased turnover (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003).

PSS has been found to be related to job satisfaction (Cross & Billingsley, 1994; Gersten et al., 2001; Singh & Billingsley, 1996), organizational commitment (Chang, 1999; Cross & Billingsley, 1994; DeConinck & Bachmann, 1994; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003), intention to stay (Kunaviktikul, Nuntasupawat, Srisupkan, & Booth, 2000; Singh & Billingsley, 1996), and intention to quit (Thompson, Beauvais & Lyness, 1999). As with POS, PSS studies have typically only examined single relationships (e.g., PSS with organizational commitment, PSS with intention to quit), thus making it difficult to determine whether the relationship of PSS with intention to quit varies when considering multiple relationships.

Unlike POS, a study has not been conducted testing whether organizational commitment and job satisfaction mediate the relationship between PSS and intention to quit. Utilizing social exchange theory as a framework, it seems reasonable to expect such an effect would emerge. For example, as with POS, high PSS should lead to higher levels of commitment by employees because they feel obligated to “repay” the support given by the supervisor. Supervisor support can also promote job satisfaction. Supervisors are in a position to provide an environment which coincides with an employee’s work values. For example, some employees want and need extra supervision, others do not. By catering to the fulfillment of specific needs of each individual, the supervisor can promote higher job satisfaction. Therefore, based on the previous discussion, the following hypotheses are made.

Hypothesis 8: Organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between PSS and intention to quit.

Hypothesis 9: Job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between PSS and intention to quit.

Family Responsibility and Kinship Responsibility

Unlike work-related exchanges, exchanges between immediate and extended family members are harder to measure. Because family and kinship exchanges span the entire life of an individual, the importance of immediate reciprocity is not a primary concern (Horwitz, Reinhard & Howell-White, 1996; Starrels, Ingersoll-Dayton, Dowler & Neal, 1997) as it usually is with work-related exchanges. As Astone, Nathanson, Schoen, and Kim (1999) explain, “exchanges between sexual partners, siblings, parents,

children, and housemates, which constitute the subject of family demography, cannot readily be put into a conventional framework of utilitarian motivations” (p. 2).

Sussman and Cogswell (1971) suggest family and kinship responsibilities should be considered in future models of turnover. Over ten years later, Dreher (1982) reiterated this recommendation. He specifically calls for research concentrating on family responsibility, family-work role conflict, illness, and transportation problems. Moreover, the importance of addressing the impact of family and kinship responsibilities on turnover intentions is reflected in a survey conducted by Sauber, Snyir, and Sharifi (1991) which found that many younger workers considered “having family and close relatives in the area” as important factors for remaining in a job. However, few researchers include family and kinship responsibility in intention to stay and intention to quit studies (See Table 2.3).

In the few studies which have been conducted on family and kinship responsibility, results have been mixed. Some have found significant relationships between family and kinship responsibilities and intention to quit (Blegen, Mueller, & Price, 1988; Mulinge, 2001). However, a study by DeConinck and Bachmann (1994) did not. Iverson and Roy (1994) found family responsibility was significantly related to intention to stay, but kinship responsibility was not.

The previous discussion highlights an obvious gap in the literature which needs to be addressed. Social exchange theory provides a framework to fill this gap. Inserting family and kinship responsibility within the social exchange framework is necessary because the interaction between immediate family and relatives involves a wide variety

of exchanges throughout the lives of the people involved. These exchanges could develop feelings of family or kinship responsibility which could impact intention to quit.

Family Responsibility

Family responsibility is the level of obligation an individual has for immediate family members (spouses and dependent children) (Iverson & Roy, 1994) and could have an impact on intention to quit for those individuals who are married or have children, especially if the individual performs the role of breadwinner. Breadwinners provide financial means to the family and without a job they cannot fulfill those responsibilities. As such, breadwinners may have decreased intention to quit because the role they play requires providing for the financial needs of their immediate family (Blegen, Mueller & Price, 1988).

From a social exchange perspective, family responsibility can be viewed in two ways. The first is based on love. Love is a primary reason why individuals feel responsible for family members. Blau (1964) describes it well, “[l]ove appears to make human beings unselfish, since they themselves enjoy giving pleasure to those they love, but this selfless devotion generally rests on an interest in maintaining the other’s love” (p. 76). The maintenance of love involves constant exchange and individuals do not typically conduct a cost/benefit analysis when exchanges involve immediate family members (Curtis, 1986; Meeker, 1971).

As Blau (1964) illustrates, “[h]uman beings evidently derive pleasure from doing things for those they love and sometimes make great sacrifices for them” (p. 77). Thus, the love felt for family members undoubtedly is one reason breadwinners stay at a

horrible job because it fulfills the financial needs of the family and its close proximity allows a great deal of family time. Thus the individual may sacrifice having an enjoyable work environment in exchange for the love, respect, and appreciation received from family members. The amount of sacrifice the individual endures on the job must be balanced by the exchanges given by the family members. If the family members do not reciprocate in a way that the breadwinner values, then the sacrifices made on the job are not worthwhile. Additionally, the individual must weigh whether the sacrifices made concerning the family (e.g., long work hours equate to less family time) are reciprocated by the organization. While it would be nice to neatly categorize the reason why all family members fulfill their responsibilities based on love, this sentiment is hardly practical.

In addition to love, individuals can also feel pressure from society to fulfill the economic needs of their immediate family (Garey et al., 2002). For example, an individual who does nothing to support his/her family faces disapproval by society and perhaps legal charges in the case of not providing properly for children. Therefore, societal approval/ disapproval could encourage an individual to feel a higher obligation to fulfill the financial obligations of the immediate family, reinforcing the equality of social exchanges between family members (Astone et al., 1999; Homans, 1961).

From the previous discussion, it can be inferred that individuals can be influenced by love and society to fulfill family responsibility. As such, individuals should experience less intention to quit, especially when few external opportunities exist.

However, if many other employment opportunities exist, an individual may feel an increased level of intention to quit. Therefore, the following is hypothesized.

Hypothesis 10: Family responsibility will be negatively related to intention to quit.

Hypothesis 11: Lack of external opportunity increases the negative relationship between family responsibility and intention to quit.

Kinship Responsibility

Kinship responsibility is the level of association with relatives in the surrounding area (excluding immediate family members). Kinship responsibility, like family responsibility, can present problems for individuals. If an individual is financially responsible for extended family members, then that individual cannot fulfill this responsibility without a job (Brief & Aldag, 1979).

Much like the relationship with immediate family members, individuals typically have altruistic motivations for maintaining exchanges with their relatives. Baltes and Baltes (1990) suggest that over time the exchanges become more emotional in nature and the closeness of the relationship itself is the “ultimate reward” (p. 690). Thus, individuals who are very close to their families will be more apt to maintain their relationships through frequent interaction (i.e., exchanges) with family members because they place a high value on those relationships. The exchanges between family members not only build bonds of obligation and commitment to one another, but also serve to fill socio-emotional needs. Events which could potentially disrupt these relationships, such as leaving a job and moving to a distant location, would be viewed as a threat to their

relationships and thus be considered undesirable (Miller & Labowitz, 1973; Mulinge, 2001).

Another aspect of kinship responsibility gaining attention as a result of increased human longevity is elder caregiving. Children who have grown up and left home to raise families of their own are often faced with a reversal of roles, that of caring for their aging parents (Astone et al., 1999; Call, Finch, Huck & Kane, 1999; Garey et al., 2002). In addition to an altruistic factor, a reciprocation aspect is involved with elder caregiving. Children who have moved out and started families of their own may feel an obligation to reciprocate the care given to them by their parents during their childhood years. As the parents get older and require more care, children provide for them (Garey et al., 2002) which serves to balance the exchanges between the child-parent dyad throughout their lives (Astone et al., 1999). In the end, the obligation children feel to care for parents may serve as a reason to stay at a job near the parents, decreasing intention to quit. To a lesser degree, individuals may feel a similar obligation to stay in a particular area because extended family members live nearby (Eriksen & Gerstel, 2002; Garey et al., 2002).

Another view of why people feel kinship responsibility is through a “systems of social relations” (Astone et al., 1999). Systems of social relations involve connections to people external to the immediate family. These systems can involve people such as relatives, mutual friends and friends of family members who might provide job connections. These systems can exert pressure to fulfill kinship responsibility because not doing so could result in disapproval by the people in the system. This disapproval can ultimately lead to denied access to the system (Granovetter, 1985). In other words, if

someone in the system does not think an individual is fulfilling certain responsibilities, then access to certain resources, such as job connections, may be removed. For example, if a dead-beat asks for help finding a job and the people in the system know the dead-beat will not use the job connection in a manner that is deemed appropriate, then access to the job connection will not be provided.

The level of kinship obligation an individual feels to stay in a particular geographic area could have considerable impact on whether an employee stays or leaves an organization. Thus, an individual with both parents and several grown children living nearby may be more likely to stay in an area than someone with no parents or grown children living in the immediate area. In cultures emphasizing the relationships between extended family members, such as Kenya, kinship responsibility can be expected to be higher (Mulinge, 2001). In some cases, many job opportunities will be available within a certain area, thus not requiring a changing of residence by the individual. In these cases, the impact of kinship responsibility can be expected to be low suggesting that external opportunity may have a moderating effect on kinship responsibility's effect on intention to quit. The previous discussion suggests that kinship responsibility may affect an individual's intention to stay with an organization. Therefore, the following is hypothesized.

Hypothesis 12: Kinship responsibility will be negatively related to intention to quit.

Hypothesis 13: Lack of external opportunity increases the negative relationship between kinship responsibility and intention to quit.

Personality as a Control Variable

Different aspects of personality have been considered in studies of intention to stay and intention to quit. Personality aspects, such as self-monitoring (Allen, Weeks, & Moffitt, 2003; Jenkins, 1993), type A/B personality traits (Rasch & Harrell, 1990), locus of control (Allen, Weeks, & Moffitt, 2003), and need for autonomy (Mowday & Spencer, 1981) have been found to affect turnover intentions and job satisfaction (Jenkins, 1993; Ross, 1995).

It has been suggested that one way organizations can reduce the level of intention to quit is by improving the fit between employees and organizations (Parnell, 1998). More employers are successfully using personality tests to screen applicants to ensure a proper person-job fit exists. While these screening tests have resulted in decreased turnover (Berta, 2002; Gale, 2002; Parnell, 1998), the individual impact of specific personality dimensions on intention to quit has not been extensively examined (Barrick & Mount, 1996). The five-factor model (FFM) of personality, referred to as the Big Five, has been widely used to help understand the relationship of personality dimensions with job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1996). A similar emphasis on intention to quit could provide a better understanding of the relationship of personality dimensions with intention to quit. Using social exchange as the theoretical framework, this study will examine how two of the Big Five personality dimensions affect intention to quit, conscientiousness and agreeableness. The remaining three Big Five dimensions were not considered in this dissertation for reasons outlined below.

The dimensions of conscientiousness and agreeableness should influence individual responses to exchanges. Conscientiousness and agreeableness may serve as “self-constraints” (Johnson, 1991) causing individuals to reciprocate exchanges due to self-conviction (Cox, Wexler, Rusbult, & Gaines, 1997). From a social exchange perspective, considering conscientiousness and agreeableness as factors predicting turnover intentions is important because each has the potential to affect the heart of social exchange theory, the level of felt obligation to reciprocate an exchange.

The remaining Big Five personality dimensions - extraversion, openness to experience, and neuroticism - do not appear to fit within the theoretical framework of social exchange theory and therefore will not be included in this study. While extraversion does involve social interaction, it deals with the level of interaction with others (Barrick & Mount, 1996) rather than a consideration of obligation and reciprocation of said interactions. While openness to experience may lead an individual to engage in many different types of social exchanges, the purpose of these exchanges is to learn new things (Barrick & Mount, 1996), not to build a relationship based on equality of exchanges. Finally, neuroticism reflects an individual’s personal emotional behavior (Judge & Ilies, 2002) and does not entail outward feelings of obligation or reciprocation.

Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness entails being dependable, achievement oriented, and organized (Boudreau, Boswell, Judge, & Bretz, 2001; Hogan, 1990), and has been found to predict job performance and job success (Barrick & Mount, 1991). An individual with a high

level of conscientiousness might be more inclined to stay with an organization, especially if the organization has provided assistance or benefits which are voluntary in nature. Because conscientious people place a high value on the norm of reciprocity, leaving the organization would not allow them to fulfill their felt obligation to the organization or people in the organization.

For example, a conscientious person should have a high level of felt obligation to reciprocate an exchange because his/her honest and reliable nature requires some kind of recompense. An honest person can be expected to maintain fair and equitable exchanges with others. Reliability indicates an individual can be trusted to do something. In the realm of social exchange, a reliable person can be trusted to act in ways that reciprocate exchanges. Additionally, honesty and reliability are developed over the course of multiple exchanges. A person who is consistently honest and reliable should develop a reputation for having such attributes and others will expect the manifestation of those attributes (i.e., fair exchanges). Thus, the self-conviction to balance the exchanges received could serve as a constraint reducing turnover intentions (Cox et al., 1997; Johnson, 1991).

Agreeableness

Agreeableness shows itself through consideration for others, gentility, and compliance (Boudreau et al., 2001; Hogan, 1990). Individuals high on agreeableness will probably be less likely to consider leaving an organization because their leaving might be viewed as an inconvenience for the organization and/or coworkers. Further, agreeable individuals should be more inclined to avoid the conflict which often occurs between an

employer and an employee when quitting a job, thus decreasing their level of intention to quit. Finally, agreeable people should be more apt to comply with social standards. Because an agreeable individual prefers harmony rather than conflict, the inclination to “rock the boat” may be decreased in order to avoid social disapproval (Guillet et al., 2002; Homans, 1961; Nord, 1969). The person may not want to reciprocate an exchange, but will do so in order to maintain a pleasant environment. If quitting a job would be viewed by others with disapproval, a person high on agreeableness would avoid the disapproval by staying at the job.

From the previous discussion, the consideration of conscientiousness and agreeableness in intention to quit studies could help provide a better picture of the personal factors which play a part in intention to quit. Because personal factors (e.g., age, gender, education) have predominantly been used as control variables, conscientiousness and agreeableness are included as control variables in this dissertation.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter will discuss the research design and methodology used to test the hypotheses developed in Chapter Two. The first section presents the study design. Subsequent sections describe the data collection instrument and the measures used. The final section outlines the data analysis procedures which were employed.

Study Design

This study addresses several limitations in the current intention to quit literature. Most intention to quit studies concentrate on work-related factors and ignore non work-related factors. Because this study uses social exchange as the theoretical framework, the consideration of both work- and non work-related factors is required. Work-related factors included are: organizational commitment, job satisfaction, met expectations, external opportunity, POS, and PSS. Non work-related factors include: family responsibility, kinship responsibility, conscientiousness, and agreeableness. By addressing both types of factors, this study provides a more holistic picture of intention to quit. Additionally, this study tests whether or not job satisfaction and organizational commitment mediate the joint relationship of POS and PSS with intention to quit.

This dissertation utilized a questionnaire and was cross-sectional in nature. The sample for this study was drawn from correctional officers (CO) employed with the

Mississippi Department of Corrections (MDOC). COs perform a variety of tasks at prison sites and interact daily with prison inmates. Tasks include maintaining order and discipline of inmates, supervising inmate work details, and advising inmates about personal problems. COs report to an administrative superior and do not serve in a managerial capacity. Table 3.1 provides more information about the basic duties of a typical correctional officer. MDOC currently employs over 3,600 full-time employees statewide. The sample was drawn from three of MDOC's sites employing approximately 1,600 total employees. The methodology used to analyze the data was hierarchical ordinary least squares (OLS) regression.

Sample Size

When utilizing hierarchical regression, it is recommended that the ratio of observations to each independent variable not fall below 5:1 because the findings become sample specific, thus reducing generalizability. A range of between 15 and 20 observations per predictor is considered to be "desirable" (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). Following the suggested ratio, an absolute minimum of 65 observations was required for this study because thirteen independent variables were included consisting of five control variables and eight other variables. However, a sample of between 195 and 260 was desirable for generalizability (Hair et al., 1998). The actual sample size obtained, 392, fulfilled the minimum sample size requirement.

Table 3.1 Correctional Officer Work Examples

Examples of work performed include, but are not limited to, the following:

- Maintains discipline to prevent riots, escapes, fires, and theft; exercises custody over and control of offender population
- Keeps watch in a tower, hall, or at a gate; inspects incoming and outgoing vehicles and maintains all security involving the institution
- Assists in supervising the feeding of residents and offenders and enforces regulations covering sanitation and personal care
- Ensures compliance with all rules and regulations pertaining to resident and offender behavior and welfare
- Escorts residents and offenders to and from their places of confinement; maintains custody of offenders when being transported from one area to another
- Supervises residents and offenders assigned to work detail; writes rule violation reports and assists in offender discipline and classification actions
- Makes rounds inside or outside buildings; counts residents and offenders; looks for fires; watches for residents and offenders trying to escape; assists in recapturing residents and offenders
- Advises residents and offenders concerning personal problems and assists with solutions to problems on an individual basis

Statistical Procedure

In order to properly examine the hypothesized relationships, multiple stages in a specific model must be compared. Hierarchical regression provides the means to compare the stages. While other types of OLS regression can be used to test for mediation, hierarchical regression allows mediation analysis to be conducted with greater ease because fewer model comparisons are required. As Hypotheses 6, 7, 8, and 9 required mediation analyses, using hierarchical regression was a logical methodological choice. Additionally, because hierarchical regression requires that variables be entered in stages based on theory, and the relationships hypothesized in this study are grounded in theory rather than exploratory in nature, hierarchical regression was appropriate.

While hierarchical regression has been used in similar studies including mediators and moderators (Connelly et al., 2000; Courneya, Bobick, & Schinke, 1999; Mills & Turk, 1986; Slater, 2003), it could be argued that structural equation modeling (SEM) is also appropriate to test the model examined in this study. Some researchers have addressed this argument by employing both hierarchical regression and SEM in a single study (Ebert, Tucker, & Roth, 2002; Elovainio & Kivimaki, 2001; Elovainio, Kivimaki, Kortteinen, & Tuomikoski, 2001; Turnley & Feldman, 2000). In these studies, hierarchical regression was used to test the theoretical model and SEM was used to compare alternative models to determine which model provides the best fit for the observed data. As the consideration of different models is not the intent of this study, only hierarchical regression was employed.

Data Collection Instrument

Data were collected using a questionnaire consisting of established scales. To help reduce expenses and increase response rates, a letter from the upper management of the organization was sent out the week prior to the data collection to inform employees of the upcoming survey and its purpose. As each site requires all employees of each shift (three shifts daily) to muster at specific locations to receive their daily assignments, it was announced at each of the three daily musters that the study was being conducted, that participation was voluntary, and that employees could take the time to fill out the survey before starting their workday. As an added incentive for participation, each person that filled out a survey was entered into a drawing for the chance to win a cash prize of \$300, \$200, or \$100. After the announcement was made, the supervisor indicated where the surveys were available, pointed out a nearby locked box to return the completed survey, and then left the immediate area.

Independent Variable Measures

The measures used in this study are all established scales that have been utilized successfully in the literature. Given the previous performance of these scales, they can be employed with some degree of confidence in this current dissertation (Engelland, Alford, & Taylor, working paper). However, steps were taken to ensure the measures are appropriate as explained in the “Analysis” section of this chapter.

Job Satisfaction

A three-item global job satisfaction scale developed by Cammann, Fischmann, Jenkins, and Klesh (1983) was used to measure overall job satisfaction. This scale is part of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (MOAQ) and uses a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This scale has been used extensively and previous studies cite internal reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha) ranging from .67 to .95 (McFarlin & Rice, 1992; McLain, 1995; Pearson, 1991; Sanchez & Brock, 1996; Siegall & McDonald, 1995). The OAQ job satisfaction items can be found in Table 3.2.

Organizational Commitment

A reduced 8-item form of the original 15-item scale of the organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday, Porter & Steers (1982) was used to measure organizational commitment. The OCQ uses a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This reduced measure's reliability has been proven repeatedly (Eberhardt, Pooyan, & Moser, 1995; Lee & Johnson, 1991) with reliabilities ranging from .85 to .93. The OCQ items are found in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Independent Variable Measures

Job Satisfaction	
Cammann et al. (1983)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * All in all, I am satisfied with my job * In general, I don't like my job * In general, I like working here
Organizational Commitment	
Mowday et al. (1982)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful. * I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for. * I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization. * I find that my values and the organization's values are similar. * I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization. * I am extremely glad I chose this organization to work for above others I was considering at the time I joined. * I really care about the fate of this organization. * For me, this is the best of all organizations for which to work.
Perceived Organizational Support	
Eisenberger et al. (2001)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * This organization really cares about my well-being. * This organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work. * This organization values my contributions to its well-being.
Perceived Supervisor Support	
Eisenberger et al. (2001)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * My supervisor is willing to extend him/herself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability. * My supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments at work. * My supervisor tries to make my job as interesting as possible.
Family Responsibility	
Blegen et al. (1988)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * What is your present marital status? * How many children under <i>six years of age</i> live either with you or with you and your spouse? * How many children between <i>six and seventeen years of age</i> live either with you or with you and your spouse? * How many children between <i>eighteen and twenty-one years of age</i> do either you or your spouse have?

Table 3.2 (continued)

Kinship Responsibility	
Blegen et al. (1988)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * How many of <i>your relatives</i> (mother, father, brothers, sisters, adult sons, and adult daughters) live within 50 miles from where you live? (Exclude the children referred to in previous questions) * How many of <i>your spouses relatives</i> (mother, father, brothers, sisters, adult sons, and adult daughters) live within 50 miles from where you live (Exclude the children referred to in previous questions)
Met Expectations	
Feldman (1976)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * The good and bad points of this job are pretty much as I expected when I was hired. * To what extent have your initial expectations been met regarding what you thought you would get from your job * Have your initial expectations, what you thought you would get from your organization when you joined, been met?
External Opportunity	
Turnley & Feldman. (1999)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * If you were to leave your current organization, how much difficulty would you have finding another job that was just as good? * How would you rate the current availability of jobs for people with your skills and abilities outside your organization in your community? * How much difficulty would you have in finding a job with pay and benefits similar to your present job if you decided to quit? * Overall, how much money(e.g., salary, retirement funds, benefits) would you lose if you were to quit your job and go to work for another organization?
Personality	
Costa & McCrae (1985)	Conscientiousness and agreeableness 12-item subscales from the 60 item NEO-FFI
Social Desirability	
Crowne & Marlowe (1960)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged. * I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way. * No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener. * There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.

Table 3.2 (continued)

Social Desirability	
Crowne & Marlowe (1960) (continued)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * I'm always willing to admit when I make a mistake. * I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget. * I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable. * I have never been bothered when people expressed ideas very different from my own. * There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others. * I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me. * I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.
Demographics	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gender Ethnicity Tenure Age Education

Perceived Organizational Support

A three-item scale developed by Eisenberger, Arneli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, and Rhoades (2001) was used to measure perceived organizational support. The survey utilizes a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This scale is an abbreviated version of Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) 17-item scale and has performed similarly to the full 17-item instrument with internal reliabilities ranging from .74 to .94 (Eisenberger et al., 2001; Stamper & Johlke, 2003; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). The original 17-item measure has reported coefficient alphas ranging from .74 to .95. The scale items can be found in Table 3.2.

Perceived Supervisor Support

Perceived supervisor support was measured using Eisenberger et al.'s (2001) three-item scale. Eisenberger et al. (2002) adapted this scale from the previously discussed perceived organizational support scale by changing the word "organization" changed to the word "supervisor" (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Arneli, 2001). This measure uses a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) and has internal reliabilities ranging from .81 to .86 (Eisenberger et al., 2001, 2002; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). The perceived supervisor support items can be found in Table 3.2.

Family and Kinship Responsibility

Family and kinship responsibility was measured using the kinship responsibility index developed by Blegen et al. (1988). Because the kinship responsibility index

(Blegen et al., 1988) includes a combination of family and kinship items, this study separated the items into two distinct indexes: a family responsibility index and a kinship responsibility index. This was done because family responsibility and kinship responsibility are two distinct constructs (Iverson & Roy, 1994) and should be evaluated individually. Price (2001) illustrates this thought by referring to “parents and children as the relatives toward whom the employees would have the strongest obligations. Uncles, aunts, and grandparents would seem less important to employees in US society.” Separating the family and kinship items into two distinct indexes should not cause any psychometric problems (Personal correspondence with Blegen, 2004). The scoring for the two indexes will remain consistent with Blegen et al’s (1988) scoring system and is described below.

The family responsibility index is comprised of the following:

$$\text{Family Responsibility} = \text{Marital Status} + \text{Number of Children}$$

As can be seen, the family responsibility index is comprised of two components - marital status of an employee and the number of children the employee has. A “married” response resulted in a “1” being added to the index, while all other marital responses (widowed, divorced, separated, never married) resulted in no change to the index. The number of children contributes to the family responsibility index in the following manner: number of children ≥ 2 results in “2” being added to the index, number of children = 1 results in “1” being added to the index, and no children results in no change to the index.

The kinship responsibility index is comprised of the following:

$$\text{Kinship Responsibility} = \text{Relatives in the Community} + \text{Spouse's Relatives in the Community}$$

This index includes the number of relatives the employee and his/her spouse have in the community. If the number of relatives the employee had in the community was one or greater, then relatives in the community = 1, otherwise relatives in the community = 0. If the number of relatives the spouse had in the community was one or greater, then the spouse's relatives in the community = 1, otherwise the spouse's relatives in the community = 0. If the employee did not have a spouse, then the spouse's relatives in the community = 0. The family and kinship responsibility items can be found in Table 3.2.

Met Expectations

Met expectations was measured using questions from a three-item scale developed by Feldman (1976). Responses were evaluated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Other researchers have utilized similarly adapted questions with internal reliabilities ranging from .81 to .88 (Robinson, 1996; Turnley & Feldman, 2000). The met expectation items are found in Table 3.2.

External Opportunity

External opportunity was measured using an adapted four-item scale developed by Turnley and Feldman (1999). These items will use a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Turnley and Feldman reported a Cronbach's alpha of .76 for this scale. The external opportunity items are found in Table 3.2.

Personality

Personality was measured using the conscientiousness and agreeableness subscales of the 60-item NEO Five Factor Inventory (FFI) (Costa & McCrae, 1985). Each subscale consists of 12 items. Utilizing only two of the five subscales does not cause any psychometric problems and is often done by researchers (Personal correspondence with Costa, 2004). These items use a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The NEO FFI has been used extensively and consistently has internal reliabilities above .70 (Foltz, Morse, Calvo, & Barber, 1997; Kurtz & Sherker, 2003; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). The personality items, due to copyright requirements, could not be listed in Table 3.2.

Social Desirability

Because this study utilizes self-reported measures, the potential for social desirability bias exists. To alleviate concerns about social desirability, a short form of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) was employed. The Marlowe-Crowne short form (Reynolds, 1982) contains 11 items. These items use a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Internal reliabilities for the scale range from .68 - .76 (Ballard, 1992; Reynolds, 1982). The social desirability items can be found in Table 3.2.

Demographics

Demographic information was self-reported by subjects. Information concerning age, gender, tenure, ethnicity, and education was collected.

Dependent Variable Measure

The dependent variable to be measured was intention to quit. Intention to quit has often been measured using a single item (Futrell & Parasuraman, 1984; Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001; Liou, 1998; Weisberg & Kirschenbaum, 1991). However, several multi-item scales have also been developed. For purposes of this research, a three-item scale developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1979) was employed. These items use a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Reliabilities and validity for this scale have been established with coefficient alphas consistently ranging from .81 to .83 (Abraham, 1999; Cammann et al., 1979; Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis, & Cammann, 1982). A list of the intention to quit items is found in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Dependent Variable Measure

Intention to Quit	
Cammann et al. (1979)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * I often think about quitting my job with this organization. * I will probably look for a new job within the next year * It is likely that I will actively look for a new job in the next year.

Analysis

Testing Scale Psychometric Properties

While the measures employed have been used in past research and have consistently exceeded recommended coefficient alpha levels of .70 (Nunnally &

Bernstein, 1994), it is still necessary to test each scale's reliability. Therefore, an internal reliability test (Cronbach's coefficient alpha) was performed on each scale to ensure reliabilities were above the suggested minimum levels of .60 (Hair et al., 1998) to .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Additionally, because scale validity is not portable between populations, it was necessary to test for scale validity (Churchill, 1979). Therefore, factor analysis was conducted. Factor analysis was performed using generalized least squares with an equamax rotation to ensure the scale items measuring a construct loaded appropriately. The rule of thumb regarding factor loadings suggests a minimum factor loading of +/- .30 (Hair et al., 1998). The results of the factor analysis are discussed in Chapter IV.

Hierarchical Model Steps

The model used in the hierarchical analysis involved eight steps. Each step built off the previous step (See Table 3.4). Step One included the following control variables that have been established as predictors of intention to quit and provide a baseline to compare subsequent steps: Age (Aryee, Wyatt, & Min, 1991; Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001; Turnley & Feldman, 1999, 2000; Weisberg & Kirschenbaum, 1991), gender (Klenke-Hamel & Matheiu, 1990; Liou, 1998; Turnley & Feldman, 1999, 2000), and tenure (Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001; Weisberg & Kirschenbaum, 1991). Two additional control variables, conscientiousness, and agreeableness, have been added because they may provide additional insight on how personal factors play a part in the development of intention to quit.

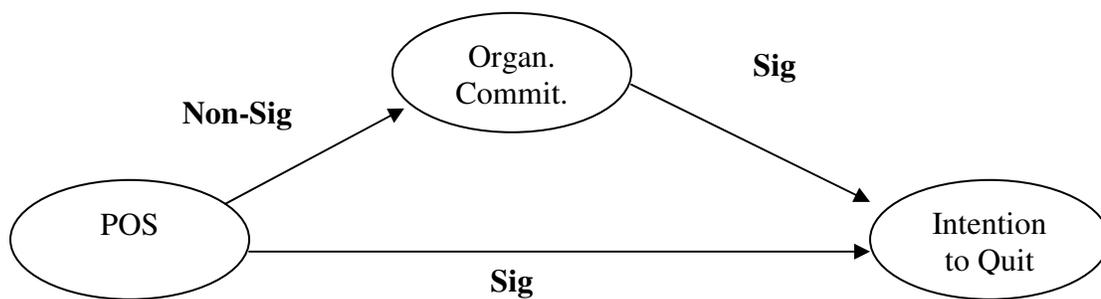
Table 3.4 Hierarchical Regression Analysis Steps

Step					
1	Control Variables: Age Gender Tenure Conscientiousness Agreeableness Social Desirability				
2	Step 1 Variables +	Direct Effects: Met Expectations (ME) External Opportunity (EO) Family Responsibility (FR) Kinship Responsibility (KR)			
3	Step 1 Variables +	Step 2 Variables +	Support Mediators: POS PSS		
4	Step 1 Variables +	Step 2 Variables +	Step 3 Variables +	Attitudinal Mediators: Organizational Commitment (OC) Job Satisfaction (JS)	
5	Step 1 Variables +	Step 2 Variables +	Step 3 Variables +	Step 4 Variables +	Interaction Terms: EO x OC
6	Step 1 Variables +	Step 2 Variables +	Step 3 Variables +	Step 4 Variables + Step 5	EO x JS
7	Step 1 Variables +	Step 2 Variables +	Step 3 Variables +	Step 4 Variables + Step 5 and 6	EO x FR
8	Step 1 Variables +	Step 2 Variables +	Step 3 Variables +	Step 4 Variables + Step 5, 6, and 7	EO x KR

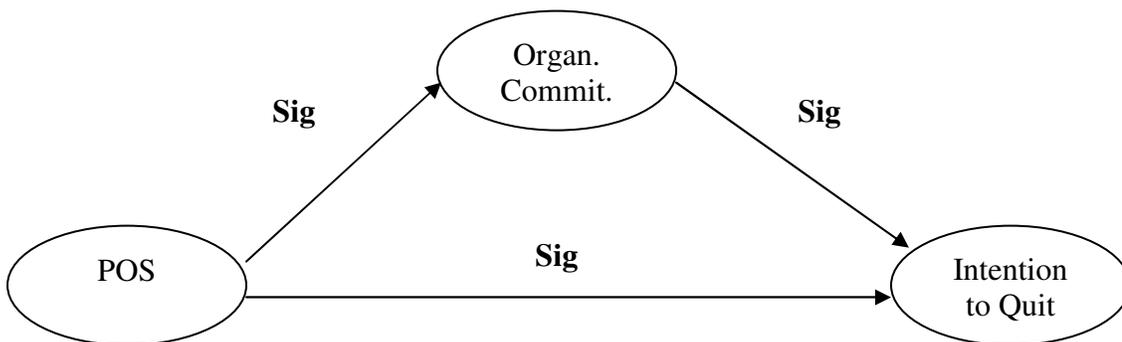
Outcome Variable: Intention to Quit

Step Two added met expectations (Turnley & Feldman, 2000), external opportunity (Griffeth & Hom, 1988; Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001; Larwood et al., 1998; Turnley & Feldman, 1999), family responsibility, and kinship responsibility to the previous step. These variables were entered in this step because they are required to test the direct relationships hypothesized. Step Three added POS and PSS to the previous step. This step was necessary to establish a direct relationship between POS/PSS and intention to quit. Step Four added organizational commitment and job satisfaction to the previous step. This step was necessary to establish the relationship between the mediators, organizational commitment and job satisfaction, and intention to quit. See Figure 3.1 for an illustration of mediation effects. Step Five added the interaction term of external opportunity and organizational commitment to the previous step. Step Six added the interaction term of external opportunity and job satisfaction to the previous step. Step Seven added the interaction term of external opportunity and family responsibility to the previous step. Step Eight added the interaction term of external opportunity and kinship responsibility to the previous step. The interaction terms were necessary to test whether or not difficulty of finding external opportunity serves as a moderator for each of the previous variables and intention to quit.

No Mediation:



Partial Mediation:



Full Mediation:

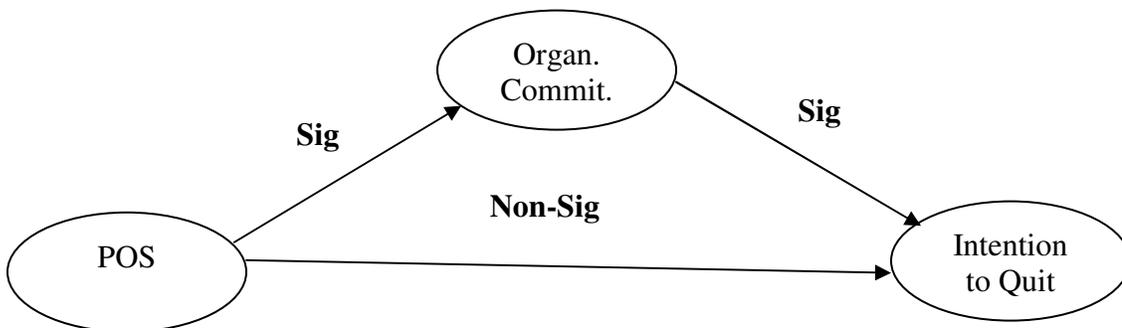


Figure 3.1 Mediation Illustration

Hypotheses Analysis

Hypotheses 1 and 2 required a check to be conducted to ensure a significant relationship existed between met expectations and POS and PSS. This was accomplished by running two regression analyses with met expectations serving as the independent variable. In one of the analyses, POS served as the dependent variable. In the second analysis, PSS served as the dependent variable. The beta coefficient between POS/PSS and met expectations were then examined in each regression. A statistically significant ($p < .05$) beta coefficient would provide support for Hypotheses 1 and 2 respectively. Testing Hypothesis 3 involves the examination of beta coefficients. A statistically significant ($p < .05$) beta coefficient indicates that the independent variable in question has an impact on the outcome variable. Hypothesis 3 was tested by examining the beta coefficient for external opportunity in Step Two of the hierarchical regression model. A statistically significant ($p < .05$) beta coefficient would support Hypothesis 3.

Hypotheses 4 and 5 involve a moderator. For Hypothesis 4, the interaction term, external opportunity x organizational commitment, entered in Step Five of the hierarchical regression was examined. A statistically significant change in R^2 between Step 4 and Step 5 of the hierarchical regression would indicate a significant moderating effect (Hair et al., 1998) supporting Hypothesis 4. For Hypothesis 5, the interaction term, external opportunity x job satisfaction, entered in Step Six of the hierarchical regression was examined. A statistically significant change in R^2 between Step 5 and Step 6 of the hierarchical regression would indicate a significant moderating effect (Hair et al., 1998) supporting Hypothesis 5.

Mediation Hypotheses Analysis

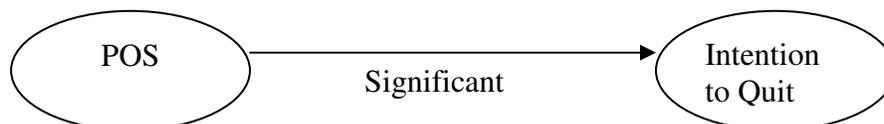
Hypotheses 6, 7, 8 and 9 involve mediation. Using the four-step procedure outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986), a check was conducted to ensure whether or not mediation effects of organizational commitment between the independent variables, POS and PSS, and the dependent variable, intention to quit, exist. As discussed in Chapter Two, these mediation effects have been found previously for POS (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003), but have not been tested pertaining to PSS. The process used to test the mediation effects is described below. Because the same procedure was used for each of the hypotheses pertaining to mediation (Hypotheses 6, 7, 8 and 9), Hypothesis 6 will be used as an example to describe the process (See Figure 3.2).

In order to verify a mediation effect exists, four conditions must be met. The first condition requires that the independent variable (POS) be significantly related to the dependent variable (intention to quit). To check this condition, Step Three of the hierarchical regression model was examined. If examination of the beta coefficient of POS indicates a statistically significant ($p < .05$) impact on intention to quit in the model, the first condition of mediation will have been met.

Hypothesis 6: Organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between POS and intention to quit.

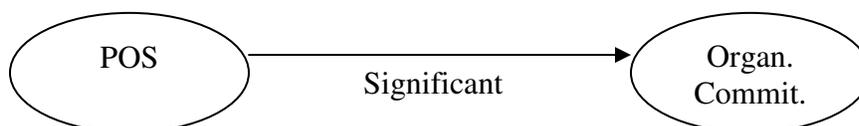
Condition 1:

Does a significant relationship exist between POS and intention to quit?
Examine Step Two of hierarchical regression model. If POS has a significant relationship with intention to quit, the first condition will be met.



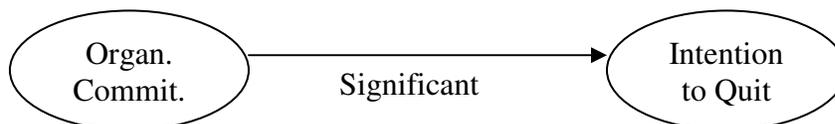
Condition 2:

Does a significant relationship exist between POS and organizational commitment?
Examine the regression model using organizational commitment and job satisfaction as the outcome variables. If POS has a significant relationship with organizational commitment, the second condition will be met.



Condition 3:

Does the mediator affect the outcome variable?
Examine Step Four of the hierarchical regression model. If organizational commitment has a significant relationship with intention to quit, the third condition will be met.



Condition 4:

Does the mediator completely mediate or partially mediate the relationship?
Examine Step Two and Step Four of the hierarchical regression model. If the relationship between POS and intention to quit becomes non-significant from Step Two to Step Four, full mediation has occurred. If the relationship significantly decreases, partial mediation has occurred. A Sobel test can be conducted to test whether significant changes occur.

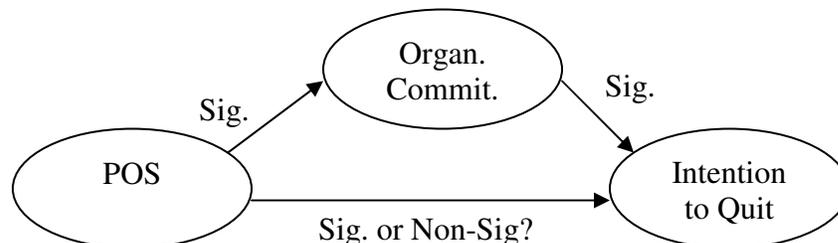


Figure 3.2 Mediation Check Walkthrough for Hypothesis #6

The second condition requires that the independent variable be significantly related to the proposed mediator. A linear regression model similar to the one used in Step Three of the hierarchical regression was employed to test this condition with one exception. Instead of using intention to quit as the dependent variable, the regression model used organizational commitment as the outcome. This is necessary to establish the relationship between the independent variables and the mediators. Therefore, for Hypothesis 6, if POS (the independent variable) has a statistically significant ($p < .05$) impact on organizational commitment (the proposed mediator), indicated by POS's beta coefficient value in the regression model, then the second condition of mediation will be met.

The third condition requires that the mediator affect the outcome variable. Step Four of the hierarchical regression was examined to check this condition. For testing Hypothesis 6, if organizational commitment has a statistically significant ($p < .05$) impact on intention to quit in the model, as indicated by organizational commitment's beta coefficient in the regression model, then the third condition of mediation will be met.

The fourth condition requires that the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable must be significantly weaker or non-significant when the proposed mediator is included. A significantly weaker relationship indicates partial mediation while a non-significant relationship indicates full mediation. To check the fourth condition, Step Three and Step Four of the hierarchical regression model were referred to. If the previous three conditions were met and the effect of POS on intention

to quit is significantly less or becomes non-significant from Step Three to Step Four, then organizational commitment mediates the relationship between POS and intention to quit.

In order to measure whether or not the effect of POS on intention to quit is significantly decreased by organizational commitment's inclusion in the model, a Sobel (1982) test is required. The Sobel (1982) test assesses if a significant change in the relationship between the antecedent (POS in Hypothesis 6) and the outcome (intention to quit) occurs with the mediator (organizational commitment) in the model. This is accomplished by multiplying the unstandardized path coefficients between the antecedent and mediator and the mediator and the outcome variable, and then dividing by the standard error of the path resulting in a Z-statistic. A significant Z-statistic indicates that organizational commitment's inclusion in the model significantly reduces the effect of POS on intention to quit. Thus, the Z-statistic computed from the Sobel test allows the researcher to ascertain whether or not a statistically significant change in effect, or mediation, has occurred. The same process will be used to test Hypotheses 7, 8 and 9.

Remaining Hypotheses Analysis

Testing Hypotheses 10 and 12 involves the examination of beta coefficients. A statistically significant ($p < .05$) beta coefficient indicates that the independent variable in question has an impact on the outcome variable. Hypothesis 10 was tested by examining the beta coefficient for family responsibility in Step Two of the hierarchical regression model. A statistically significant ($p < .05$) beta coefficient would provide support for Hypothesis 10. Hypothesis 12 was tested by examining the beta coefficient for kinship

responsibility in Step Two of the hierarchical regression model. A statistically significant ($p < .05$) beta coefficient would provide support for Hypothesis 12.

Hypotheses 11 and 13 involve moderators. For Hypothesis 11, the interaction term, external opportunity x family responsibility, entered in Step Seven of the hierarchical regression was examined. A statistically significant change in R^2 between Step 6 and Step 7 of the hierarchical regression would indicate a significant moderating effect (Hair et al., 1998) supporting Hypothesis 11. For Hypothesis 13, the interaction term, external opportunity x kinship responsibility, entered in Step Eight of the hierarchical regression was examined. A statistically significant change in R^2 between Step 7 and Step 8 of the hierarchical regression would indicate a significant moderating effect (Hair et al., 1998) supporting Hypothesis 13.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS

The data analyses and hypotheses test results are discussed in this chapter. First, a description of the actual sample collected is presented. Next, the scale dimensionality and reliability tests performed are outlined. Finally, the analysis and the results of the analysis are provided.

Sample

As outlined in Chapter Three, a one-day period was spent collecting data at each of the three site locations. This was done to ensure employees on all shifts had the opportunity to participate in the study. Of the 923 employees attending muster on the days in question, a total of 516 (55.9%) returned surveys to the lock boxes provided. However, of the 516 surveys returned, 124 were either incomplete and/or had conflicting answers. The majority of the incomplete surveys had missing data for demographic information; age – 86 left blank, tenure – 36 left blank, gender – 33 left blank. Because these demographic variables were control variables, those surveys with blank answers for demographic information were removed from the sample. The remaining incomplete surveys were removed because large sections of the survey were not complete (29 total). In most cases, the incomplete surveys had data missing for more than one of the previously mentioned items. For example, a survey could have been missing data for

age, gender, and large sections of the survey. The final number of surveys eliminated due to missing data was 98. Other surveys (26 total) were removed from the sample because the answers provided conflicted with previous answers. For example, some subjects answered “Strongly Agree” to the item, “In general, I don’t like my job” and answered “Strongly Agree” to the reverse-coded item, “In general, I like working here.” These removals brought the number of usable surveys down to 392, producing an effective response rate of 42.5 percent.

The mean age and tenure of each respondent was 36.6 years and 6.7 years, respectively. Other demographic information collected about the sample included gender, race, marital status, education level, number of children, and the number of relatives living within 50 miles. Table 4.1 provides a breakdown of the previously listed demographic variables.

Scale Verification

As explained in Chapter Three, it was necessary to ensure the scales used for the study were distinct and reliable. This was accomplished by performing a factor analysis for scale dimensionality and running an internal reliability measure test (Cronbach’s coefficient alpha). The following section describes the processes used to verify scale dimensionality and reliability.

Table 4.1 Sample Demographic Information

	Number	Percentage
Sex:		
Male	141	36%
Female	251	64%
Race:		
White	73	19%
Black	310	79%
Hispanic/Native American/Other	9	2%
Marital Status:		
Single	143	36%
Married	158	41%
Widowed/Divorced/ Separated	91	23%
Education:		
High School or Less	143	36%
Some College, no Degree	165	42%
College Degree	84	22%
Number of Children:		
0 Children	103	26%
1 Child	71	18%
2 Children	96	25%
3 or More Children	122	31%
Number of Relatives Within 50 Miles:		
0 Relatives	59	15%
1-5 Relatives	112	28%
6-10 Relatives	85	22%
11 or More Relatives	136	35%
Family Responsibility Index Values:		
0	68	17%
1	82	21%
2	143	37%
3	99	25%
Kinship Responsibility Index Values:		
0	59	15%
1	157	40%
2	176	45%
Average Age = 36.6 years		
Average Tenure = 6.7 years		

Sample based on n = 392

Scale Dimensionality Analysis

Scale dimensionality was assessed through factor analysis (generalized least squares with an equamax rotation). Because the results were expected to coincide with previous findings, the a priori criterion (Hair et al., 1998) was used to assign the number of factors (10) to be extracted. In other words, because the number of factors expected to emerge was theoretically based and the scales used were established, it was reasonable to assign the number of factors to extract at ten. Initially, all the items included in the questionnaire were included in the analysis. However, job satisfaction and organizational commitment items cross-loaded. Additionally, social desirability items were cross-loading on the personality scale (conscientiousness and agreeableness) items (see Table 4.2). Because outcomes using factors with cross-loadings cannot be reliably interpreted, this is undesirable. This problem is often resolved by removing the item(s) which have significant loadings on several factors (Hair et al., 1998). As suggested by Hair et al. (1998), the item which had the highest levels of cross-loading was removed from the analysis and the factor analysis was performed again. One by one, those items having significant loadings on several factors were removed.

Table 4.2 Factor Analysis (all questionnaire scale items included)

Variable	Factor									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Commitment #5	.679	.089	.012	.223	.299	-.022	.274	.127	.228	.024
Commitment #2	.671	.028	-.022	.168	.260	-.025	.249	.200	.214	.017
Commitment #6	.630	.014	.093	.167	.230	.026	.250	.262	.204	-.041
Commitment #8	.613	-.021	.042	.203	.303	.037	.276	.291	.186	-.143
Commitment #7	.541	.048	-.056	.211	.181	.067	.273	.125	.006	.202
Commitment #1	.532	.095	-.093	.093	.127	.124	.204	.144	.106	.153
Satisfaction #3	.518	.044	-.111	.177	.226	.058	.312	-.011	.308	.187
Commitment #4	.489	-.109	.080	.211	.343	-.016	.128	.178	.256	-.070
Commitment #3	.465	.040	-.053	.156	.141	.020	.035	.158	.206	-.074
Satisfaction #2	.420	.026	.006	.250	.185	-.025	.295	-.039	.270	.278
Satisfaction #1	.374	-.005	.062	.212	.364	.040	.321	.185	.343	-.017
Conscientiousness #7	.047	.791	.187	-.002	.029	.259	.069	.010	.032	.075
Conscientiousness #8	.046	.725	.109	.038	.006	.241	.008	.051	-.067	.023
Conscientiousness #4	.050	.644	.133	.073	.028	.311	.070	.055	-.062	.092
Conscientiousness #5	.109	.551	.158	.080	.061	.221	.050	.010	.048	.049
Conscientiousness #12	-.045	.485	.093	.012	.120	.211	-.100	.028	.133	.152
Conscientiousness #2	-.015	.467	.109	-.012	-.042	.081	.030	-.073	.225	.249
Conscientiousness #1	-.135	.394	.167	-.066	-.143	.261	-.111	-.014	.261	.374
Agreeableness #6	.042	-.316	-.074	-.035	-.021	-.165	.112	.008	-.037	.179
Agreeableness #4	-.018	.295	.124	.048	.014	.089	.034	.176	.104	.127
Social Desirability #2	-.032	.139	.673	.046	.085	.107	.132	.043	.109	.224
Conscientiousness #11	.067	.266	.570	.047	.067	.254	-.015	-.076	.165	.080
Agreeableness #12	.003	.160	.542	-.049	.008	.204	.110	.111	-.043	.115
Social Desirability #6	-.057	.117	.525	-.052	-.029	.216	.185	.026	-.061	.148
Social Desirability #4	.097	.143	.511	.044	-.047	.027	.055	.046	-.139	.098
Conscientiousness #9	-.080	.142	.499	.099	-.054	.033	-.040	-.022	.047	.178
Social Desirability #9	-.079	.069	.499	.066	.021	.228	.016	-.083	-.008	.107
Social Desirability #1	.009	.237	.409	-.065	.097	-.080	.039	-.043	.088	.263
Conscientiousness #6	.008	.246	.405	.016	-.103	.036	-.025	-.120	.067	.288
Social Desirability #10	.062	-.020	.301	-.005	.040	.182	.028	-.110	.092	.191
PSS#2	.108	.062	.021	.913	.216	-.042	.080	.079	.093	.030
PSS#1	.149	.024	-.010	.839	.147	.046	.138	.068	.077	-.013
PSS#3	.068	-.031	.031	.802	.203	.000	.155	.103	.140	.004

Table 4.2 (continued)

Variable	Factor									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
POS#2	.144	.022	.029	.213	.850	.018	.105	.216	.209	-.024
POS#3	.146	.021	-.009	.315	.717	.041	.151	.065	.155	.018
POS #1	.191	.051	.008	.227	.714	-.074	.203	.125	.185	.041
Social Desirability #7	.062	.142	.101	.067	-.015	.646	-.041	.018	.038	.063
Conscientiousness #10	.008	.331	.175	-.060	.042	.635	-.068	-.050	.062	.154
Agreeableness #10	.031	.358	.145	-.008	-.056	.598	.071	.058	-.078	.115
Social Desirability #3	-.049	.186	.151	-.020	.002	.555	.060	.009	.093	.105
Social Desirability #5	.030	.249	.046	.074	.036	.459	-.044	-.006	.074	.018
Agreeableness #7	.086	.310	.071	.069	.125	.347	.052	.025	-.041	.302
Social Desirability #8	.093	.050	-.099	-.003	.060	.336	.031	-.103	.171	.022
Intention to Quit #2	-.152	-.002	-.059	-.154	-.132	-.003	-.919	-.189	-.145	-.015
Intention to Quit #3	-.140	-.017	-.059	-.144	-.141	.013	-.887	-.161	-.121	-.047
Intention to Quit #1	-.264	.006	-.107	-.165	-.236	.051	-.448	-.117	-.210	-.023
External #3	.031	.060	-.011	.083	.087	-.020	.103	.838	.123	-.009
External #4	.194	-.021	-.024	.114	.140	.016	.132	.745	.075	.059
External #1	.172	-.030	-.090	.081	.255	.023	.209	.543	.271	.001
External #2	-.062	.003	.124	-.060	-.038	-.123	.172	.325	-.020	.054
Social Desirability #11	.067	.100	.072	.012	-.020	.183	.019	.190	.034	.186
Met Expect #3	.182	-.042	-.009	.134	.220	-.064	.198	.214	.689	-.058
Met Expect #2	.084	.008	.057	.127	.246	.081	.171	.164	.672	-.081
Met Expect #1	.196	.021	-.055	.242	.192	.120	.084	.120	.432	-.063
Agreeableness #3	.065	.031	.150	.020	-.025	.127	.063	.042	-.115	.542
Agreeableness #8	.020	.051	.194	-.008	.021	.251	.095	.058	-.083	.506
Agreeableness #1	-.076	.331	.134	-.082	-.085	.408	-.054	.006	.168	.425
Agreeableness #9	-.018	-.033	.290	.123	.000	-.041	-.010	.085	-.055	.416
Agreeableness #2	.092	.072	.319	-.006	.051	.122	.114	-.004	-.089	.366
Agreeableness #5	-.006	-.010	-.013	.001	.022	-.033	.055	-.020	-.030	.337
Agreeableness #11	.106	-.045	.239	-.037	.020	.112	.087	.091	-.018	.287
Conscientiousness #3	.011	.040	-.080	.012	.081	-.087	.001	-.057	-.083	.237
Eigenvalue	3.815	3.595	3.220	3.074	3.022	3.017	3.012	2.426	2.374	2.329
% of Variance	6.153	5.799	5.193	4.958	4.875	4.866	4.858	3.913	3.830	3.756
Cumulative %	6.153	11.952	17.145	22.103	26.978	31.843	36.702	40.614	44.444	48.200

Extraction Method: Generalized Least Squares. Rotation Method: Equamax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 11 iterations.

Following the previously mentioned method for dealing with items with significant loadings on several factors, steps were taken to remove the highest cross-loading items. This resulted in the removal of one item in both the job satisfaction and the organizational commitment scale. These removals left two items in the job satisfaction scale and seven items in the organizational commitment scale. It should be noted that while a two item scale can be used to measure a construct (Hair et al., 1998, Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), caution should be taken when interpreting results based on such a scale because certain aspects of the construct may not have been considered (Hair et al., 1998).

As noted earlier, several items in the social desirability scale significantly cross-loaded with the two personality measures. Following the previously described process for the removal of cross-loading items, multiple social desirability and personality items were removed individually and additional factor analyses were performed. However, cross-loading persisted. Because the cross-loading issue could not be resolved by dropping a few of the social desirability items, the removal of the social desirability scale was necessary. Thus, no analysis involving the social desirability scale will be included in this study. Because the social desirability scale served as a control variable, its removal did not prevent the testing of any hypotheses.

After the social desirability scale was removed, some cross-loading was noted among conscientiousness and agreeableness items. As with the previous problems with cross-loading, the cross-loading items were removed by the same procedure followed earlier. After the cross-loading items were removed, nine items remained in the

conscientiousness scale and six items remained in the agreeableness scale. However, an additional conscientiousness item was removed because it did not load significantly on any factors, bringing the number of items in the conscientiousness scale to eight.

After the previously mentioned adjustments were made, another factor analysis was performed. As with the original factor analysis, the a priori criterion (Hair et al., 1998) was used to assign the number of factors to extract. Because the social desirability scale was removed from the analysis, the a priori criterion of 9 factors was assigned rather than the original factor analysis which contained 10 factors. The extraction technique utilized was generalized least squares with an equamax rotation. The factor matrix indicated the remaining scale items loaded appropriately without significant cross-loadings (see Table 4.3).

After considering the results of the initial factor analysis in conjunction with qualitative information, the removal of some items was not surprising. During the data collection phase, several respondents said that they did not know the meaning of the word “methodical” which appeared in the conscientiousness scale, item #3, and indicated that they simply entered a neutral answer to the question or left it blank. The original factor analysis (see Table 4.2) could be reflecting a potential lack of respondent understanding of the item (conscientiousness #3) because the item does not appropriately load on any specific factor.

Table 4.3 Factor Analysis (cross-loading items removed)

Variable	Factor								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Conscientiousness #7	0.85	0.00	0.04	0.02	0.08	0.00	0.03	0.10	0.04
Conscientiousness #8	0.77	0.05	0.06	0.00	0.02	0.04	-0.05	0.05	-0.01
Conscientiousness #4	0.69	0.08	0.07	0.03	0.07	0.02	-0.03	0.16	0.00
Conscientiousness #5	0.60	0.08	0.12	0.04	0.05	-0.01	0.09	0.12	0.04
Conscientiousness #12	0.55	0.01	-0.09	0.12	-0.11	0.04	0.08	0.15	0.11
Conscientiousness #10	0.54	-0.08	0.01	0.04	-0.08	-0.05	0.05	0.28	0.03
Conscientiousness #2	0.49	-0.01	-0.07	-0.04	0.02	-0.04	0.08	0.16	0.19
Conscientiousness #1	0.48	-0.07	-0.14	-0.11	-0.11	-0.02	0.10	0.29	0.07
PSS#2	0.03	0.90	0.10	0.22	0.08	0.07	0.12	0.02	0.12
PSS#1	0.04	0.83	0.14	0.15	0.13	0.06	0.10	-0.01	0.15
PSS#3	-0.02	0.79	0.07	0.20	0.15	0.11	0.14	0.01	0.11
Commitment #8	-0.01	0.18	0.63	0.29	0.26	0.25	0.23	-0.05	0.21
Commitment #2	0.00	0.14	0.62	0.24	0.22	0.17	0.22	0.00	0.32
Commitment #7	0.05	0.19	0.55	0.15	0.24	0.07	0.10	0.18	0.20
Commitment #6	0.01	0.15	0.55	0.22	0.24	0.24	0.25	0.05	0.24
Commitment #1	0.12	0.07	0.51	0.10	0.16	0.13	0.10	0.06	0.31
Commitment #4	-0.09	0.18	0.45	0.34	0.11	0.17	0.24	-0.02	0.25
Commitment #3	0.04	0.13	0.40	0.12	0.00	0.15	0.20	-0.11	0.29
POS#2	0.03	0.19	0.14	0.85	0.10	0.21	0.23	-0.01	0.14
POS #1	0.02	0.22	0.18	0.69	0.19	0.12	0.20	0.00	0.15
POS#3	0.03	0.29	0.12	0.69	0.13	0.06	0.21	0.02	0.17
Intention to Quit #2	0.00	-0.14	-0.14	-0.12	-0.90	-0.18	-0.17	-0.07	-0.18
Intention to Quit #3	-0.01	-0.13	-0.13	-0.13	-0.87	-0.16	-0.13	-0.08	-0.18
Intention to Quit #1	0.01	-0.14	-0.18	-0.22	-0.43	-0.12	-0.21	-0.04	-0.25
External #3	0.05	0.08	0.05	0.08	0.10	0.88	0.13	0.01	0.00
External #4	-0.02	0.10	0.21	0.13	0.12	0.71	0.12	0.08	0.08
External #1	-0.02	0.06	0.17	0.24	0.19	0.53	0.23	-0.07	0.21
External #2	-0.03	-0.05	-0.06	-0.03	0.19	0.32	-0.02	0.07	-0.05
Met Expect #2	0.05	0.10	0.07	0.19	0.15	0.11	0.83	-0.01	0.07
Met Expect #3	-0.05	0.11	0.12	0.19	0.17	0.20	0.67	-0.06	0.22
Met Expect #1	0.07	0.22	0.20	0.17	0.06	0.10	0.46	-0.04	0.13
Agreeableness #3	0.07	0.02	0.02	-0.04	0.03	0.01	-0.04	0.63	0.06
Agreeableness #8	0.14	-0.02	0.00	0.00	0.06	0.02	0.01	0.63	0.06
Agreeableness #2	0.14	0.00	0.18	0.05	0.12	-0.06	0.00	0.56	-0.12
Agreeableness #9	0.00	0.12	-0.11	0.01	-0.02	0.08	-0.06	0.44	0.15
Agreeableness #12	0.28	-0.05	0.03	0.02	0.13	0.07	0.02	0.38	-0.08
Agreeableness #11	0.04	-0.05	0.04	0.02	0.07	0.08	-0.03	0.36	0.17
Satisfaction #2	0.01	0.21	0.15	0.16	0.23	0.02	0.15	0.12	0.68
Satisfaction #3	0.05	0.13	0.28	0.19	0.24	0.06	0.18	0.01	0.67
Eigenvalue	3.38	2.71	2.54	2.50	2.48	2.13	2.10	1.93	1.90
% of Variance	8.67	6.95	6.50	6.40	6.36	5.45	5.37	4.94	4.88
Cumulative %	8.67	15.62	22.12	28.52	34.88	40.33	45.70	50.64	55.52

Extraction Method: Generalized Least Squares. Rotation Method: Equamax with Kaiser Normalization.

The removal of other items could have been driven by respondent misinterpretation. After considering the organization at which the study took place, the answers for items which were removed from the scales based on the results of the original factor analysis intuitively made sense. For example, if respondents based their answers solely on their interactions with the prisoners they guard at work, items such as “I tend to be cynical and skeptical of other’s intentions,” could result in a biased answer. The cross-loadings found in the original factor analysis suggest these answers could have been biased.

Finally, the necessary removal of the social desirability scale was not surprising after considering some of the comments made by the respondents during the data collection phase. Some respondents perceived an overlap of questions between scales. For example, item #7 on the social desirability scale, “I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable,” is almost identical to item #1 on the agreeableness scale. Not surprisingly, these two items load on the same factor (see Table 4.2).

Reliability Analysis

Scale internal reliability was measured using Cronbach’s coefficient alpha. All scales met or exceeded the minimum level of .70 suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) except the agreeableness scale. The Cronbach alphas for each scale can be found in Table 4.4.

Results

The means, standard deviations and correlations of the study variables can be found in Table 4.4. With the exception of age, gender, conscientiousness, family responsibility and kinship responsibility, all of the study variables were significantly and negatively correlated with intention to quit. These results are consistent with prior research. Further, also consistent with previous studies (Bishop, Scott & Burroughs, 2000; Geurts, Schaufeli & Rutte, 1999), organizational commitment had the strongest correlation ($r = -.56, p \leq .001$) with intention to quit.

Direct Relationship Results

Hypotheses 1 and 2 concerned direct relationships between met expectations and the two types of perceived support (POS and PSS). Linear regression allows researchers to test these types of relationships by examining a beta coefficient to determine whether a significant relationship in the hypothesized direction exists. Therefore, to test these hypotheses, two hierarchical regressions were performed. Both hierarchical regressions entered the control variables (age, gender, tenure, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) in step one and met expectations in step two of the analysis. For the first hierarchical regression, POS was entered as the dependent variable (Hypothesis 1). The second hierarchical regression entered PSS as the dependent variable (Hypothesis 2). Results of the first model indicated that met expectations had a statistically significant relationship with POS ($\beta = .489, p \leq .001$). Results of the second model indicated that met expectations had a statistically significant relationship with PSS ($\beta = .372, p \leq .001$). Therefore, Hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported.

Table 4.4 Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliability Estimates

Variables ^a	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Intention to Quit	3.02	1.14	(.85)													
2. Age	36.59	10.42	0.02	-												
3. Gender	-	-	0.01	-0.06	-											
4. Tenure	80.07	73.28	0.10*	0.54**	-0.18**	-										
5. Agreeableness	3.87	0.67	-0.17**	0.00	0.16**	-0.03	(.66)									
6. Conscientiousness	4.30	0.53	-0.05	-0.05	0.10*	0.03	0.35**	(.84)								
7. Family Respon.	1.70	1.03	0.07	0.06	0.00	0.06	0.06	0.03	-							
8. Kinship Respon.	1.30	0.72	0.03	0.07	-0.03	0.05	-0.06	0.05	0.29**	-						
9. External Opportunity	2.82	0.92	-0.43**	-0.08	0.10*	-0.06	0.10	0.02	-0.05	-0.06	(.73)					
10. Met Expectations	2.92	0.99	-0.44**	-0.21**	0.00	-0.20**	-0.01	0.09	-0.15**	-0.05	0.37**	(.76)				
11. POS	2.75	1.04	-0.46**	-0.20**	0.03	-0.25**	0.06	0.08	-0.08	-0.02	0.37**	0.52**	(.89)			
12. PSS	3.34	1.15	-0.38**	-0.10*	-0.05	-0.12*	0.05	0.06	-0.04	0.01	0.24**	0.38**	0.51**	(.92)		
13. Commitment	3.16	0.85	-0.56**	-0.09	0.00	-0.16**	0.11*	0.08	-0.09*	-0.12*	0.45**	0.55**	0.59**	0.45**	(.87)	
14. Satisfaction	3.61	0.98	-0.54**	-0.03	-0.03	-0.11*	0.15**	0.12*	-0.06	-0.07	0.26**	0.43**	0.47**	0.40**	0.62**	(.78)

^aReliability estimates are in parentheses; n = 392 for all variables

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Hypothesis 3 posited that as it grew more difficult to find external opportunities, intention to quit would decrease. As with the previous two hypotheses, regression analysis was employed to test the hypothesis and the beta coefficient was checked to ensure a negative, significant relationship existed. However, because the study involved the inclusion of control variables and the necessary addition of independent variables in specific steps, hierarchical regression was employed. The control variables (age, gender, tenure, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) were entered in the first step of the hierarchical regression. Family responsibility, kinship responsibility, met expectations, and external opportunity were entered in the second step of the hierarchical regression. The second step of the hierarchical regression was used to test the hypothesized relationship between external opportunity and intention to quit. Results of the hierarchical regression (see Table 4.5, Step 2) indicated that external opportunity had a statistically significant, negative relationship with intention to quit ($\beta = -.300, p \leq .001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was supported.

Moderation Results

Hypotheses 4 and 5 involve a moderation effect of external opportunity on organizational commitment and on job satisfaction, respectively. Because moderation effects are measured based on incremental changes to a model, it was necessary to include all of the independent variables in the model before the moderators. For methodological reasons discussed in the “Mediation Results” section below, step three of the hierarchical regression added POS and PSS. Step four added organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Step five and step six added the interaction terms of

external opportunity and organizational commitment and external opportunity and job satisfaction, respectively. Finally, the interaction terms of external opportunity and family responsibility and external opportunity and kinship responsibility were added to the model in step seven and step eight, respectively.

As stated in the previous paragraph, moderation effects are measured based on incremental changes to a model. If the inclusion of the interaction term results in a statistically significant change in R^2 , then moderation can be said to have occurred. For purposes of this study, the tested moderators were entered in Steps 5 and 6 of the hierarchical regression. Results of the hierarchical regression (see Table 4.5, Steps 5 and 6) indicate that the change in R^2 was not significant with the addition of the interaction term of external opportunity and organizational commitment ($\Delta R^2 = .005$; $p = .060$) or the interaction term of external opportunity and job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 < .001$; $p = .683$). Because the change in R^2 was not significant, Hypotheses 4 and 5 are not supported.

Table 4.5 Hierarchical Regression Outcomes

Outcome: Intention to Quit	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5	Step 6	Step 7	Step 8	Hypoth. Tested	Expected Relationship
	Control Variables	Main Effects	Support Variables	Attitudinal Mediate Effect	Moderator Effect	Moderator Effect	Moderator Effect	Moderator Effect		
Predictors:										
Step 1 (Control Variables):										
Age	-0.049	-0.113*	-0.118*	-0.072	-0.077	-0.078	-0.078	-0.077	-	N/A
Gender	0.060	0.074	0.057	0.036	0.046	0.045	0.046	0.047	-	N/A
Tenure	0.130*	0.083	0.045	0.024	0.021	0.021	0.020	0.021	-	N/A
Agreeableness	-0.177**	-0.168**	-0.154**	-0.114**	-0.117**	-0.118**	-0.119**	-0.120**	-	N/A
Conscientiousness	0.005	0.036	0.044	0.058	0.067	0.068	0.068	0.068	-	N/A
Step 2 (Main Effect Variables):										
Family Responsibility (FR)		0.020	0.020	0.025	0.021	0.019	0.120	0.132	H10	Negative
Kinship Responsibility (KR)		-0.018	-0.009	-0.042	-0.038	-0.039	-0.038	-0.082	H12	Negative
Met Expectation (ME)		-0.333**	-0.208**	-0.101*	-0.100*	-0.102*	-0.104*	-0.105*	-	N/A
External Opportunity (EO)		-0.300**	-0.243**	-0.196**	0.048	0.026	0.088	0.068	H3	Negative
Step 3 (Support Mediating Variables):										
POS			-0.197**	-0.076	-0.078	-0.077	-0.078	-0.078	H6	Negative
PSS			-0.136**	-0.065	-0.058	-0.058	-0.053	-0.053	H8	Negative
Step 4 (Attitudinal Mediating Variables):										
Organizational Commitment (OC)				-0.183**	0.011	-0.045	0.055	0.049	H6, H8	Negative
Job Satisfaction (JS)				-0.261**	-0.253**	-0.306**	-0.316*	-0.313*	H7, H9	Negative
Step 5 (Interaction Term):										
EO x OC					-0.389	-0.463	-0.496	-0.486	H4	Strengthen
Step 6 (Interaction Term):										
EO x JS						0.104	0.131	0.124	H5	Strengthen
Step 7 (Interaction Term):										
EO x FR							-0.119	-0.133	H11	Strengthen
Step 8 (Interaction Term):										
EO x KR								0.051	H13	Strengthen
Overall F	3.444**	18.857**	19.739**	23.768**	22.473**	20.940**	19.663**	18.472**		
Adj. R-Sq.	0.030	0.291	0.345	0.431	0.435	0.433	0.433	0.432		
R-Sq.	0.043	0.308	0.364	0.450	0.455	0.455	0.456	0.456		
R-Sq. change	0.043**	0.265**	0.056**	0.086**	0.005	0.000	0.001	0.000		

Mediation Results

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four-step procedure for testing mediation was used to test Hypotheses 6, 7, 8, and 9. From Chapter III, the four steps were concerned with the following questions:

Question 1: Is the independent variable significantly related to the dependent variable?

Question 2: Is the independent variable significantly related to the proposed mediator?

Question 3: Is the proposed mediator significantly related to the dependent variable?

Question 4: Does the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable significantly change when the proposed mediator is added?

An answer of "yes" to each of the previous questions is required in order for mediation to occur. The first three questions can be answered by examining the beta coefficients from several regression analyses. Significant beta coefficients will result in a "yes" answer. The fourth question requires a comparison of the independent variable's effect on the dependent variable before and after the mediator is added to the regression model. If the effect significantly decreases, which will be checked using a Sobel (1982) test, then mediation will have occurred. Note that while the β coefficients reported for relationships between variables are standardized regression coefficients, the β coefficients used in the Sobel test are unstandardized regression coefficients.

For Hypotheses 6, 7, 8 and 9, a single table will be used to walk the reader through the four questions previously discussed and indicate whether the requirements for mediation have been met. Because testing for mediation requires several

regression models to be run and compared, a single table for each hypothesis will eliminate the need to flip from one regression output to another. Further, these tables do not show or refer to previously presented regression models.

Table 4.6 provides the results for Hypothesis 6. Recall that Hypothesis 6 states that organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between POS and intention to quit. Following the procedure outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986), a hierarchical regression was run with three steps. The control variables (age, gender, tenure, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) were entered in Step 1, POS was entered in Step 2, and organizational commitment was entered in Step 3. This hierarchical regression was used to answer questions 1, 3, and 4 (see previous page) for mediation testing. The hierarchical regression results were first examined to ensure the relationship between POS and intention to quit was statistically significant. Results indicated a significant negative relationship ($\beta = -.460, p \leq .01$), providing a “Yes” answer to Question #1 (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6 Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 6

	Independent Variable	Mediating Variable	Dependent Variable	β Coefficient	p-value	Meets Requirement?
Question #1	POS	-	Intention to Quit	-.460	$\leq .01$	Yes
Question #2	POS	-	Commitment	.582	$\leq .01$	Yes
Question #3	Commitment	-	Intention to Quit	-.435	$\leq .01$	Yes
Question #4						
Before	POS	-	Intention to Quit	-.460	$\leq .01$	
After	POS	Commitment	Intention to Quit	-.207	$\leq .01$	
Sobel test performed: Z-statistic was -7.25 ($p \leq .01$)						Yes

Examination of a second regression with POS regressed on organizational commitment was performed to answer Question #2 to test for mediation. Results indicated that POS had a statistically significant relationship with organizational commitment ($\beta = .582, p \leq .01$), providing a “Yes” answer to Question #2 (see Table 4.6). To answer Question #3 of the mediation requirements, the results of the hierarchical regression described in the previous paragraph were examined. Results indicated organizational commitment had a statistically significant negative relationship with intention to quit ($\beta = -.435, p \leq .01$), providing a “Yes” answer to Question #3 (see Table 4.6).

To answer Question #4 of the requirements for mediation, the effect of POS on intention to quit was examined before and after the inclusion of organizational commitment in the hierarchical model. Before organizational commitment was included in the model, a statistically significant negative relationship between POS and intention to quit ($\beta = -.460, p \leq .01$) was noted. After organizational commitment was included in the hierarchical regression model, the relationship between POS and intention to quit ($\beta = -.207, p \leq .01$) was still statistically significant. However, the result of a Sobel test (Z -statistic = $-7.25; p < .01$) indicated a significantly weaker relationship between POS and intention to quit when organizational commitment was added to the model indicating partial mediation. As shown in Table 4.6, each of the four questions received a “Yes” answer, therefore, the requirements for mediation were met. Thus, Hypothesis 6 was supported.

Table 4.7 is used to explain the mediation process for Hypothesis 7.

Remember that Hypothesis 7 stated that job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between POS and intention to quit. Following the same procedure used to test Hypothesis 6, a hierarchical regression with three steps was run. Step 1 and Step 2 were exactly the same as the hierarchical regression used to test Hypothesis 6. However, job satisfaction was entered in Step 3 instead of organizational commitment. The hierarchical regression results were first examined to ensure the relationship between POS and intention to quit was statistically significant. Results indicated a significant negative relationship ($\beta = -.460, p \leq .01$), providing a “Yes” answer to Question #1 (see Table 4.7).

Table 4.7 Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 7

	Independent Variable	Mediating Variable	Dependent Variable	β Coefficient	p-value	Meets Requirement?
Question #1	POS	-	Intention to Quit	-.460	$\leq .01$	Yes
Question #2	POS	-	Job Satisfaction	.460	$\leq .01$	Yes
Question #3	Job Satisfaction	-	Intention to Quit	-.401	$\leq .01$	Yes
Question #4						
Before	POS	-	Intention to Quit	-.460	$\leq .01$	
After	POS	Job Satisfaction	Intention to Quit	-.276	$\leq .01$	
Sobel test performed: Z-statistic was -6.50 ($p \leq .01$)						Yes

To answer Question #2 to test for mediation, a second regression with POS regressed on job satisfaction was performed. Results indicated that POS had a statistically significant relationship with job satisfaction ($\beta = .460, p \leq .01$), providing a “Yes” answer to Question #2 (see Table 4.7). The results of the hierarchical regression described in the previous paragraph were examined in order to answer Question #3 of the

mediation requirements. Results indicated job satisfaction had a statistically significant negative relationship with intention to quit ($\beta = -.401, p \leq .01$), providing a “Yes” answer to Question #3 (see Table 4.7).

The final requirement for mediation (Question #4) was tested by examining the effect of POS on intention to quit before and after the inclusion of job satisfaction in the hierarchical model. Before job satisfaction was included in the model, a statistically significant negative relationship between POS and intention to quit ($\beta = -.460, p \leq .01$) was noted. After job satisfaction was included in the hierarchical regression model, the relationship between POS and intention to quit ($\beta = -.276, p \leq .01$) was still statistically significant. However, the result of a Sobel test (Z -statistic = $-6.50; p < .01$) indicated a significantly weaker relationship between POS and intention to quit when job satisfaction is added to the model indicating partial mediation. Looking back at Table 4.7, a “Yes” answer was found for each of the four questions to test for mediation, therefore, the requirements for mediation were met. Thus, Hypothesis 7 was supported.

The mediation walkthrough for Hypothesis 8 can be found on Table 4.8. As a reminder, Hypothesis 8 stated that organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between PSS and intention to quit. Following the same procedure used to test Hypotheses 6 and 7, a hierarchical regression was run with three steps. Step 1 involved the entry of the control variables (age, gender, tenure, agreeableness, and conscientiousness). Step 2 added PSS to the model. Finally, Step 3 entered organizational commitment. The hierarchical regression results were first examined to ensure the relationship between PSS and intention to quit was statistically significant.

Results indicated a significant negative relationship ($\beta = -.364, p \leq .01$), providing a “Yes” answer to Question #1 (see Table 4.8).

A second regression with PSS serving as the independent variable and organizational commitment serving as the dependent variable was performed to answer Question #2 of the test for mediation. Results indicated that PSS had a statistically significant relationship with organizational commitment ($\beta = .429, p \leq .01$), providing a “Yes” answer to Question #2 (see Table 4.8). Question #3 of the mediation requirements was answered by examining the results of the hierarchical regression described in the previous paragraph. Results indicated organizational commitment had a statistically significant negative relationship with intention to quit ($\beta = -.483, p \leq .01$), providing a “Yes” answer to Question #3 (see Table 4.8).

Table 4.8 Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 8

	Independent Variable	Mediating Variable	Dependent Variable	β Coefficient	p-value	Meets Requirement?
Question #1	PSS	-	Intention to Quit	-.364	$\leq .01$	Yes
Question #2	PSS	-	Commitment	.429	$\leq .01$	Yes
Question #3	Commitment	-	Intention to Quit	-.483	$\leq .01$	Yes
Question #4						
Before	PSS	-	Intention to Quit	-.364	$\leq .01$	
After	PSS	Commitment	Intention to Quit	-.157	$\leq .05$	
Sobel test performed: Z-statistic was -6.97 ($p \leq .01$)						Yes

Finally, Question #4 of the requirements for mediation was answered by examining the effect of PSS on intention to quit before and after the inclusion of organizational commitment in the hierarchical model. Before organizational commitment was included in the model, a statistically significant negative relationship between PSS

and intention to quit ($\beta = -.364, p \leq .01$) was noted. After organizational commitment was included in the hierarchical regression model, the relationship between PSS and intention to quit ($\beta = -.157, p \leq .01$) was still statistically significant. However, the result of a Sobel test (Z -statistic = $-6.97; p < .01$) indicated a significantly weaker relationship between PSS and intention to quit when organizational commitment is added to the model indicating partial mediation. Because each of the four questions received a “Yes” answer (See Table 4.8), the requirements for mediation were met. Thus, Hypothesis 8 was supported.

Table 4.9 illustrates the results for Hypothesis 9. Hypothesis 9 stated that job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between PSS and intention to quit. Following the same procedure used to test Hypotheses 6, 7, and 8, a hierarchical regression was run with three steps. As with the hierarchical regression used to test Hypothesis 8, the control variables (age, gender, tenure, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) were entered in Step 1, PSS was entered in Step 2, and job satisfaction was entered in Step 3. The hierarchical regression results were first examined to ensure the relationship between PSS and intention to quit was statistically significant. Results indicated a significant negative relationship ($\beta = -.364, p \leq .01$), providing a “Yes” answer to Question #1 (see Table 4.9).

A second regression was performed with PSS regressed on job satisfaction to answer Question #2 to test for mediation. Results indicated that PSS had a statistically significant relationship with job satisfaction ($\beta = .381, p \leq .01$), providing a “Yes” answer to Question #2 (see Table 4.9). To answer Question #3 of the mediation

requirements, the beta coefficient of job satisfaction in the hierarchical regression described in the previous paragraph was examined. Results indicated job satisfaction had a statistically significant negative relationship with intention to quit ($\beta = -.449, p \leq .01$), providing a “Yes” answer to Question #3 (see Table 4.9).

Table 4.9 Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 9

	Independent Variable	Mediating Variable	Dependent Variable	β Coefficient	p-value	Meets Requirement?
Question #1	PSS	-	Intention to Quit	-.364	$\leq .01$	Yes
Question #2	PSS	-	Job Satisfaction	.381	$\leq .01$	Yes
Question #3	Job Satisfaction	-	Intention to Quit	-.449	$\leq .01$	Yes
Question #4						
Before	PSS	-	Intention to Quit	-.364	$\leq .01$	
After	PSS	Job Satisfaction	Intention to Quit	-.193	$\leq .01$	
Sobel test performed: Z-statistic was -6.23 ($p \leq .01$)						Yes

The effect of PSS on intention to quit was examined before and after the inclusion of job satisfaction in the hierarchical model to answer Question #4 of the requirements for mediation (See Table 4.9). Before job satisfaction was included in the model, a statistically significant negative relationship between PSS and intention to quit ($\beta = -.364, p \leq .01$) was noted. After job satisfaction was included in the hierarchical regression model, the relationship between PSS and intention to quit ($\beta = -.193, p \leq .01$) was still statistically significant. However, the result of a Sobel test (Z-statistic = -6.23; $p < .01$) indicated a significantly weaker relationship between PSS and intention to quit when job satisfaction is added to the model indicating partial mediation. Since each of the four questions received a “Yes” answer, the requirements for mediation were met. Thus, Hypothesis 9 was supported.

Family and Kinship Responsibility Results

Table 4.10 will be referred to concerning the hypotheses pertaining to family responsibility and kinship responsibility (Hypotheses 10, 11, 12, and 13). Because a number of respondents reported that they did not have any family and/or kinship responsibility, it was necessary to run an additional hierarchical regression using only those respondents with family and/or kinship responsibility to accurately measure the impact family and kinship responsibility had on intention to quit. Of the 392 respondents, 276 had some level of family and/or kinship responsibility. A series of ANOVAs were performed to ensure that there were no significant differences between respondents with family and kinship responsibility and those respondents who did not. No significant differences were found between any of the study variables. The 276 respondents with some level of family and/or kinship responsibility were then used in a hierarchical regression exactly like the one used in Table 4.5.

Hypothesis 10 involved testing whether a direct relationship existed between family responsibility and intention to quit. By examining a beta coefficient, it can be determined if a significant relationship exists. The hierarchical regression results (see Table 4.10, Step 2) indicated that family responsibility was not significantly related with intention to quit ($\beta = .000$; $p > .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 10 was not supported.

Table 4.10 Hierarchical Regression H10-H13

Outcome: Intention to Quit	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5	Step 6	Step 7	Step 8	Hypoth.	Expected
	Control	Main	Support	Attitudinal Mediate	Moderator	Moderator	Moderator	Moderator		
Predictors:	Variables	Effects	Variables	Effect	Effect	Effect	Effect	Effect	Tested	Relationship
Step 1 (Control Variables):										
Age	-0.010	-0.163**	-0.149*	-0.010	-0.099	-0.099	-0.098	-0.099	-	N/A
Gender	0.060	0.070	0.074	0.039	0.056	0.057	0.057	0.057	-	N/A
Tenure	0.119*	0.082	0.045	0.015	0.006	0.006	0.002	0.002	-	N/A
Agreeableness	-0.118**	-0.098	-0.095	-0.057	-0.065	-0.066	-0.068	-0.068	-	N/A
Conscientiousness	0.021	0.040	0.048	0.077	0.087	0.087	0.080	0.081	-	N/A
Step 2 (Main Effect Variables):										
Family Responsibility (FR)		0.000	0.007	0.006	-0.007	-0.009	0.207	0.201	H10	Negative
Kinship Responsibility (KR)		0.002	0.028	-0.019	-0.005	-0.006	-0.008	0.025	H12	Negative
Met Expectation (ME)		-0.356**	-0.241**	-0.150*	-0.146*	-0.151*	-0.163**	-0.163**	-	N/A
External Opportunity (EO)		-0.282**	-0.220**	-0.191**	0.187	0.135	0.351	0.383	-	N/A
Step 3 (Support Mediating Variables):										
POS			-0.194**	-0.106	-0.108	-0.108	-0.107	-0.106	-	N/A
PSS			-0.139**	-0.038	-0.036	-0.031	-0.019	-0.021	-	N/A
Step 4 (Attitudinal Mediating Variables):										
Organizational Commitment (OC)				-0.103	0.204	0.297	0.305	0.309	-	N/A
Job Satisfaction (JS)				-0.306**	-0.293**	-0.430*	-0.440*	-0.437*	-	N/A
Step 5 (Interaction Term):										
EO x OC					-0.603**	-0.802*	-0.847*	-0.846*	-	N/A
Step 6 (Interaction Term):										
EO x JS						0.265	0.291	0.287	-	N/A
Step 7 (Interaction Term):										
EO x FR							-0.289	-0.281	H11	Strengthen
Step 8 (Interaction Term):										
EO x KR								0.046	H13	Strengthen
Overall F	1.513	12.723**	13.665**	16.182**	15.728**	14.703**	13.978**	13.110**		
Adj. R-Sq.	0.009	0.277	0.336	0.418	0.429	0.428	0.430	0.428		
R-Sq.	0.027	0.301	0.363	0.445	0.458	0.459	0.463	0.463		
R-Sq. change	0.027	0.274**	0.062**	0.083**	0.012*	0.001	0.004	0.000		

Standardized β coefficients used; $n = 276$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Hypothesis 11 posited that external opportunity moderated the relationship between family responsibility and intention to quit. Therefore, Hypothesis 11 was tested by examining the change in R^2 between step 6 and step 7 of the hierarchical regression (See Table 4.10). Results indicated a significant change did not occur ($\Delta R^2 = .004$; $p > .05$) from step 6 to step 7. Because moderation effects are measured based on incremental changes to a model and a significant change was not noted, Hypothesis 11 was not supported.

Hypothesis 12 tested whether a direct relationship existed between kinship responsibility and intention to quit. By examining a beta coefficient from the hierarchical regression results (See Table 4.10, Step 2), it can be determined if a significant relationship exists. The hierarchical regression results indicated that kinship responsibility was not significantly related with intention to quit ($\beta = .002$; $p > .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 12 was not supported.

Hypothesis 13 suggested that external opportunity moderated the relationship between kinship responsibility and intention to quit. Therefore, the change in R^2 between step 7 and step 8 of the hierarchical regression (See Table 4.10) was examined. A significant change was not noted ($\Delta R^2 = .000$; $p > .05$) from step 7 to step 8. Thus, Hypothesis 13 was not supported.

Hypothesis Summary and Post-Hoc Test

The analysis of the data provided support for seven of the thirteen hypotheses. While most of the hypotheses involving work-related variables (met expectations, external opportunity, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction) were supported,

those hypotheses involving non work-related variables (family responsibility and kinship responsibility) did not receive support. The finding for each hypothesis is summarized in Table 4.11.

After testing each of the hypotheses and analyzing the results, a series of ANOVAs were performed post-hoc to determine if a difference existed between the surveys fully completed and those left partially blank. The results indicated a significant difference did exist between the fully completed surveys and those with blank answers. Significant differences occurred between the dependent variable (i.e. intention to quit) and all of the independent variables, with the exception of job satisfaction, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (see Table 4.12). A discussion of this finding can be found in Chapter V.

Table 4.11 Hypothesis Summary

Hypothesis		Results
1	Met expectations will be positively related to POS	Supported
2	Met expectations will be positively related to PSS	Supported
3	Lack of external opportunity will be negatively related to intention to quit	Supported
4	Lack of external opportunity increases the negative relationship between organizational commitment and intention to quit	Not Supported
5	Lack of external opportunity increases the negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit	Not Supported
6	Organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between POS and intention to quit	Supported
7	Job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between POS and intention to quit	Supported
8	Organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between PSS and intention to quit	Supported
9	Job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between PSS and intention to quit	Supported
10	Family responsibility will be negatively related to intention to quit	Not Supported
11	Lack of external opportunity increases the negative relationship between family responsibility and intention to quit	Not Supported
12	Kinship responsibility will be negatively related to intention to quit	Not Supported
13	Lack of external opportunity increases the negative relationship between kinship responsibility and intention to quit	Not Supported

Table 4.12 ANOVA Between Completed and Incomplete Surveys

Variables	Number Completed	Number Incomplete*	Completed Mean	Incomplete Mean	Difference p-value
POS	392	121	2.75	2.33	.001
PSS	392	118	3.34	3.02	.010
External Opportunity	392	117	2.95	2.70	.005
Met Expectations	392	119	2.92	2.57	.002
Job Satisfaction	392	117	2.96	2.96	.906
Organizational Commitment	392	117	3.16	2.89	.004
Agreeableness	392	117	2.13	2.15	.799
Conscientiousness	392	118	4.30	4.37	.234
Intention to Quit	392	118	3.02	3.30	.020

* Number incomplete reflects the number of surveys which provided answers to all of the questions pertaining to a particular variable, but left questions for other variables unanswered.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter provides a detailed discussion of the results reported in Chapter IV, implications of the results for researchers and managers, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research. First, this chapter provides a summary of the research goals of the study. Second, the results of the study are interpreted and potential managerial and academic implications are explored. Third, there is a discussion of the limitations of this study. Finally, recommendations for future research are suggested.

Research Goals and Contributions

One of the primary reasons for this dissertation was to provide a broader perspective of intention to quit. To accomplish this, it was necessary to incorporate both work-related and non work-related variables into the framework of social exchange theory. Thus, several of the most commonly studied work-related variables were included in this dissertation, as well as several often ignored non work-related variables. Thus, this dissertation considered a broader array of variables than previous intention to quit studies, providing a broader perspective.

Another goal of this study was to provide a better understanding of the relationships of POS and PSS with intention to quit. Previous studies have found that POS and PSS both impact intention to quit. However, studies examining POS and PSS

consider them individually rather than simultaneously. As such, it was important for this study to include POS and PSS jointly.

In order to perform a more comprehensive exploration of the relationship of POS and PSS with intention to quit, both job satisfaction and organizational commitment were included in this dissertation. Previous studies have found significant relationships between POS and organizational commitment (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000; Fuller, Barnett, Hester, & Relyea, 2003) and intention to quit (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000; Chan, 2001). Significant relationships between PSS and organizational commitment (Chang, 1999; Cross & Billingsley, 1994; DeConinck & Bachmann, 1994), job satisfaction (Cross & Billingsley, 1994; Gersten et al., 2001; Singh & Billingsley, 1996), and intention to quit (Thompson, Beauvais & Lyness, 1999) have also been found. To determine what role POS/PSS serves in the development of intention to quit, whether as antecedents to intention to quit or a more distal role through organizational commitment and job satisfaction, the inclusion of all five variables – POS, PSS, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to quit - in a single study was required. This study is the first to consider simultaneously all five variables, providing a clearer picture of the actual role POS and PSS play in the development of intention to quit.

A final contribution of this dissertation comes from the investigation of non work-related variables. Previous research has focused on work-related factors leading to intention to quit. However, the effect of non work-related factors on intention to quit has largely been ignored (Maertz & Campion, 1998; Miller & Labovitz, 1973). As such, one

of the goals of this study was to extend current research by assessing the impact of several non work-related factors on intention to quit. Social exchange theory provided the theoretical justification to examine two non work-related factors (family responsibility and kinship responsibility) as independent variables, and two personality dimensions (conscientiousness and agreeableness) as control variables within this study. By looking beyond the confines of the exchange relationships within the work environment and considering the impact of external exchange relationships on intention to quit, this dissertation has expanded the horizons of intention to quit knowledge and highlighted the impact non work-related variables can have on intention to quit.

Discussion of Results

Three types of effects on intention to quit were tested in this study - direct, moderated, and mediated. Direct effects included external opportunity for employment, family responsibility, and kinship responsibility. Moderation effects of external opportunity were tested between each of the following variables and intention to quit: organizational commitment, job satisfaction, family responsibility, and kinship responsibility. Mediation effects of organizational commitment and job satisfaction were tested between each of the following and intention to quit: POS and PSS. The following sections discuss each of the three effects in turn.

Direct Effects

Three of the five hypotheses testing direct effects were significant at the .01 level and in the hypothesized directions. The results indicated that those people whose

expectations were met on the job had higher levels of POS (Hypothesis 1) and PSS (Hypothesis 2). This could be because early in the employment relationship, the expectations an employee has about the organization are either met or not met. In other words, the expected value of the exchange relationship prior to being hired is realized or it is not. In either case, a point of reference is created. This point of reference could then be used to make decisions about the expectation of future exchanges with the organization or anyone within the organization. Thus, meeting the initial expectations of new employees could be helping pave the way for higher levels of POS and PSS.

The results also indicated that as it became more difficult to find external opportunities, intention to quit decreased (Hypothesis 3). This finding is not surprising because when external opportunities are scarce, current employees will have little exposure to potential exchange relationships with other organizations. Lack of exposure to new exchange relationships could actually strengthen the current job-related exchange relationship. For example, individuals with little or no opportunity to establish new exchange relationships might not be able to accurately gauge the value of current job-related exchanges compared with those that might be provided at another organization. Thus, lack of alternative employment may increase the chances of balance being maintained with their current exchange relationships and decrease the chances of a “shock” occurring.

The remaining two hypotheses testing the relationships between family responsibility and kinship responsibility with intention to quit were not supported. These results contradict past studies (Blegen, Mueller, & Price, 1988; Johns et al., 2001), as

well as the theoretical arguments presented in this dissertation which maintain that long-term familial exchange relationships should impact intention to quit. One possible reason for these inconsistent findings could pertain to the ability of the indexes used to measure family responsibility and kinship responsibility and will be discussed later in the limitations section of this chapter.

Mediation Effects

The findings supported all four hypotheses involving mediation. Organizational commitment and job satisfaction, when considered individually, partially mediated the relationships between POS, and intention to quit and PSS and intention to quit. However, when considered simultaneously, organizational commitment (Hypotheses 6 and 7) and job satisfaction (Hypotheses 8 and 9) fully mediated the relationships between POS and intention to quit and PSS and intention to quit. This finding helps provide a better understanding of the role POS and PSS play in the development of intention to quit because the exchange relationships developed between employees and their organization/supervisor through support mechanisms clearly impact the amount of job satisfaction and organizational commitment an employee has. Recall the discussion concerning inertia, “shocks,” and embeddedness from Chapter 2. The exchange relationships between employees and their organization/supervisor can serve as links, or threads, that embed an individual in an organization. If the exchange relationships provide value, then the individual’s satisfaction with and commitment to the job increase. Increasing the satisfaction with and commitment to the job could be building a reservoir, so to speak, of inertia. Once enough inertia has been built up, it would take a large

“shock” or an event of considerable consequence to the existing exchange relationship to upset the balance being maintained. Thus, the exchange relationship between an employee and their organization/supervisor would not directly influence intention to quit. Instead, it would be mediated by the reservoir of inertia made up of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Moderation Effects

Difficulty of finding alternative employment (external opportunity) was hypothesized to moderate the relationship between intention to quit and each of the following constructs: organizational commitment, job satisfaction, family responsibility, and kinship responsibility. The findings did not provide support for any of the moderation hypotheses.

It was not surprising that difficulty in finding alternative employment (external opportunity) did not moderate the relationship between family responsibility and intention to quit, and kinship responsibility and intention to quit. Typically, a direct relationship is necessary between a dependent variable and an independent variable before another variable can serve as a moderator of the relationship. No direct relationships were detected between family responsibility and intention to quit or kinship responsibility and intention to quit. Therefore, a moderation effect was not expected to be found. Surprisingly, the findings also did not support a moderating effect of external opportunity on organizational commitment (Hypothesis 4) and job satisfaction (Hypothesis 5). One possible reason the findings did not support a moderating effect of external opportunity on organizational commitment and job satisfaction could be due to

the concept of a reservoir of inertia discussed in the previous section. Employees with certain levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction (driving the inertia) may be aware that employment opportunities exist outside their current job, but do not intend to act on those opportunities because the level of exchanges at their current job are balanced. However, the idea of a reservoir of inertia may only apply if a certain threshold of organizational commitment and job satisfaction is met. Thus, external opportunity may only moderate the relationships if organizational commitment and/or job satisfaction is low.

It is also possible that employees do consider establishing exchange relationships with other employers, but are restrained by one of the following. First, the new exchange relationship simply does not provide the value that the current exchange relationship provides. Thus, the new exchange relationship does not provide a large enough “shock” to break the current inertia. Second, the new exchange relationship has an element of uncertainty that does not exist in the current exchange relationship. The individual has no guarantee that the new exchange relationship will provide the same or higher level of job satisfaction that the current exchange relationship provides.

Implications for Academics and Managers

This study has both academic and managerial implications. Implications involving POS, PSS, family responsibility, kinship responsibility, and the personality dimension, agreeableness, apply to both academics and managers. While the personality dimension of agreeableness was used as control variable, the significant relationship

found between agreeableness and intention to quit merits additional discussion because this particular finding has not been noted in previous research.

Academic Implications

This dissertation provides several implications for researchers. First, the theoretical framework of social exchange theory developed in this dissertation provides a strong basis for the inclusion of a wide variety of variables in future studies. Second, the specific roles POS and PSS play in the development of intention to quit may need to be reconsidered. Third, the impact of family and/or kinship responsibility on intention to quit is still unclear because the results of this dissertation are contrary to those of previous studies indicating further research is necessary. Finally, the personality dimension, agreeableness, may be a viable measure to include in intention to quit models.

The development of social exchange theory as a broad theoretical framework for studying intention to quit has the potential for far-reaching academic implications. Because many factors could have an impact on intention to quit, it is imperative that researchers have a strong theoretical framework available which allows the inclusion of a broad array of variables. Social exchange theory provides such a framework. Utilizing a social exchange perspective could lead to a more comprehensive examination of potential factors and provide a clearer understanding of why those factors affect intention to quit. Thus, the potential for social exchange theory to help explain the development of intention to quit is almost unlimited.

The second implication concerns the role of POS and PSS in the development of intention to quit. According to the study results, POS and PSS should not be considered

direct antecedents of intention to quit. Instead, POS and PSS should be considered distal determinants of intention to quit acting as critical antecedents of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. As stated previously in this chapter, the exchange relationships between employees and their organization/supervisor provide value to employees which results in increased organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Increased organizational commitment and job satisfaction create a reservoir of inertia which appears to decrease intention to quit. It is important to note that partial mediation occurred between POS/PSS and intention to quit when job satisfaction and organizational commitment were considered individually. Based on the theoretical foundation of social exchange theory and this finding, it seems necessary to include both job satisfaction and organizational commitment in any intention to quit/turnover study involving POS/PSS as the former variables appear to serve as mediators. However, empirical evidence is lacking because all four of the previous variables – POS, PSS, job satisfaction, organizational commitment – have not been considered simultaneously in previous studies.

The findings of this dissertation did not provide support for a direct relationship between family responsibility or kinship responsibility and intention to quit. However, as stated earlier, the effect of family responsibility and kinship responsibility may be unclear due to problems with the index used. Because individuals maintain long-term exchange relationships with immediate and extended family members, and these exchange relationships have the potential to guide all manner of decisions an individual makes, it is imperative that reliable, valid and comprehensive measures of family responsibility and kinship responsibility are developed.

Another implication for researchers involves the personality dimension agreeableness. With a few exceptions, personality as an antecedent to intention to quit has been largely ignored. This dissertation's results indicate that the personality dimension of agreeableness leads to decreased intention to quit. This finding is interesting because no previous studies have found this relationship. While the findings of this study may be due, in part, to the unique nature of the study participants - prison correction officers - from a social exchange perspective, having an agreeable personality should have the same effect on intention to quit for any job. As stated in Chapter 2, agreeable people may stay at a current organization simply to avoid the conflict which inevitably occurs when leaving a job. However, the ramifications may go much further than just an exchange relationship with the boss. An agreeable person may extend the sphere of affected exchange relationships to other people within the organization. By leaving, the individual may feel they will be inconveniencing co-workers who depend on them. The sphere of exchange relationships does not necessarily stop within the workplace. It is possible that family and kinship exchange relationships could also be affected by quitting a job. Rather than facing the potential conflict or inconveniencing others as a result of their quitting, the individual may opt to stay at an organization. Thus, an agreeable person may experience lower intention to quit. As such, researchers may want to include agreeableness in studies involving intention to quit.

A final notable finding of this study was the existence of significant differences between the surveys fully completed and those left partially blank. The emergence of these differences illustrates the potential for non-response bias. As such, the results

obtained using data without some kind of effort to consider non-response bias should be considered with caution. Additional research should be conducted to determine if significant differences consistently appear between fully completed questionnaires and those partially completed.

Managerial Implications

This dissertation's results did not provide support for family responsibility or kinship responsibility having a significant relationship with intention to quit. However, managers should not summarily dismiss family responsibility and kinship responsibility as potential predictors of intention to quit. This statement is supported by the results of other studies. Previous studies (Blegen, Mueller, & Price, 1988; Johns et al., 2001) found family responsibility and kinship responsibility to be significantly related to intention to quit. These findings indicate that the exchange relationships maintained by family members and kin could influence and individual's intention to quit.

A second managerial implication of this dissertation suggests that POS and PSS serve as important antecedents to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, which in turn are two antecedents to intention to quit. By providing support at the supervisor and/or organizational level, organizations may be able to increase levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment which, in turn, can help curtail intention to quit. Things such as ensuring employees have the resources to complete the tasks required of them, providing feedback and advice about performance, and allowing employees to provide input about work-related issues, provide the opportunity to strengthen the exchange relationships between the employee and an organization/

supervisor and provide value to both parties. However, organizational leaders need to be aware that providing supervisor and/or organizational support may not provide immediate decreases in intention to quit. Again, refer back to the previous discussion about POS and PSS serving as sources of building a reservoir of inertia. According to Eisenberger et al. (2002), it is important to maintain certain levels of support over time in order to develop strong relationships between the organization and its employees. Therefore, the constant and consistent availability of support over time could be critical in increasing the levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment within employees leading to long-term decreased intention to quit.

Another managerial implication involves the personality dimension of agreeableness. Although agreeableness was included in this study as a control variable, the analysis indicated a significant negative relationship between agreeableness and intention to quit. If agreeableness negatively affects intention to quit, managers may want to consider taking some measure of an applicant's level of agreeableness. Based on social exchange theory, agreeableness may be especially useful if the job in question requires compliance with certain standards or guidelines and high levels of interaction with other people because the individual will try to find an amicable solution to every exchange situation. However, agreeableness's negative effect may be unique to this particular sample. Thus, managers should proceed with caution if they plan to use agreeableness as a selection criterion.

Limitations

This dissertation, as true of all empirical efforts, has certain limitations. First, the study design and sample characteristics could contribute to specific limitations. The study design called for participants at a single organization to complete a questionnaire at one point in time. Because the study design is cross-sectional in nature, causality cannot be assumed. A longitudinal study with data collected at several different times would be necessary to predict intention to quit with any confidence.

Another potential limitation exists because the dissertation involved a single organization. Hence, the findings could be limited to the current sample population, rather than generalizable. Of primary concern is the unique nature of the sample population, prison correctional officers. The unique nature of the correctional officer profession may not be generalizable to many other professions because very few professions involve daily exposure to a hostile environment and required contact with known criminals. Another aspect of the sample which could limit generalizability is its demographic makeup. A majority of the sample was black (79%) and/or female (64%). While this demographic composition might reflect the immediate area from which the sample was taken, it is not indicative of demographic compositions in other areas. Further, most prison systems have a male dominated workforce. A series of ANOVAs was performed to check whether the survey responses of females were significantly different than males. Results indicated that significant differences for three variables – external opportunity, conscientiousness, and agreeableness. Females perceived a higher difficulty in obtaining other employment than males ($p = .044$). Females also had higher

levels of conscientiousness ($p = .05$) and agreeableness than males ($p = .002$). These differences may reduce the generalizability of the results because the significant relationships found between external opportunity and agreeableness with intention to quit may not occur when the sample is male-dominated.

Another potential limitation stems from utilizing a questionnaire with self-reported answers. Anytime self-reported answers are used, the ability of the researcher to verify whether the information provided is accurate is severely limited and often is solely dependent on the honesty of the individual respondents (Kline, Sulsky, & Rever-Moriyama, 2000; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Additionally, because all the data gathered for this study came from the same source, the potential for the introduction and effect of common method variance must be considered (Bagozzi, Yi, & Phillips, 1991; Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Kline, Sulsky, & Rever-Moriyama, 2000; Lindell & Brandt, 2000; Millsap, 1990; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

Common method variance is variance which is introduced as a result of the method a researcher uses to measure a particular construct (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) which can cause spurious relationships, making it difficult for researchers to ascertain the true relationships between variables (Kline, Sulsky, & Rever-Moriyama, 2000). Common method variance can stem from a number of sources such as consistency motif, social desirability, leniency biases, acquiescence, positive and negative affectivity, and transient mood state (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The original study design sought to control for one particular bias, social desirability. However, as

described in Chapter 4, the social desirability scale was removed from the final analysis due to cross-loading problems. No other tests for common method variance were attempted because steps to minimize the possible effects of common method variance were taken prior to data collection. For example, scale items were reviewed by the researcher and several other academic experts to ensure the items were not too complex or ambiguous before the administration of the questionnaire. This review resulted in the rewording of some scale items before distributing the surveys. However, even after this review, several respondents indicated confusion about the terminology used in the questionnaire for certain items. Those items were subsequently removed.

Another suggestion by Podsakoff et al. (2003) to reduce common method variance was to guarantee respondent anonymity and psychologically separate the criterion variables from the predictor variables on the questionnaire. This was accomplished by telling respondents several times that their answers would be anonymous, and the questionnaire explicitly guaranteed anonymity and by strategically asking the criterion variable items after the predictor variable items were completed.

A final suggestion by Podsakoff and Organ (1986) was “scale trimming.” Scale trimming involves the removal of scale items which “constitute obvious overlap in what are purported to be separate (or distinct) measures (p. 538)”. This was accomplished through a factor analysis. Items which cross-loaded were removed through the process outlined in Chapter 4.

In addition to common method variance, limitations existed concerning two the measurements used in the study, job satisfaction and agreeableness. Job satisfaction was

measured using three items. However, as explained in Chapter 4, one item was removed because of cross-loading problems. This reduced the number of items measuring job satisfaction to two. While studies often use measures with one or two items (Bacharach, Bamberger & Vashdi, 2005; Brief et al., 2005; Fey & Birkinshaw, 2005; Hoegl & Wagner, 2005; Li & Hambrick, 2005; Nagy, 2002; Shaw, Gupta, Delery, 2005; Shaw, Gupta, Mitra & Ledford, 2005; Takeuchi, Tesluk, Yun & Lepak, 2005; Tekleab, Takeuchi & Taylor, 2005), the use of such measures is not normally suggested. The limitation inherent in using these types of measures lies in the potential for measurement deficiency, that is, critical aspects of the construct in question may not be fully captured (Hair et al., 1998). Because of the global nature of the job satisfaction scale used, caution should be taken when considering the results pertaining to this construct.

Another limitation stems from the necessary development of the family responsibility and kinship responsibility indexes. The original index used in the Blegen, Mueller, and Price (1988) study only considers marital status, number of children, and number of relatives in the immediate area when measuring family and kinship responsibility. Correspondence with Blegen (2004) indicated that the index could probably use additional development. While no specific developments were discussed with Blegen (2004), weighting some items in the index more heavily might be important. For example, family responsibility for younger children may be higher than for older children. The exchange relationships between a parent and a younger child could require a much higher level of dedication and maintenance than those between a parent and an

older child because during the early years of a child's life, the child is completely dependent on the exchanges the parent provides. Thus, it may be appropriate to assign a higher family responsibility weighting for those individuals with younger children.

Including additional questions, such as the role of the respondent (breadwinner, caregiver), whether or not a spouse/partner/extended family approves/supports the respondent's employment choice, and whether or not the individual supports/associates with extended family members, may also help accurately measure levels of family and kinship responsibility. It is possible that immediate and extended family members exert pressure on individuals to quit a particular job, especially high risk jobs. For example, the risk of bodily harm/death for a corrections officer is fairly high. Family members may "gang up" on the individual and suggest that they find a safer job. This could be extremely effective if family members threaten to leave the individual (separation or divorce), essentially terminating the exchange relationship altogether. Because family and kinship relationships tend to be long-term and are difficult to "dissolve," individuals may find it easier to change jobs rather than damage or lose a relationship with immediate and extended family members.

Another potential measurement limitation involves the agreeableness scale. The Cronbach's alpha for the agreeableness scale ($\alpha = .66$) was slightly below suggested internal reliability levels of .70. Because the internal reliability is below suggested levels, the results pertaining to agreeableness should be considered with caution.

A final item limits the veracity of this dissertation's findings. Due to the inclusion of multiple interaction terms (four) in the model tested, the power of the

statistical analyses was well below suggested levels. A number of scholars discuss the problem of power when interactions are included in studies (Aguinis, 1995; Aiken & West, 1991; Cohen, 1977; Whisman & McClelland, 2005) and the suggested solution to this problem is to increase the sample size. However, the same scholars note “more than 1000 participants may be necessary for detecting interactions with small effect sizes” (Whisman & McClelland, 2005, p. 116) and “sample size can be increased, but practical considerations may not allow researchers to utilize this strategy” (Aguinis, 2005, p. 1151). Additionally, increasing sample sizes to levels necessary to detect interactions with small effect sizes may result in “over powering,” which will cause almost any effect to be found statistically significant (Hair et al., 1998). Because the sample for this dissertation was “under powered”, it is possible that some relationships existed, but the power was too low for proper detection.

Future Research

As implied in the implications for managers and academics section, several areas need further empirical investigation. First, researchers need to determine the specific roles POS and PSS play in the development of intention to quit. Do POS/PSS serve as antecedents to intention to quit or do they serve as more distal determinants of intention to quit through organizational commitment and job satisfaction? This question needs to be addressed. Researchers should determine if the POS/PSS relationship with intention to quit is fully mediated when organizational commitment and job satisfaction are simultaneously considered. Until such studies are conducted, researchers cannot accurately outline what part POS/PSS plays in the development of intention to quit.

Second, the relationship between family responsibility/kinship responsibility and intention to quit is still unclear. Scales and/or indexes need to be further developed to properly capture all of the distinct components of family responsibility and kinship responsibility. Once these scales/indexes are developed, researchers can concentrate on what role family responsibility and kinship responsibility serve in intention to quit models. Additionally, researchers may want to take into consideration the expectations of immediate or extended family members and how those expectations might impact behavior. For example, asking things like “My spouse does not like me working for my current employer” or “My spouse does not like the area where we live” could provide important information about the pressure family and kin place on individuals. In the case of a spouse not liking the area where they are living, the spouse may be constantly exerting pressure on the individual to quit a job so as to be able to move to another area.

Third, researchers need to take another look at personality dimensions and consider how those dimensions could affect intention to quit. The lack of intention to quit studies involving personality dimensions highlights how researchers have all but ignored the potential contribution personality dimensions may provide to intention to quit models. It is possible that specific personality dimensions make an individual employee within certain occupations less likely to quit. In order to improve current intention to quit models, researchers need to perform empirical studies which include personality dimensions.

Additionally, researchers need to explore the effect of other variables on intentions to quit through the lens of social exchange theory. The potential of the social

exchange theoretical framework is not and should not be limited to the variables examined in this dissertation. Other variables, when viewed through social exchange theory, may provide the means to further understand how the exchange relationships people take part in daily on and off the job impact intention to quit. Work-related variables, such as job stress, organizational justice, psychological contracts, and realistic job previews, and non work-related variables like community relations and family-work conflict are just a few variables that could be considered.

A final item for future research is the consideration of missing data. The analysis performed between fully completed surveys and partially completed surveys for this study indicated significant differences existed. The differences found may be sample specific, but researchers may want to examine whether or not the same type of phenomenon occurs in other studies. If similar differences are found, then the partially completed surveys may serve as an indicator of non-response bias.

Conclusion

In summary, this study contributed to intention to quit literature in several ways. First, this study provided a strong theoretical framework upon which future researchers can build. This framework allows the inclusion of work-related and non work-related factors to be considered in intention to quit studies. As such, a large number of factors can be theoretically incorporated into intention to quit models utilizing this framework. Of primary importance is the ability to theoretically include non work-related factors, factors which have generally been ignored in intention to quit research. Several non work factors were considered in this study - family responsibility, kinship responsibility,

and the personality dimensions, conscientiousness and agreeableness. This study also clearly identified the roles POS and PSS play in the development of intention to quit, antecedents to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, which could cause researchers to ensure both job satisfaction and organizational commitment appear in future studies involving POS or PSS.

While this study did provide some additional insight into the development of intention to quit, it left many questions unanswered. As such, a great deal of additional research is still required to better understand those factors which lead to intention to quit. The framework developed in this dissertation and the findings of this study will provide a theoretical means to guide that research.

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