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Job embeddedness and turnover intentions: The moderating role of affectivity traits, career stages and perceptions of organisational politics

Emmanuel Twumasi Ampofo
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**Job Embeddedness and Turnover Intentions:
The Moderating Role of Affectivity Traits, Career
Stages and Perceptions of Organisational Politics**

By

Emmanuel Twumasi Yaw Ampofo

A thesis submitted for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Edith Cowan University

School of Business and Law

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ABSTRACT

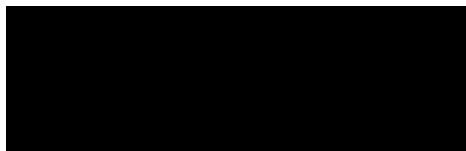
The study tested the applicability of job embeddedness (JE) theory in Ghana. It also examined moderating effects of affectivity traits, career stage and perceptions of organisational politics (POP) on the JE–turnover intentions relationship. Analyses revealed that composite JE and its dimensions and sub-dimensions (except community fit) were negatively related to turnover intentions. Affectivity traits, POP and career stages moderated the JE–turnover intentions relationship. The study expands the predictive validity of JE to Ghana and adds to the few moderators that have been identified in previous studies. Strategies for increasing managerial employees’ embeddedness and reducing their turnover are proposed.

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis does not, to the best of my knowledge and belief:

- (i) incorporate without acknowledgement any material previously submitted for degree or diploma in any institution of higher education.
- (ii) contain any material previously published or written by another person except where the reference is made in the text; or
- (iii) contain any defamatory material.

Signature:



Date: 6 February 2019.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my lovely wife Caroline Ampofo for her great support, love and understanding. I also dedicate this work to my parents (Albert and Agartha Twumasi), supervisor (Alan Coetzer), and friend (Noble Senyo), whose support and encouragement were awesome in all ways.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADB: Agricultural Development Bank
AGFI: Adjusted goodness of fit index
AMOS: Analysis of a moment structures
ASV: Average shared variance
AVE: Average variance extracted
CE: Community embeddedness
CFA: Confirmatory factor analysis
CFI: Comparative fit index
CLF: Common latent factor
CMB: Common method bias
COR: Conservation of resources
CR: Composite reliability
CS: Career stages
DF: Degree of freedom
Ed: Education
EM: Expected maximisation
GFI: Goodness of fit index
HR: Human resources
HRM: Human resources management
IFI: Incremental fit index
JE: Job embeddedness
JS: Job satisfaction
LLCI: Lower level confidence interval
MCAR: Missing completely at random
MS: Marital status
MSV: Maximum shared variance
NA: Negative affectivity
OC: Organisational commitment
OCB: Organisational citizenship behaviour

OE: Organisation embeddedness
OLS: Ordinary least squares
PA: Positive affectivity
PJA: Perceived job alternatives
POP: Perceptions of organisational politics
RMR: Root mean square residual
RMSEA: Root mean square error of approximation
SEM: Structural equation modelling
TI: Turnover intentions
TLI: Tucker-Lewis index
ULCI: Upper level confidence interval
US: United States
VIF: Variance inflation factor
WABs: Weighted application banks
YEI: Years of work in industry
YEO: Years of work in organisation

GLOSSARY

Affectivity	A relatively stable, ongoing dispositional trait in individuals (Levin & Stokes, 1989).
Career stage	The period or phase in a career in which a person finds him or herself (Super, 1957).
Community embeddedness	Non-work factors that keep employees bound to their jobs (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001).
Conservation of resource theory	Individuals (and groups) are motivated to acquire, protect, foster and retain resources they personally value (Hobfoll, 2001).
Early career stage	The stage at which an employee perceives that he or she is in a new career (Miao, Lund, & Evans, 2009).
Fit	A person's perceived match or comfort with an organisation and with his or her residential community (Mitchell et al., 2001).
Job embeddedness	A broad constellation of work and non-work factors that influence employees to become enmeshed in their jobs (Mitchell et al., 2001).
Late career stage	The stage at which an employee perceives that he or she is nearing retirement in his or her career (Low, Bordia, & Bordia, 2016).
Links	Formal or informal ties between a person and other people in the organisation and residential community (Mitchell et al., 2001).
Mid-career stage	The stage at which an employee perceives that he or she is at the peak of his or her career (Gibson, 2003).
Negative affectivity	A stable dispositional tendency that makes people more susceptible to experiencing a variety of aversive emotions and distress across time and situations (Watson & Clark, 1984).
Organisation embeddedness	Work-related factors that keep employees bound to their jobs (Mitchell et al., 2001).
Perceptions of organisational politics	A person's subjective appraisal of the extent to which the organisation is characterised by the self-centredness of individuals and groups at the expense of others in the organisation (Ferris, Harrell-Cook & Dulebohn, 2000).
Positive affect	A stable dispositional tendency that makes individuals experience a variety of positive activated emotions (Watson & Clark, 1984).
Sacrifices	Material and nonmaterial benefits that employees are likely to forfeit upon giving up their organisation and residential community (Mitchell et al., 2001).
Turnover intentions	An employee's conscious and volitional willingness to leave the organisation (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000).

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I explain that in Ghana, universal banks have become increasingly dependent on their key employees, especially managers, to help secure a competitive advantage in the banking sector (Dwomoh & Korankye, 2012). The growth in the number of universal banks has led to an increase in voluntary turnover of talented staff and poaching of key employees has become a common phenomenon in the banking sector (Biekpe, 2011). Because turnover of key employees has detrimental effects on organisations, such as loss of tacit knowledge (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995), senior executives in banks have a need to understand the factors that influence the turnover of key employees and then design strategies to keep them in their jobs. Job embeddedness (JE) has been identified in the literature as providing a highly beneficial theoretical lens for developing an understanding of the wide array of factors that influence voluntary turnover and for developing employee retention practices. However, the construct is distinct to a cultural context, which makes it necessary to examine the applicability of the construct and its measure in different cultural contexts. Also, while the nexus between JE and turnover has been extensively studied, it is the focus on three key moderators that makes this study novel. This study therefore becomes important because the JE construct and its measure are yet to be examined in Ghana. The present study focuses on key employees' turnover intentions in Ghana's banking sector with a view to addressing two main gaps in the research: (1) increasing the generalisability of job embeddedness by testing the applicability of the construct in Ghana, and (2) expanding the relationship between job embeddedness and turnover intentions (i.e., an immediate predictor of voluntary turnover) with potential moderators of the relationship between the two focal variables. These potential

moderators are career stages, affectivity traits and perceptions of organisational politics (POP).

In the sub-sections that follow, I begin by providing succinct background information on the detrimental effects of employee turnover and explain in brief how JE reduces the likelihood of turnover. Thereafter, I explain the rationale for examining JE theory in Ghana and then outline the gaps in research that this study attempts to address. Next, I explain the purpose of the present study, and then outline the potential theoretical and practical significance of the study. The chapter's final section provides an overview of the eight chapters of the present study.

1.1 Background to the Study

The research on voluntary turnover—an employee's willing termination of his or her employment with an organisation (Mobley, 1982)— has witnessed significant development in the last 100 years (Hom, Lee, Shaw, & Hausknecht, 2017), and it is well-established that turnover has detrimental effects on organisational effectiveness. For example, it reduces organisational performance (Shaw, Gupta, & Delery, 2005), decreases commitment levels of remaining employees (Mobley, 1982; Staw, 1980), and introduces separation, replacement and training costs (e.g., Cascio, 1995). Turnover becomes more detrimental to organisations when key employees leave (Boyne, James, John, & Petrovsky, 2011), because they leave with their unique skills and knowledge (Stovel & Bontis, 2002; Tanova & Holtom, 2008), which can be difficult to replace (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010). Further, the voluntary turnover of key employees leaves organisations with significant direct costs, such as recruitment, selection, training and general administration, and indirect costs such as loss of

tacit knowledge and skills (Cascio, 2006; Dess & Shaw, 2001; Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberly, 2008). The costs associated with employee turnover and the difficulty to replace key employees leaves employers and researchers with the challenge of finding ways to reduce turnover. Most previous studies based their explication of employee turnover decisions on job alternatives and affectively charged reasons such as job dissatisfaction and low levels of organisational commitment (Blau, 1993; March & Simon, 1958; Mobley, 1977; Steers & Mowday, 1981). These variables, however, explained less than 10% of the variance in turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1995).

JE theory has gained prominence in turnover literature because of its ability to account for incremental variance in voluntary turnover—more so than key work attitudinal variables and job alternatives can account for (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). JE is “a broad constellation of influences on employee retention” (Mitchell et al., 2001, p. 1104). JE theory holds that people become ‘stuck in their jobs’ as a result of their links, fit and sacrifices in their organisation and residential community (Mitchell et al., 2001). ‘Links’ are the formal and/or informal connections that a person has with other people and groups in the organisation and residential community (Allen, Peltokorpi, & Rubenstein, 2016; Kiazad, Holtom, Hom, & Newman, 2015). ‘Fit’ refers to the extent to which people perceive that their job, organisation and residential community are compatible with aspects of their lives (Charlier, Guay, & Zimmerman, 2016). ‘Sacrifice’ is the perceived psychological or material costs that people think they will incur when they leave their organisation and residential community (Eberly, Bluhm, Guarana, Avolio, & Hannah, 2017; Mitchell et al., 2001). Unlike other related constructs (e.g., job investment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment), JE theory is unique because it is a broader construct that

assesses factors that are both on and off the job, such as perks at work, promotion opportunities, being accorded respect in the community and developing affection for the community (Bambacas & Kulik, 2013; Mitchell et al., 2001).

Studies show that organisations benefit from employees who are highly embedded in their jobs, because the more employees are embedded in their jobs, the greater likelihood they will remain in their jobs to enact discretionary behaviours, such as innovative work behaviours (e.g., Coetzer, Inma, Poisat, Redmond, & Standing, 2018) and organisation citizenship behaviours (e.g., Lev & Koslowsky, 2012a), and record increased task performance and lower levels of absenteeism (e.g., Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004). Thus, JE is a useful variable because the experiences that people draw from both work and non-work domains may embed them in their jobs and offer them greater propensity to achieve organisational outcomes (Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014) and competitive advantage (Peteraf, 1993).

Like other employers, Ghanaian employers will be unhappy seeing key employees quit their jobs, which may hinder their organisations from achieving competitive advantage (Acquaah, 2011; Amediku, 2008). However, contemporary organisations are confronted with a major challenge to retain key employees (Allen et al., 2010) because the attributes of key employees (e.g., specialised skills, tacit knowledge, highly employable) make them rare and valuable in the labour market; thus, it is difficult for organisations to stop them leaving (Barney, 1991; Camuffo & Comacchio, 2005; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Given the costs associated with turnover, and the difficulty in retaining key employees in contemporary organisations, the present study aims to illuminate factors that influence key employee intentions to leave organisations by focusing on JE theory.

1.2 Rationale for Job Embeddedness in Ghana

The relevance of the applicability of JE in Ghana is premised primarily on high turnover in the banking sector, and the national culture. Ghana is one of the fastest growing emerging economies in sub-Saharan Africa; thus talent retention is key for the competitive advantage of firms, especially in the financial sector, which is the core of economic growth and development (Amoako-Gyampah & Boye, 2001; Anabila & Awunyo-Vitor, 2013). According to the Ghana Statistical Service report in 2014, the banking and non-banking financial services contributed 23.2% of the 49.5% of gross domestic product contributed by the entire service sector in 2013. Despite the huge financial investment in training and development to enhance employee retention (e.g., Hinson, Boateng, & Madichie, 2010), the banking sector has experienced an upswing in employee turnover (Dwomoh & Korankye, 2012; Puni, Mohammed, & Asamoah, 2018). The available statistics indicate high turnover rates in the banking sector in Ghana. For example, Fidelity Bank (Ghana) reported that of 1290 employees in 2015, 230 employees (representing 18%) left the bank in 2016, and 33 employees (representing 3%) exited in 2017. In addition, the number of employees in Guaranty Trust Bank (Ghana) reduced from 450 in 2016 to 437 in 2017, which represents 3%. Annual reports of the Agricultural Development Bank (ADB; 2015, 2017) show that of 1,235 employees in 2015, 38 employees (representing 3%) left in 2016, and 18 employees (representing 1.5%) left in 2017. Further, Standard Chartered Bank (Ghana; 2016) indicated in their 2016 annual report that of 1,153 employees in 2015, 179 employees left the organisation, representing 16%. Moreover, the Youth Employment Network (2009) also found high labour turnover rates was a major issue in the banking sector, because out of the

26 surveyed sectors in Ghana, the banking sector recorded the highest turnover rate, with 27%.

The turnover rate in the banking sector has been attributed to the introduction of the Universal Banking Business License, which has brought much competition (Biekpe, 2011; Dwomoh & Korankye, 2012). The Ghana Banking Survey (2014) described the banking sector as fairly saturated, comprising 27 universal banks, 137 rural and community banks and 58 non-banking financial institutions, including finance houses and leasing and mortgage firms. The increased competition among banks in Ghana has led to an increase in poaching and employee turnover (Biekpe, 2011; Mathisen & Buchs, 2005). As Ghanaian-owned banks grow in number and capital, and foreign banks continue to enter, expand, and employ professionals, it is important to capitalise on highly skilled employees to gain competitive advantage in a fast growing economy. Thus, key employees' turnover limits prospects for growth and success in Ghana's banking sector. Further, people leave the banking sector because of heavy workloads and unreasonable work targets, which cause stress (Dartey-Baah & Ampofo, 2015; Dartey-Baah & Mekpor, 2017; Mansour & Tremblay, 2016). In their recent study in Ghana's banking sector, Bamfo, Dogbe and Mingle (2018) found that employees, especially frontline employees, leave their jobs because of abusive customer behaviour. Additionally, key characteristics of bank jobs in Ghana are long working hours (usually from 8 am to 7 pm) and non-standard work hours (e.g., Saturday banking; Dartey-Baah & Ampofo, 2015; Dwomoh & Korankye, 2012). Because people from collectivistic cultures highly revere family bonds and prioritise relationships over work (Hofstede, 2001; Parkes, Bochner, & Schneider, 2001), employees may leave the banking sector to improve their work-family life balance (Byron, 2005; Dartey-Baah, 2015). Employee turnover in Ghana's banking

sector is associated with a lot of cost implications (Amediku, 2008; Ghana Banking Survey, 2014). The increased competition in the banking sector can make banks easily lose their competitive advantage if they experience a high rate of employee turnover (Dwomoh & Korankye, 2012). Thus, the high rate of turnover and the cost associated with turnover in Ghana's banking sector make it pertinent to explore how JE theory may contribute to the retention of key employees in Ghana's banking sector.

A second reason for the present study is to determine to what extent JE findings derived mainly from the United States (US) and Europe are applicable to Ghana. The seminal study of JE by Mitchell et al. (2001) was conducted in the US, where the culture dimensions are different from non-US countries, including Ghana. Mallol, Holtom and Lee (2007) argued in their study conducted in the US that there are likely to be cultural differences in levels of job embeddedness. Hom et al.'s (2009) study adopted a Chinese version of the JE scale with the aim of enabling participants to understand the construct better in relation to their culture. Although Crossley, Bennett, Jex and Burnfield (2007) developed a global JE measure, only participants from a mid-sized organisation in the mid-western US were sampled. Additionally, Ramesh and Gelfand (2010) revealed that JE transcends Western boundaries when they sampled participants from the US and India. However, the researchers failed to acknowledge that there are different degrees of culture strength among countries, according to Hofstede (2001). For instance, Ghana scores 20 on the individualism and collectivism scale, while India scores 48 (Hofstede, 2001), which reveals that Ghanaians are more socially connected than Indians. Forkuoh, Appienti and Osei (2012) indicated that the Ghanaian community is characterised by social values such as respect, love and togetherness, and that these values have a significant influence on the business community. Therefore, the unique

cultural dimensions in Ghana indicate that it is important to explore JE theory in the country, especially in the banking sector where statistics have shown a high level of employee turnover (Puni et al., 2018).

1.3 Research Gaps

Although research has validated the JE construct across contexts (e.g., Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010; Tanova & Holtom, 2008), there have been limitations with generalising the findings (e.g., Robinson, Kralj, Solnet, Goh, & Callan, 2014) because the enduring power of the JE theory may be distinct to a context (Hom et al., 2009). Ramesh and Gelfand (2010) argued that although turnover theories (e.g., job embeddedness) may be universally applicable, their application needs to be tailored to a specific cultural context to make them more generalisable and practically significant. Lee et al. (2014) also called on future studies to replicate the main ideas in the JE–turnover relationship. The theory is yet to be tested in Ghana, a country in which about 86% of the population comprises diverse ethno-cultural groups (Godefroidt, Langer, & Meuleman, 2017; Langer, 2009; World Population Review, 2018). Therefore, because of the heterogeneous culture coupled with increasing employee poaching and turnover in Ghana’s banking sector, it is important for the present study to explore the applicability of JE (i.e., a theory developed among relatively homogeneous US populations) in Ghana.

Further, calls for developing JE theory (Mitchell et al., 2001) have caused significant extensions of the theory, to the extent that it has been used to explain non-turnover outcomes such as performance and life satisfaction (e.g., Ampofo, Coetzer, & Poisat, 2017, 2018; Lee et al., 2004). However, Lee et al. (2014) argued that an extension should focus on the main

ideas in JE–turnover relationships, rather than in JE–non-turnover outcomes relationships. According to Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee and Mitchell (2012), JE should be extended by examining “multiple moderators simultaneously and additional moderators” (p. 1085) in the relationship between JE and turnover. There are further potential extensions of the theory that still need to be explored. It is yet to be established in empirical literature that affectivity traits, career stages and POP directly relate to JE. However, previous studies have indicated the need for future research to consider the influence of these constructs in the embedding process. For example, Feldman, Ng and Vogel (2012) indicated that “another important topic for future research is the role of career stage ... in the embedding process”, because “both the ability to become embedded and the desirability of becoming embedded are likely to change across time” (p. 237). Thus, an individual’s current career stage determines how embedded he or she may be in his or her job, because people have different needs, desires and ambitions at different stages of their career (Lee, Back, & Chan, 2015; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978). Although “career stages and embeddedness are closely related and both play major roles in understanding job turnover” (Ng & Feldman, 2007, p. 346), the interactive power of the constructs is yet to be empirically examined to explain turnover, which this study seeks to do.

Regarding affectivity traits, Crossley et al. (2007) indicated that “because global perceptions of job embeddedness are largely subjective and may be influenced by people’s predispositions and cognitive frames, future research may examine individual differences that relate to impressions of being embedded” (p. 1041). Individuals have different personality traits, such that some individuals tend to have a positive impression of themselves and the world, while others tend to have negative impression of themselves and the world

(Watson & Clark, 1984). Individuals' impressions of themselves and the world are likely to shape their impressions of how embedded they may be in their jobs (Crossley et al., 2007), because impressions predict attitudes and behaviours (Chiu & Francesco, 2003; Cropanzano, James, & Konovsky, 1993).

Finally, the conservation of resources (COR) theory has been utilised to conceptualise JE as a state of abundant resources (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Harris, Wheeler, & Kacmar, 2011). A fundamental tenet of COR is the 'primacy of resource loss', which holds that the loss or threat of a resource elicits a stronger affective and behavioural reaction than the gain of an equivalent resource (Hobfoll, 1989). Individuals therefore strive to obtain, protect and retain valuable resources (Hobfoll, 1989). However, politics is an inevitable activity in organisations, where employees may illegitimately obtain resources at the expense of other employees (Abbas, Raja, Darr, & Bouckenoghe, 2014; Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Rosen, Chang, Johnson, & Levy, 2009). Thus, there are winners and losers of resources in a political organisation, but the question is, will losers of resources or people who perceive that they might lose their resources in the organisation leave their jobs, given the hedonistic nature of individuals? From the perspective of Wheeler, Harris and Sablynski (2012), future research should investigate "specific questions about resources, resource losses, resource investments, and the like" (p. E262). Questions about how individuals perceive politics in their organisations can help understanding of the effects of resource losses or threats on individuals' embeddedness levels in the organisation. With no empirical evidence directly linking these constructs to the JE construct, the current study explores how these constructs interact with JE to explain the variance in employees' turnover intentions. Thus, while the

JE–turnover relationship is well-established in the literature, it is the focus on the potential moderator variables that makes the current study novel.

1.4 Research Purpose

This study, based on theory and empirical evidence, explored the relationship between JE and turnover intention in Ghana’s banking sector, and the potential moderating role of affectivity traits, career stages and POP in the relationship. Specifically, the purpose of this study was to replicate the JE–turnover nexus in Ghana, which is one of the fastest growing emerging economies in sub-Saharan Africa. Also, given the mixed results in the literature on the capacity of community embeddedness to predict turnover intentions, the present study sought to examine the role of residential community factors, and their influence on employees’ embeddedness and turnover intentions in an emerging economy. In addition, this study aimed to explore the unique strength of JE sub-dimensions of links, fit, and sacrifice in predicting turnover intentions in an emerging economy. Furthermore, this study aimed to extend the nexus between JE and turnover intentions by focusing on the possible moderating role of three key variables in the relationship. Specifically, the present study explored how differences in affectivity traits might influence employees’ embeddedness in the job and turnover intentions. Another purpose of the study was to determine how the different career stages that people find themselves in, and progress along over time, might affect their JE and turnover intentions. Finally, this study explored how resource losses or threats through perceived negative politicking in the organisation might influence the relationship between JE and turnover intentions of employees.

1.5 Research Objectives

The specific research objectives of the present study are as follow:

1. To examine the relationship between JE and turnover intentions.
2. To examine the relationships between JE dimensions (organisation and community embeddedness) and turnover intentions.
3. To examine the relationships between JE sub dimensions (links, fit, and sacrifice) and turnover intentions.
4. To examine the moderating effects of affectivity traits on the JE–turnover intentions relationship.
5. To examine the moderating effects of career stages on the JE–turnover intentions relationship.
6. To examine the moderating effects of POP on the relationship between organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions.

1.6 Research Questions

The current study poses the following questions:

1. Will JE be negatively related to turnover intentions?
2. Will organisation and community embeddedness be negatively related to turnover intentions?
3. Will links, fit, and sacrifices in the organisation and residential community be negatively related to turnover intentions?
4. Will affectivity traits moderate the negative relationship between JE and turnover intentions?

5. If yes, will the relationship be stronger among high NAs relative to low NAs, and weaker among high PAs relative to low PAs?
6. Will the negative relationship between JE and turnover intentions be moderated by career stages?
7. If yes, will the nexus be strengthened among employees in their mid and late career stages relative to those in their early career stage?
8. Will the negative relationship between organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions be moderated by POP?
9. If yes, will the relationship be weaker when POP is high relative to when POP is low?

1.7 Significance of the Study

The present study will make significant contributions to the theory of JE and management practices aimed at retaining strategically valuable employees (i.e., managers in banks). Theoretically, the present study contributes to existing literature in two ways. First, this study aims to replicate the JE–turnover relationship in Ghana. This will therefore contribute to an understanding of the cultural applicability of the JE construct in the Ghanaian context. Findings of the study will add to generalisation of the JE theory, particularly in non-western cultures (Mallol et al., 2007; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Second, the findings will expand JE theory by examining potential moderators in the JE–turnover intentions relationship. The expansion of JE in this regard will be important because there have been several calls in the literature to explore moderating effects on the JE–turnover relationship (Coetzer, Inma, & Poisat, 2017; Holtom et al., 2008; Peltokorpi, Allen, & Froese, 2017). As noted by Jiang et al. (2012) and Felps et al. (2009), future research needs to consider potential moderators in the JE–turnover relationship. Although this study will consider moderators other than those

suggested by prior researchers (Coetzer et al., 2017; Felps et al., 2009; Jiang et al., 2012), the findings will be significant to JE theoretical development. This is because the potential moderating variables in this study have been identified as those that are likely to influence the JE–turnover intentions nexus. For example, Crossley et al. (2007) argued that affectivity traits might relate to job embeddedness, “Because global perceptions of job embeddedness are largely subjective and may be influenced by people’s predispositions and cognitive frames” (p. 1041). Feldman et al. (2012) indicated the importance of career stages in the embedding process with the assertion that “both the ability to become embedded and the desirability of becoming embedded are likely to change across time” (p. 237). Wheeler et al. (2012), drawing on COR, suggested that there is a need to ask, “specific questions about resources, resource losses, resource investments, and the like” (p. E262) in the context of JE theory.

The present study also contributes to practice in the following ways. First, the findings will provide insights into the significance of job embeddedness in reducing turnover intentions (i.e., an immediate predictor of actual turnover), which causes organisations to incur significant costs in hiring and training new staff. Hence, job embeddedness can result in cost savings for organisations (Jiang et al., 2012). Second, the findings will draw attention to the unique competence, skills and knowledge that key employees possess, which add value (e.g., tacit expertise, organisational memory and firm-specific knowledge) to the organisation, especially in the highly competitive global business world (Jiang et al., 2012). Organisations’ inability to retain key employees could result in incurring unnecessary costs associated with the hiring and training of new staff (Holtom et al., 2008). Third, the findings will have a social impact because an organisation’s inability to retain key employees may make

stakeholders (e.g., customers and shareholders) believe that the organisation will become uncompetitive, and these stakeholders may leave the organisation. Finally, the findings of the study could have practical implications relating to recruitment and selection, career management, and control of dysfunctional political activities.

1.8 Overview of Chapters

Figure 1 provides a schematic overview of the thesis chapters.

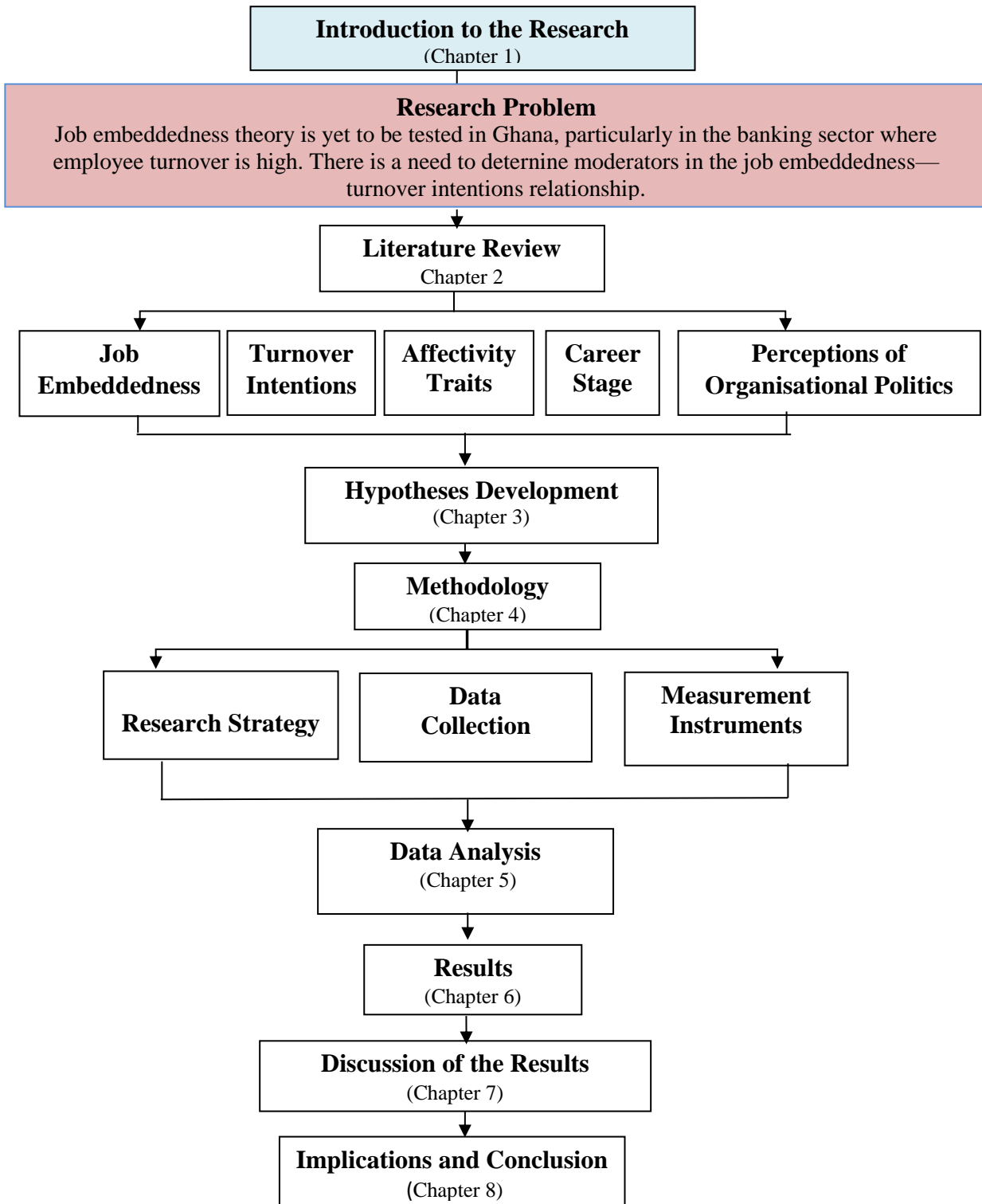


Figure 1. 1 Overview of chapters

Chapter 1 outlines the background literature, which highlights the importance of the topic. The chapter also provides a brief profile of Ghana and explains the relevance of testing the applicability of JE theory in Ghana. In addition, the research gaps, purpose, objectives, questions and significance of this study are outlined in chapter 1. Finally, chapter 1 provides an overview of the thesis chapters.

Chapter 2 reviews the theoretical and empirical literature relevant to achievement of the purpose of the present study. Specifically, the chapter reviews literature on employee turnover, JE, affectivity traits, career stage and POP.

Chapter 3 presents theoretical and empirical research to support arguments for development of the hypothesised relationships in the present study. The chapter also conceptualises the ideas of this study into a model, which shows the proposed relationships among JE, turnover intentions, affectivity traits, career stages and POP.

Chapter 4 outlines the methodology and methods used in this study. The chapter discusses the research strategy, covering the research paradigm and research design, the population, and the sample and sampling procedures used. The chapter also outlines the data collection techniques, describing the source of data, design and operationalisation of the questionnaire, data collection procedures, challenges encountered during operationalisation of the questionnaire, pre-testing results and ethical considerations.

Chapter 5 outlines the techniques used to analyse the data. This includes preliminary analytical procedures such as replacing missing values, reverse coding and testing for normality and multicollinearity. The chapter also outlines the analytical procedures used to test the convergent, construct and discriminant validity, and reliabilities of the present study's

constructs. Additionally, the chapter describes the technique used to test and select the best good model fit from alternative models. The chapter also outlines the analytical techniques used to test for common method bias (CMB). Finally, the chapter explains the analytical techniques used to test the hypotheses.

The results of the study are presented in chapter 6. The results include coverage of descriptive analysis, that is, frequencies, means and standard deviations of the variables in this study. Further, the chapter presents the results of the correlation analysis. The chapter also presents the results of confirmatory factor analysis and the assessment of alternative factor models. In addition, the chapter provides the outcomes of the test to assess CMB. Finally, the chapter presents the results of the present study's hypotheses testing.

Chapter 7 discusses the results of this study. The discussion embeds the results in the existing literature and elaborates on the significance of the results. The chapter's discussion is divided into five sections. The first section discusses the results of the analysis of the JE–turnover intentions relationship. It also discusses the results relating to the relationships between dimensions of JE and turnover intentions, and sub-dimensions of JE and turnover intentions. The second and third sections discuss the results relating to the moderating effects of affectivity traits and career stages on the JE–turnover intentions relationship, respectively. The fourth section discusses the results relating to the moderating role of POP in the relationship between JE and turnover intentions. The final section of the chapter discusses the relative strengths of the moderators in the JE–turnover intentions relationship.

Chapter 8 outlines the theoretical and practical contributions of this present study and makes suggestions for future studies. The chapter also outlines the strengths and the limitations of the study and makes suggestions for future research that will address the limitations.

1.9 Summary

In this chapter I have argued with support from the literature that the turnover of key employees is a major concern for organisations, particularly banks in Ghana. JE theory can be used to address this major concern, because the theory and construct has provided substantial explanations for employees' decisions to stay, rather than leave their jobs. Although the Ghanaian culture may be well suited to the tenets of JE, one cannot confirm the ability of JE to explicate turnover of key employees in Ghana, because the theory is yet to be tested in the country. Further, the scholarship on JE–turnover relationships is not exhaustive, since there are constructs that potentially extend the understanding of the relationship. That is, while the JE–turnover intentions nexus is well-researched, it is the focus on three key moderators that makes this study novel. In this regard, this chapter has outlined two main purposes of the present study: to explore the applicability of JE theory in a heterogeneous society like Ghana, and to examine the potential moderating effects of affectivity traits, career stages and POP in the JE–turnover nexus. The present study will make significant contributions to the existing literature on JE and human resource practices relating to retention of key employees.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the theoretical and empirical literature that helps explain the cultural and institutional contexts in Ghana, and the concepts, constructs or variables in the present study. The chapter begins with a discussion of employee turnover, then provides an overview of the evolution of turnover research. Next, the chapter provides a comprehensive review of the literature relating to JE and draws on the COR theory to explain how JE is conceptualised as a state of abundant resources. This is followed by a discussion of turnover intentions, which is the focal outcome variable in this study. The chapter then discusses the Ghanaian national culture and the institutional framework of the banking sector in Ghana to provide an understanding of the forces that might impact upon the applicability of JE theory. Finally, the chapter turns to the literature relating to the three potential moderating variables: affectivity traits, career stages and POP.

2.1 Employee Turnover

Employee turnover—termination of the official employment relationship between a worker and his or her organisation (Hom & Griffeth, 1995)—can be either involuntary or voluntary (Akgunduz & Sanli, 2017; Price, 1977). Involuntary turnover is where an employer decides that the employee has to leave the organisation (Allen & Bryant, 2012; Dess & Shaw, 2001), often because of persistent poor performance (e.g., Barrick, Mount, & Strauss, 1994; McEvoy & Cascio, 1987; Stumpf & Dawley, 1981) or forced redundancy (Waters, 2007; Macken, O’Grady, & Sappideen, 1997). Involuntary turnover also occurs when a person retires or dies (Price & Mueller, 1981). Voluntary turnover, on the other hand, has fascinated researchers for a century (Hom et al., 2017) because it occurs when an employee on his or

her own discretion decides to leave the organisation (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995). Thus, employees are not forced by employers to leave the organisation (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Examples of voluntary turnover include voluntary departure of employees from the organisation for reasons such as job dissatisfaction, availability of job alternatives, desire to pursue further education, health matters or family commitments (e.g., spouses being transferred; Dalton, Krackhardt, & Porter, 1981; Lee, Gerhart, Weller, & Trevor, 2008). Voluntary turnover can further be categorised into functional and dysfunctional turnover (Dalton et al., 1981; Griffeth & Hom, 2001). Functional turnover occurs when poor performers or less valued employees on their own discretion leave the organisation, while dysfunctional turnover occurs when valued employees or high performers on their own discretion leave the organisation (Allen et al., 2010; Dalton et al., 1981). Dysfunctional turnover is deleterious to the organisation because highly qualified employees with unique knowledge and skills may be difficult to replace (Allen et al., 2010; Dalton et al., 1981).

Dysfunctional turnover is further categorised into avoidable and unavoidable turnover (Dalton et al., 1981). Avoidable turnover occurs where management could have prevented employees from leaving the organisation because turnover is driven by reasons that are at least somewhat under organisational control (e.g., poor working conditions, inadequate growth opportunities, negative organisational culture, poor supervision; Allen & Bryant, 2012). In contrast, some turnover is unavoidable because some valuable employees will still leave the organisation, irrespective of the fact that the organisation is an exemplary employer (Allen & Bryant, 2012). Thus, unavoidable turnover occurs where no reasonable management intervention could have prevented an employee from leaving the organisation

(e.g., following a relocating spouse, death or serious illness; Abelson, 1987; Barrick & Zimmerman, 2005; Dalton et al., 1981). According to Allen and Bryant (2012), it is imperative to draw a distinction between avoidable turnover and unavoidable turnover because it may be wasteful to invest substantial resources with the intent to counteract unavoidable turnover. Most turnover studies focus on voluntary turnover that is dysfunctional and avoidable turnover, because organisations would want to retain valuable employees (Allen & Bryant, 2012).

2.1.1 Cost of Employee Turnover

Employee turnover can have either detrimental or positive consequences on organisational performance (Allen et al., 2010; Siebert & Zubanov, 2009). Historically, three theoretical views have been used to explain the detrimental effects of turnover on organisational performance: the cost-based view, human capital view and social capital view. The cost-based view proposes that there are direct and indirect costs associated with managing employee exits (e.g., Dalton & Todor, 1979). Allen et al. (2010) identified that separation and replacement costs associated with employee turnover include salary, benefits, exit interview, orientation and training, and advertising. From the human capital view, turnover is detrimental to organisations because organisations lose the valuable skills and knowledge that employees have acquired and developed through experience and training (Becker, 1993; Dess & Shaw, 2001). Valued employees who quit the organisation may join competitors and help them to undermine their previous organisation's competitive advantage (Agarwal, Ganco, & Ziedonis, 2009). Finally, the social capital view proposes that certain individuals have strong ties with certain others and develop mutual trust with certain others (Burt, 1992). Thus, turnover is detrimental to organisations when employees who are strongly connected

to customers, suppliers and other key stakeholders quit the organisation (Batt, 2002; Shaw, Duffy, Johnson, & Lockhart, 2005).

A plethora of empirical research shows that voluntary turnover is costly because of its negative impact on work-related outcomes (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011). For example, Boyne et al. (2011) found high negative impacts of turnover in high performing organisations. Upon finding that women of colour leave their organisations more than men of colour in corporate America, Hom, Roberson and Ellis (2008) argued that turnover impedes progress towards achieving a more diverse workforce. Studies have also shown that turnover was related to a reduction in commitment levels of remaining employees (Mobley, 1982; Staw, 1980), reductions in profit margins, customer service quality and safety (Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2013; Ton & Huckman, 2008), and workforce performance (Shaw et al., 2005). Meta-analytic reviews have also shown that turnover lowers financial performance (Heavey, Holwerda, & Hausknecht, 2013; Park & Shaw, 2013).

2.1.2 Benefits of Employee Turnover

Not all employee turnover is regarded as bad (Allen & Bryant, 2012). Turnover becomes functional for organisations during organisational restructuring (Allen & Bryant, 2012). In some cases, turnover becomes positive when poor performing employees leave the organisation, which enables the organisation to replace them with high performing employees, or employees with new skills, knowledge, experience and creativity (Allen & Bryant, 2012; Allen et al., 2010; Heneman & Judge, 2006). Turnover can also help organisations to reduce labour costs by not making replacements, or by making less costly replacements, or by replacing with the view to increasing workforce diversity (Allen et al., 2010; Bontis & Fitz-Enz, 2002).

2.2 Evolution of Turnover Research

Turnover research has undergone several phases of development over the past century (Hom et al., 2017). In the following sub-section, I review the literature on five epochs that mark significant transitions and methodological developments in turnover research.

2.2.1 1920s to 1960s (the Formative Era)

During the formative era of turnover research, weighted application blanks (WABs) were used for predictive test validation (e.g., Schuh, 1967; Buel, 1964), and they showed higher predictive efficacy than selection tests (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). The first turnover model was published during the formative years of turnover research. March and Simon (1958) introduced the seminal model of turnover in their theory of organisational equilibrium, which was based on the work of Barnard (1938). According to March and Simon (1958), there are two main factors that explain voluntary turnover: (1) perceived ease of movement and (2) perceived desirability of movement. Perceived ease of movement reflected job alternatives, whereas perceived desirability of movement reflected job (dis)satisfaction (Mitchell et al., 2001). Researchers also found that realistic job previews (i.e., effective recruitment and new hire assimilation) can reduce employee turnover (Farr, O'Leary, & Bartlett, 1973; Gannon, 1971; Weitz, 1956). The formative years of turnover research also made significant contributions to methodology by using standard research designs that help to collect data on predictors at one time point and data on individual turnover at another time point (Hom et al., 2017; Hulin, 1966, 1968).

2.2.2 The 1970s (Foundational Models)

After the seminal model of turnover was produced (March & Simon, 1958), many different models were developed in the 1970s to explain why people leave their jobs. For instance, Porter and Steers (1973) developed the ‘met expectation model’. They proposed that factors that employees consider worthwhile, if not met, would eventually increase their intent to quit their jobs. They found that organisation-wide factors, immediate work environment factors, job-related factors and personal factors influence employees’ satisfaction levels and their intentions to stay or leave their jobs (Porter & Steers, 1973). Mobley (1977) theorised a process model that explained how dissatisfaction influences turnover. His model was one of the most influential models of employee voluntary turnover. According to Mobley (1977), dissatisfaction evolves into turnover through a linear sequence, which involves other factors (see Figure 2.1). Later, Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino (1979) reviewed the process model and included four variables as key determinants of voluntary turnover: job satisfaction, expected utility of alternative roles within the organisation, expected utility of alternative roles outside the organisation, and non-work values and roles. Price (1977) developed the ‘causal model’ and argued that intent to quit and perceived alternative opportunities influence employee turnover.

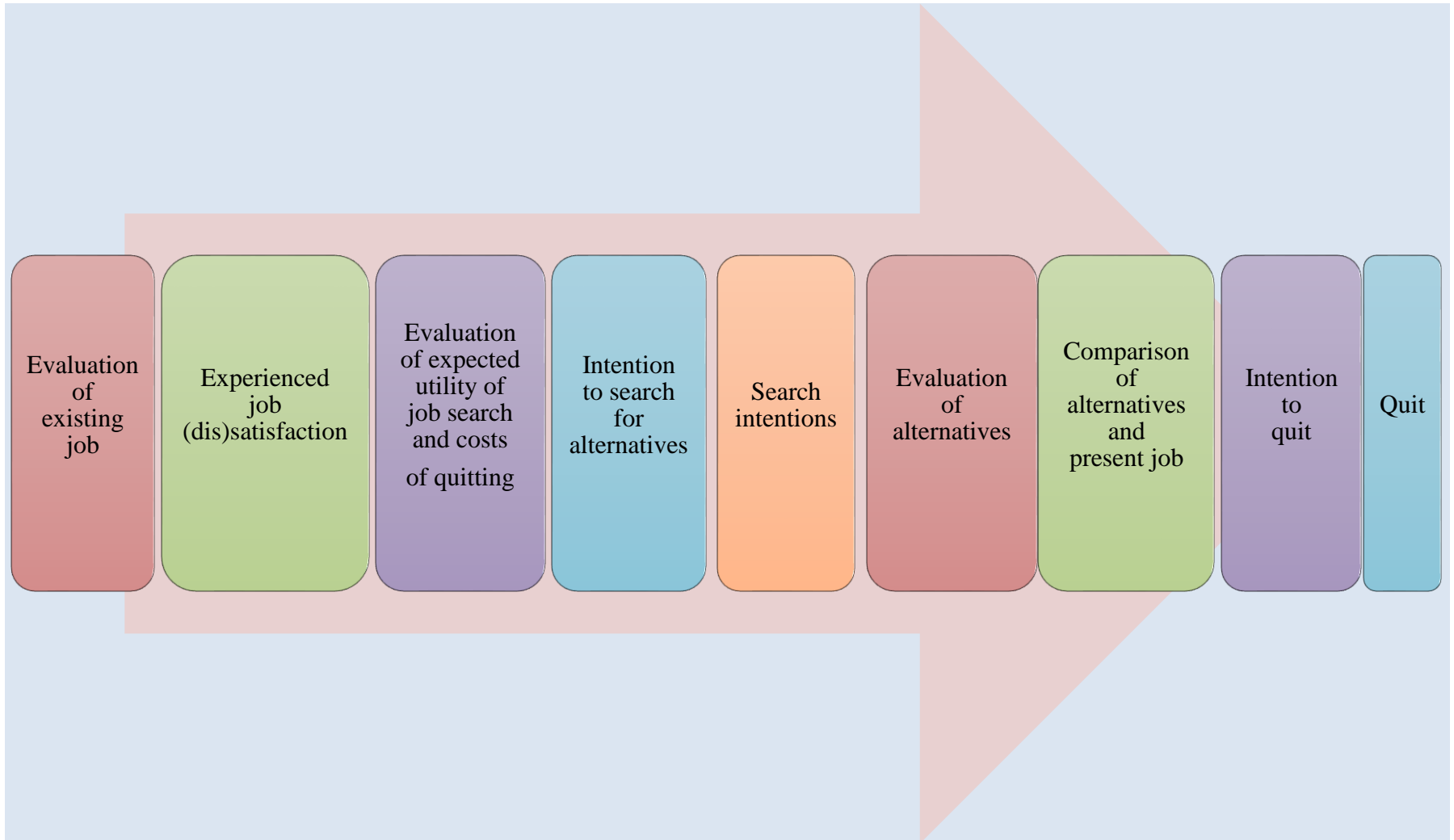


Figure 2. 1 Mobley's (1977) process model

However, the model indicated that job satisfaction influences voluntary turnover through the effects of turnover intentions. The model emphasises turnover content more than turnover process, although it identifies job satisfaction and perceived job alternatives as mediating variables between environmental antecedents and turnover (Price, 2001). Motivated by the belief that the attitudinal variables job satisfaction and organisational commitment were the primary causes of employee turnover, many researchers in the 1970s (e.g., Dittrich & Carrell, 1979; Hines, 1973; Karp & Nickson, 1973) used theories of work motivation, such as equity theory (Adams, 1963), motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1959) and motivational needs (Maslow, 1943), to explain why people leave their jobs. Equity theory proposes that individuals are likely to leave their jobs if their outputs, such as salary and benefits, are not commensurate with their inputs, such as time and effort. According to the motivation-hygiene theory, turnover intentions and decisions are influenced by motivator variables, such as promotion and recognition, and hygiene factors, such as pay and fringe benefits. Herzberg argued that the absence of hygiene factors leads to job dissatisfaction, which leads to turnover decisions. In his view, the presence of motivator factors leads to job satisfaction, while their absence may influence employees' voluntary turnover. However, the absence of motivator variables does not necessarily lead to job dissatisfaction, but to no satisfaction. Maslow theorised a hierarchy of five motivational needs (i.e., psychological needs, safety needs, belongingness and love needs, esteem needs, and self-actualisation needs) that are likely to influence individuals' turnover intentions and decisions. He indicated that every individual has basic needs that must be satisfied. In his view, the apex of an individual's need is self-actualisation, that is, the need to achieve one's full potential, such as through creative activities.

2.2.3 The 1980s (Theories Testing)

Turnover research in the 1980s focused on testing theories. For instance, Price and Mueller (1981) tested a complex causal model of determinants of turnover. The model indicated that routinisation, participation, instrumental communication, integration, pay, distributive justice and promotional opportunity have indirect effects on turnover through job satisfaction, while professionalism, general training and kinship responsibility have indirect effects on turnover through intent to stay. The model indicated that intent to stay has a direct effect on turnover. The authors' study revealed that intent to stay, job opportunities, general training and job satisfaction were the greatest determinants of employee turnover. Steers and Mowday (1981) extended and refined Price and Mueller's (1981) model by adding new antecedents, identifying moderators, explaining new ways to manage dissatisfaction besides leaving, delineating feedback loops and specifying several turnover routes. In their 'multi-route model', Steers and Mowday (1981) found that turnover intention and alternative job opportunities are the immediate precursors of voluntary turnover. The model indicated that non-work factors strongly influence turnover intention. The difference between Steers and Mowday's (1981) model and Mobley's (1977) model is that the former proposed that intent to quit predicts job search, while the latter proposed that job search predicts intent to quit. Hulin, Roznowski and Hachiya (1985) explained why unemployment rates predict voluntary turnover, more than available alternatives do, in the satisfaction-quit process. They identified a workforce segment attached to the labour market, which they called 'hobos', whose reasons for leaving their jobs are poorly explicated by conventional models. The hobos freely drift from one job to another, and may, when dissatisfied or bored, leave the labour market sporadically to pursue less stressful or more pleasurable jobs (Hom et al., 2017). Thus,

dissatisfaction or desire to travel are what directly influence these individuals' decisions to leave their jobs (Hulin et al., 1985). Further, Hulin et al. (1985) argued that employees do not leave their jobs because they surmise job availability from local unemployment statistics; rather, they leave when they actually secure job offers.

A key methodological contribution to turnover research in this epoch was the drift from the use of ordinary least squares (OLS) to the use of better-suited analytical methods, such as log rank statistics (Hom et al., 2017; Morita, Lee, & Mowday, 1989). Another methodological contribution was that researchers moved away from explaining greater variance in turnover by increasing the number of antecedents, that is, using R^2 in OLS. Rather, they explained greater variance in turnover by using more rigorous statistical techniques, such as structural equation modelling (SEM) to determine the accuracy of turnover antecedents (Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Steel & Griffeth, 1989; Steel & Ovalle, 1984). SEM users preferred to explain the covariances among the antecedents of turnover to the variance in turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Hom, Caranikas-Walker, Prussia, & Griffeth, 1992). Thus, researchers during this epoch focused on using more robust statistical tests to explain turnover than on expanding antecedents of turnover.

2.2.4 The 1990s (Unfolding Model)

Turnover research in the early 1990s moved into a 'fallow' epoch where researchers extended existing models or increasingly refined theories (Hom et al., 2017; O'Reilly, 1991; Steel, 2002). Lee and Mitchell (1994) introduced a novel theory called the 'unfolding model', which challenged the existing paradigm that people predominantly leave their jobs because of dissatisfaction. In the unfolding model, Lee and Mitchell (1994) indicated that employees might leave their jobs as a result of 'shocks'. Shocks are jarring events that prompt

employees' thoughts about quitting their jobs (Hom et al., 2017; Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Thus, an event cannot be considered a shock unless it is adequately jarring and cannot be overlooked, or it produces work-related deliberations that prompt thoughts about leaving the job (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). A shock can be expected or unexpected, job-related or non-job-related, and positive, neutral or negative (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Lee, Mitchell, Holtom, McDaneil, & Hill, 1999). A shock comes in different types and drives four decision paths to turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). The decision paths show distinct ways that shocks prompt individuals' turnover decisions (see Figure 2.2). Lee, Mitchell, Wise and Fireman (1996) used qualitative methodology to test the basic tenets of the unfolding model and found support for the theory. Thus, most leavers who were interviewed followed one of four theorised decision paths. Lee et al. (1999) also validated the unfolding model by examining how decision paths vary in the speed at which leavers first decide to leave and then leave. They found that shock-driven paths occur more quickly than affect-driven paths. They concluded that the unfolding model is a viable and a significant approach to explicate turnover (Lee et al., 1999).

Lee and Mitchell (1994) identified five significant contributions of the unfolding model to turnover research. First, the authors indicated that the model proposed an alternative theory to March and Simon's (1958) model which proposes that perceived ease and desirability of movement largely influence employee turnover. Second, the model further incorporates behaviours, scripts and schemas into the employee turnover process through the 'matching frames' notion. Third, the model proposed a conceptual mechanism that allows the turnover process to have many random, unexpected or external events. Fourth, the unfolding model has superior explanatory power and detailed specification in the turnover process. Lastly, the

model clearly identifies and outlines various psychological foci and processes that can activate employees' turnover.

To date, the unfolding model continues to attract the attention of researchers and practitioners in turnover research (Hom, 2011). Studies have shown that employees often quit their jobs as a result of shocks (e.g., Holtom et al., 2008; Weller, Holtom, Matiaske, & Mellewig, 2009), thus supporting Lee et al.'s (1999) assertion that shock-driven departures occur sooner than dissatisfaction-driven departures. Turnover research annals show that the unfolding model is a revolutionary theoretical approach, which recognised new variables and processes that have extended researchers and practitioners understanding of why employees leave their jobs (Hom et al., 2017). Figure 2.2 shows Lee and Mitchell's (1994) four decision paths arising from a shock.

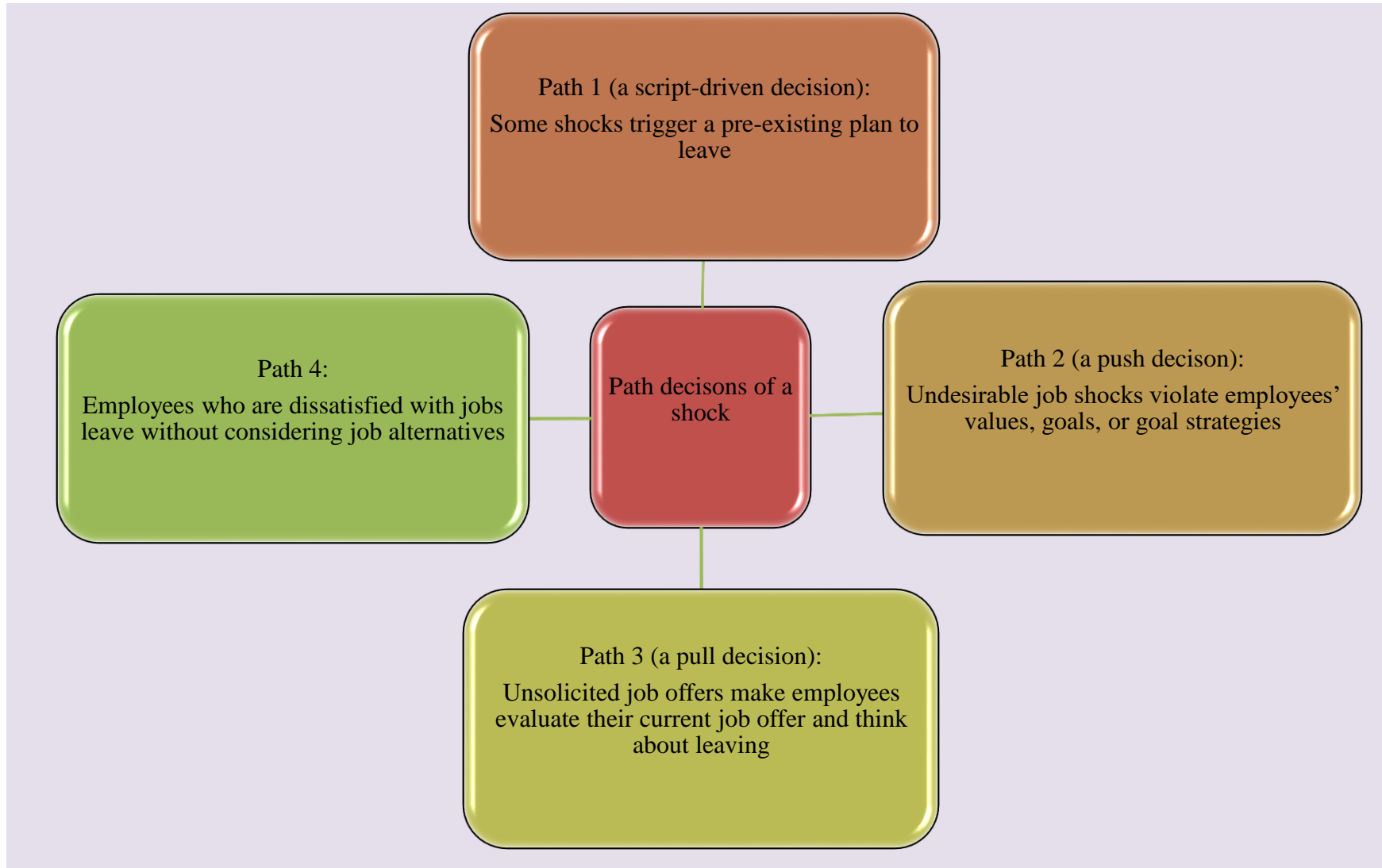


Figure 2. 2 Decision paths of a shock (Lee & Mitchell, 1994)

2.2.5 The Twenty-First Century (2000 to Current)

Although the dawn of the twenty-first century saw interesting studies, such as a meta-analysis of the antecedents of turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000) and the ‘movement’ capital (Trevor, 2001), Mitchell et al.’s (2001) research on JE took the lead in turnover research. They used JE to explain why people stay in their jobs (Mitchell et al., 2001). As a general attachment construct, JE does not seek to explain why people leave their jobs but considers the broad set of influences that makes employees want to stay (Coetzer et al., 2018; Mitchell et al., 2001). According to Mitchell et al. (2001), people stay at their jobs because of their links, fit and sacrifices in the organisation, and because of the community in which they live. The twenty-first century turnover research also paid attention to turnover at the group, team, work unit and organisational levels (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011; Shaw, 2011). Research during this era theorised and examined turnover’s antecedents (e.g., human resource management [HRM] practices) and consequences (e.g., organisational performance; e.g., Batt, 2002; Dess & Shaw, 2001; Heavey et al., 2013; Shaw, Dineen, Fang, & Vellella, 2009). Further, recent studies show an attenuated-U relationship between turnover and performance, which suggests that the relationship is strongly negative initially, but weakens at high turnover rates (Shaw et al., 2005; Shaw, Park, & Kim, 2013). Hom, Mitchell, Lee and Griffeth (2012) also reviewed literature and expanded the conceptual domain of the turnover criterion to include multiple types of turnover (notably, involuntary quits) and multiple types of stayers (i.e., reluctant stayers, enthusiastic stayers, trapped stayers and contractual stayers). A major contribution of the twenty-first century is turnover antecedents’ trajectories of change (Hom et al., 2017). For instance, there has been an increased explanation of variance of 43% in turnover by using dynamic measures of satisfaction, that is, changes in satisfaction among

individuals and work groups (Liu, Mitchell, Lee, Holtom, & Hinkin, 2012). In a longitudinal study, Bentein, Vandenberghe, Vandenberg and Stinglhamer (2005) also found that a decreasing trajectory for affective organisational commitment predicts increasing quit intentions.

2.2.6 Synthesis

Turnover is a common feature of the workplace because employees at a specific stage in their career have to quit their jobs, whether the decision to quit their jobs is triggered by the employer (involuntary turnover), or by their own discretion (voluntary turnover). Although turnover can be functional to organisations (Allen et al., 2010), much attention is paid to dysfunctional turnover because of its numerous detrimental impacts on organisations, such as negative effects on workforce performance (e.g., Dess & Shaw, 2001). Turnover research has gone through several phases over the past century, and has made significant contributions in each phase to determining the reasons people leave their jobs. In the formative years (i.e., 1920s to 1960s), the main attention of research was to use standard research designs to collect data on predictors of turnover. Researchers also began to develop models to explain voluntary turnover. This era saw the development of March and Simon's (1958) seminal model of turnover. In the 1970s, researchers developed different models to explain voluntary turnover. Until the 1980s, turnover theories were not tested. Turnover research during the 1980s used more rigorous analytical techniques, such as SEM to explain greater variance in turnover, as opposed to the earlier approach of increasing the number of antecedents to explain greater variance in turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Hom et al., 2017).

Research in the 1990s focused on the unfolding model, which posits that employees leave their jobs as a result of shocks and identifies four decision paths. The unfolding model

brought a radical understanding into turnover research by demonstrating that employees quit their jobs for reasons other than dissatisfaction, and many employees quit their jobs without conducting a job search (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Based on the excitement that characterised the unfolding model, the dawn of the twenty-first century saw the development of JE theory. The theory has gained prominence in the turnover literature because of its ability to use work and non-work factors to explain increased variance in voluntary turnover, above and beyond that explained by job alternatives and job dissatisfaction (e.g., Mallol et al., 2007). The twenty-first century scholars have also paid attention to new turnover antecedents, such as HRM practices, and consequences such as performance (Batt, 2002; Shaw et al., 2009), and multiple types of turnover (notably involuntary quits) and stayers (e.g., reluctant stayers). The turnover research continues to expand its boundaries and develop our understanding of the turnover phenomenon.

To contribute to the turnover research in this twenty-first century, the present study aims to use JE theory to explain why people may intend to quit their jobs in Ghana's banking sector. A significant contribution of the present study will be the contextualised replication of JE theory and extension of the theory through the determination of potential moderators (i.e., affectivity traits, POP and career stages) in the JE–turnover intentions relationship. In the next sub-section, I review literature on JE theory and other related literature.

2.3 Job Embeddedness

The excitement that characterised the unfolding model continued into the new century, motivating Mitchell et al.'s (2001) development of their 'JE theory', which further explicates why people stay on their jobs. Studies show that JE explains variance in turnover beyond the

variance explained by affect-driven variables and perceived alternatives (Friedman & Holtom, 2002; Jiang et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2014). The reasons employees stay in their jobs differ significantly from the reasons they leave their jobs (Mitchell et al., 2001). That is, the act of staying is not necessarily the direct opposite of the act of leaving, because the ‘pull’ and ‘push’ factors may be distinct (Allen et al., 2016; Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Mitchell et al., 2001). For instance, what coaxes an individual to leave (e.g., unfair or inadequate salaries) may differ from what coaxes that individual to stay (e.g., training opportunities; Hom et al., 2017; Mitchell et al., 2001). However, people stay in their jobs because of their personal attachments to their environments (Allen et al., 2016). JE is “a broad constellation of influences on employee retention” (Mitchell et al., 2001, p. 1104). Yao, Lee, Mitchell, Burton and Sablinski (2004) described JE as the combined forces that prevent employees from leaving their jobs. These combined pull-to-stay forces are accumulated, non-affective and relatively stable (Eberly et al., 2017; Sekiguchi, Burton, & Sablinski, 2008; Swider, Boswell, & Zimmerman, 2011). JE theory is built on Lewin’s (1951) embedded figures and field theory. The field theory proposes that people can have many or few, and close or distant connections in aspects of their lives, while the embedded figures theory proposes that people who are attached to their backgrounds are difficult to separate from their backgrounds because they become part of the surroundings (Mitchell et al., 2001).

The uniqueness of JE lies in the fact that it concentrates on both work and non-work factors to predict employees’ voluntary turnover (Lee et al., 2004; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Coetzer et al. (2017) asserted that non-work factors included in JE make the construct distinct in the manner it assesses employees’ work experiences that bind them to their jobs. JE is described as a web with strands, where the strands indicate the many links employees have

to and within their organisation and community (Mitchell et al., 2001). JE is categorised into two dimensions: organisation embeddedness (i.e., work factors) and community embeddedness (non-work factors; Hussain & Deery, 2018; Mitchell et al., 2001; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Each dimension is further grouped into three strands: fit, links and sacrifice (Collins & Mossholder, 2017; Lee et al., 2004; Robinson et al., 2014). Therefore, employees are enmeshed in their jobs as a result of their links, fit and perceived sacrifices associated with their work organisation and the communities in which they live (Bambacas & Kulik, 2013; Hussain & Deery, 2018). For instance, people who have good interpersonal relationships with their co-workers and supervisors, who are able to use their skills and strengths in their work, who are revered in the organisation, who have personal values similar to the organisation's values, who are promoted and rewarded when due, and who have good pension benefits may be embedded in their jobs because they will forfeit all these benefits when they leave. Similarly, people who in the community have a home and family, and whose family members know (or are themselves) opinion leaders, influential members of the community or key church members, and who have long-term friends, good schools and playgrounds for their children, may be embedded in their jobs. This is because a change of job that requires relocation of residential community will cause forfeiture of these benefits. Thus, JE comprises six individual-level dimensions that enmesh employees in their jobs (Charlier et al., 2016; Felps et al., 2009; Mitchell et al., 2001).

2.3.1 Organisation Embeddedness

Mitchell et al. (2001) argued that people become embedded in their jobs through organisation links, fit and sacrifices. Thus, there are organisation fit, organisation links and organisation sacrifice aspects of the JE construct (Ng & Feldman, 2012). Organisation fit refers to an

individual's perceived compatibility or comfort with an organisation (Allen et al., 2016; Peltokorpi et al., 2017; Singh, Shaffer, & Selvarajan, 2018). Employees' personal values, career goals and future plans must be congruent with the larger corporate culture and the demands of their current job, including job knowledge, skills and abilities (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2014; Mitchell et al. 2001; Sekiguchi et al., 2008). The better a person's personal values, career goals, future plans, knowledge, abilities and skills fit with an organisation, the more likely he or she feels professionally and personally tied to the organisation (Coetzer et al., 2017; Mitchell et al. 2001; Zhang, Ryan, Prybutok, & Kappelman, 2012). Organisation links refers to the formal or informal ties between an employee and other individuals or groups in the organisation (Kiazad et al., 2015; Peltokorpi et al., 2017). Mitchell et al. (2001) stressed that the greater the number of links a person has in an organisation, the more strongly he or she is bound to the job and organisation. Lastly, organisation sacrifice refers to a person's perceived cost of material benefits (e.g., forfeiture of health benefits or pensions benefits) and psychological benefits (e.g., leaving a senior position, or loss of organisational support) associated with quitting his or her job (Allen et al., 2016; Kiazad et al., 2015; Ng & Feldman, 2007; Tian, Cordery, & Gamble, 2016). Shaw, Delery, Jenkins and Gupta (1998) asserted that employees who would sacrifice many resources by leaving the organisation would find it more difficult to quit their jobs. Mitchell et al. (2001) contended that employees taking a new job would have to give up non-portable financial benefits (e.g., stock options or defined benefit plans) and accrued benefits, including perks provided by the company that affect their private lives (e.g., access to day care facilities or a company vehicle). Therefore, employees with stronger links to the organisation, a greater fit to the organisation and more sacrifices to make when leaving the organisation would be less likely to leave their jobs (Mitchell et al. 2001; Singh, 2017).

2.3.2 Community Embeddedness

According to Mitchell et al. (2001), community embeddedness refers to non-work factors that keep employees bound to their jobs. The non-work factors are inherent in the community where the individual resides. They include ties with family members and relocation anxieties (Darrat, Amyx, & Bennett, 2017; Mitchell et al., 2001). Like organisation embeddedness, community embeddedness has three strands: community fit, community links and community sacrifices (Mitchell et al., 2001). Community fit refers to the extent to which a person is compatible with the community and surrounding environment where he or she lives. Community fit factors include the weather, amenities, outdoor activities and entertainment activities (Allen et al., 2016; Mitchell et al., 2001). People find it difficult to relocate from a community when their desires and interests are compatible with that community (Feldman & Bolino, 1998; Pugh, Dietz, Brief, & Wiley, 2008). Further, individuals who have lived in a community for some time develop links with people in the community. Community links is where an individual establishes formal or informal connections with people and organisations in the community in which he or she lives (Ng & Feldman, 2012; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Mitchell et al. (2001) indicated that people have many links among the various aspects of their lives, and that leaving their homes can sever or require the rearrangement of some of these links. Finally, community sacrifices refers to a person's perceived psychological and material benefits (e.g., easy access to recreational areas or cultural opportunities) that may be forfeited when he or she leaves the community (Mitchell et al., 2001; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). People find it difficult to leave a safe neighbourhood or town where they are highly engaged in local organisations, and are respected (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006; Zhang et al., 2012). Therefore, people who are

embedded in their community may disregard job alternatives that require relocation from the set of job options they consider (Mitchell et al., 2001), because they do not want to lose benefits, such as easy access to recreational areas and cultural opportunities (Ng & Feldman, 2014).

2.3.3 Job Embeddedness-Related Constructs Distinctions

Although JE theory has some similarities with attitudinal variables such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and with other variables such as job investment and turnover intentions, it is conceptually distinct, because it is broader than any of the related constructs (Crossley et al., 2007; Mitchell et al., 2001). The JE construct includes a measurement of some on-the-job factors and off-the-job factors that are not measured by other constructs (Mitchell et al., 2001). Table 2.3.3 summarises the distinctions between the JE construct and other related constructs.

Table 2. 1 Job embeddedness-related constructs distinctions

Construct	Definition	Distinction from job embeddedness
Job satisfaction	The extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs (Spector, 1997).	Job embeddedness includes factors outside of the workplace and it is not always affective in nature.
Affective commitment	Commitment based on identification with, involvement in, and emotional attachment to the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990). It includes a strong acceptance of an organisation’s goals and willingness to exert substantial effort on behalf of the organisation, and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979).	Embeddedness includes factors outside of the workplace. It is not always affective in nature, and not limited to attachment based on identification with the organisation or acceptance of its goals. It does not also address employees’ willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation.
Continuance commitment	Commitment based on the employee’s recognition of the costs associated with leaving the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1996). It includes side bets and perceived alternatives.	Job embeddedness includes community-related factors not typically included in continuance commitment (e.g., a safe community, spouse’s employment, leisure activities, weather and climate), and both affective and cognitive-based evaluations, and is not limited to attachment based specifically on lack of options or forfeited investments in the organisation.
Normative commitment	Commitment based on a sense of obligation or that staying is the right and moral thing to do. Posited to develop on the basis of socialisation experiences in one’s early life, including family-based and culturally based experiences (Allen & Meyer, 1996).	Job embeddedness includes factors outside of the workplace. It is descriptive in nature and does not necessarily relate to how right or wrong it is to be so attached.
Intentions to quit	Individuals’ own estimated probability (subjective) that they are permanently leaving the organisation at some point in the near future (Vandenberg & Nelson, 1999). Based on mental consideration of the behaviour, the target object towards which the behaviour is directed, the situational context in which the behaviour will be performed, and the time at which the behaviour is to occur (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).	Job embeddedness represents a present status quo based on inertia-like forces shaped from the past, whereas intentions to quit represent anticipated future behaviours. Intentions to quit are regarded as the culmination of the decision-making process regarding turnover and represent a transitional link between thought processes and behavioural action (Mobley, 1977).
Job investment	Job investment includes things that are “intrinsic to the job (e.g., years of service, non-portable training, non-vested portions of retirement programs” (Rusbult & Farrell, 1983, p. 431) and resources that are external but tied to the job, such as friends at work, housing arrangements, and other extraneous benefits. Job investment includes elements not in organisation-related sacrifice as well as a relative comparison idea that appears to invoke equity or fairness judgements.	The measure of job investment is more general than organisation-related sacrifice, which measures specific factors an employee would have to give up by leaving. Commitment mediates the job investments–turnover relationship but does not mediate the job embeddedness–turnover relationship.

Adapted from Crossley et al. (2007) and Mitchell et al. (2001).

2.3.4 Conservation of Resources Theory and Job Embeddedness

COR theory is a motivational and stress theory that proposes that individuals (and groups) strive to acquire, protect, foster and retain resources they personally value (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007; Hobfoll, 2001, 2011; Hobfoll, Halbesleben, Neveu, & Westman, 2018). Resources are anything with a tangible or intangible value that binds an individual to a group (e.g., organisation) and helps him or her to attain his or her goals (Greene, Brush, & Brown, 1997; Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014; Mosakowski, 1993). Resources include objects (e.g., car, home), personal characteristics (e.g., key skills and personal traits such as self-esteem), conditions (e.g., healthy marriage, employment, supportive work relationships, seniority, tenure), or energies (e.g., time, knowledge, money, credit) that are valued by the individual or that serve as a means for attainment of these objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies (Hobfoll, 1989, 2011). COR theory suggests that individuals experience psychological stress in three ways: (1) when valued resources are threatened with loss, (2) when valued resources are lost and (3) when there is a failure to regain valued resources following resource investment (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001; Hobfoll et al., 2018). To avoid psychological stress, individuals prefer circumstances that result in creation and accumulation of valued resources to circumstances that lead to valued resources being threatened or lost (Hobfoll, 1989; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009).

COR theory proposes four principles (Hobfoll et al., 2018; Hobfoll, 2011). The first principle—primacy of resource loss—holds that the loss of valued resources is disproportionately more salient than the gain of valued resources. Resource loss is excessively more important to individuals than resource gain because it is psychologically

more harmful for individuals to lose a valued resource than it is helpful for them to gain a valued resource (Halbesleben et al., 2014; Hobfoll, 2011; Hobfoll & Lilly, 1993; Wheeler et al., 2012). Thus, resource loss is the principal ingredient in the stress process because it is more powerful in magnitude than resource gain (Hobfoll, 2001). The second principle—resource investment—holds that individuals must invest resources to protect against resource loss, recover from losses and gain resources. For example, an individual can directly replace his or her resources through payment of lost income with savings, and indirectly through skills training and knowledge acquisition to take up a tough challenge within a domain (Hobfoll et al., 2018). The third principle—gain paradox—holds that resource gain increases in salience in the context of resource loss. That is, resource gain becomes more salient to individuals in circumstances when resource loss is high. The fourth principle—desperation—holds that when individuals' resources are exhausted or overstretched, they adopt a defensive mechanism to preserve the self, which is often defensive and aggressive, and may become irrational.

Mitchell and colleagues (2001) theorised that individuals become embedded in their jobs as a result of three forces in the organisation and residential community, that is, links, fit and sacrifice. These three sub-dimensions of JE constitute valued resources because they keep individuals in their jobs, since leaving will be associated with giving up these resources (Mitchell et al., 2001). Thus, JE has been conceptualised as a state of abundant resources (Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008; Harris, Wheeler, & Kacmar, 2011; Wheeler et al., 2012; Zhang, Fan, Deng, Lam, Hu, & Wang, 2019). *Links* denotes a relational resource that individuals acquire because of their interpersonal formal and informal ties with other people in their organisations and residential communities. *Fit* denotes a sense of belonging resource

that individuals feel through being part of their organisations and residential communities. *Sacrifice* denotes the first principle of COR theory, primacy of resource loss, which indicates that individuals find resource loss more salient than resource gain, and that leaving their organisations and residential communities will be hard for them because it will be associated with giving up valued resources (Hobfoll, 2011; Mitchell et al., 2001).

Kiazad, Seibert and Kraimer (2014) also theorised that the sub-dimensions of embeddedness can be categorised into two resources: instrumental resources and intrinsic resources. Instrumental resources refers to resources that enable an individual to obtain valued resources and additional resources. According to Kiazad and colleagues (2014), links and fit are instrumental resources because they enhance individuals' capabilities and readiness to acquire more valued resources within a domain. That is, individuals can use their resources of stronger links and better fit in the organisation and community to obtain other resources. In contrast, sacrifice is an intrinsic resource, that is, a desired end, such as perks and benefits that an individual cannot use to acquire other resources, but which they will find difficult to forfeit (Hobfoll & Lilly, 1993; Kiazad et al., 2014). Thus, individuals stay in their jobs to retain their intrinsic resources in the organisation and residential community (Kiazad et al., 2015). As suggested by Mitchell et al. (2001), individuals with many potential sacrifices upon leaving the organisation (e.g., defined pension benefits) and community (e.g., access to childcare support) will find it difficult to quit their jobs. Because individuals are motivated to protect their valued resources (Hobfoll, 1989), COR theory becomes useful in understanding how individuals become embedded and how they behave once embedded, particularly when individuals experience threat or actual loss of valued resources in their work and non-work domains (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998; Zhang et al., 2019).

2.3.5 Extension of Job Embeddedness Theory

Although Mitchell and colleagues (2001) originally theorised and used JE to explain employee voluntary turnover, several studies have shown that the construct goes beyond predicting turnover to other important work-related outcomes. Lee et al. (2004) first extended the predictive power of JE to other variables and found that job embeddedness significantly predicted job performance, volitional absences and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Studies by Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) and Sekiguchi et al. (2008) also showed a significant relationship between JE and job performance. Ampofo and colleagues' (2017, 2018) study showed that JE was associated with employees' life satisfaction. Researchers have also found that JE is related to innovation-related behaviours (Coetzer et al., 2018; Ng & Feldman, 2010), work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict (Ng & Feldman, 2012), new venture growth (Mai & Zheng, 2013), organisational deviance (Darrat et al., 2017), and job motivation, social networking behaviour, and organisational identification (Ng & Feldman, 2014). Further, studies have shown that JE has moderating effects on relationships, such as the relationships between human resource practices and turnover intentions, and organisational justice and turnover intentions (Bambacas & Kulik, 2013; Karatepe & Shahriari, 2014). However, just a few studies have examined variables that moderate the relationship between JE and turnover (see Table 2.2). This study addresses this limitation because it seeks to extend the literature on the JE–turnover intentions relationship by determining the potential moderating effects of affectivity traits, POP and career stages on the relationship.

Table 2. 2 Previous empirical studies on moderators in the job embeddedness–turnover relationship

Variables	Authors and year of publication	Results
1. Collectivism and individualism	Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee & Mitchell, 2012; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010	The relationship is stronger in a collectivistic country than an individualistic country.
2. Public and private organisations	Jiang et al., 2012; Lo, Wong, Yam, & Whitfield, 2012	The relationship is stronger in public organisations than private organisations.
3. Work group cohesion	Coetzer, Inma, & Poisat, 2017	The relationship is stronger among employees who report high work group cohesion.
4. Gender	Jiang et al., 2012*; Peltokorpi, Allen, & Froese, 2017**	Mixed results: The relationship is stronger in female-dominated samples than male-dominated samples*. The relationship is weaker among females than males**.
5. Risk aversion	Peltokorpi et al., 2017	The relationship is stronger for individuals low in risk aversion than those high in risk aversion.

2.3.6 Management Practices and Job Embeddedness

A plethora of research shows that management practices contribute to employees being embedded in their jobs. For instance, Wheeler, Harris and Harvey's (2010) study found that effective HRM practices influence employees' embeddedness in their jobs. Thus, effective HRM practices such as fit-based recruitment and compensation can influence the fit and sacrifice dimensions of JE (Bretz, Rynes, & Gerhart, 1993; Kristof, 1996). Drawing on a sample of 308 professional staff in China, Bambacas and Kulik (2013) found that performance appraisal and rewards (i.e., advancement rewards, compensation rewards and supervisory rewards) embedded employees in the organisation by increasing their perceptions of fit. They also found that supervisory rewards and advancement rewards increased employees' links in the organisation, while employees' development opportunities (i.e., professional growth and professional interaction) increased their perceptions of sacrifice. A study by Bergiel, Nguyen, Clenney and Taylor (2009) found that human resource practices of compensation, growth opportunities (e.g., better positions, better salaries or better work environments) and supervisor support (e.g., guidelines, suggestions, assistance, trust and praise) enhanced employees' job embeddedness. After analysing data from 174 full-time frontline employees, Karatepe (2013a) found that frontline employees in organisations with high-performance work practices (i.e., training, empowerment and rewards) and work social support (i.e., supervisor support and co-worker support) are more embedded in their jobs. Thus, employees who are trained to increase their skills, knowledge and abilities, empowered to handle customer requests and complaints promptly, and given financial and non-financial rewards based on fair performance appraisals are likely to be embedded in their jobs (Karatepe, 2013a).

Similarly, a study by Karatepe and Karadas (2012) found that human resources practices such as training, empowerment and rewards increased frontline hotel employees' level of job embeddedness. Drawing on a sample of 205 automobile employees, Harris et al. (2011) found that employees who had high quality relationships with their supervisors were embedded in their organisation. Saks, Uggerslev and Fassina (2007) found that institutionalised socialisation tactics were positively related to employees' fit perceptions. Allen (2006) also found that socialisation (i.e., collective, fixed and investiture tactics) had significant and positive relationships with newcomers' organisation embeddedness.

A critical review of empirical literature showed that most management practices focus on increasing employees' level of embeddedness in their organisation, rather than on increasing employees' level of embeddedness in their community. Allen (2006) argued that socialisation tactics did not embed newcomers in their community because most organisations focus on socialisation tactics that help newcomers adapt to their job and organisation. However, Holtom, Mitchell and Lee's (2006) study identified activities that some organisations have used to embed employees in their community. For instance, North Shore Bank (a community bank in Wisconsin) increased employees' perceptions of community fit by recruiting most heavily in neighbourhoods closest to its branches. Fleet Mortgage Group enhanced employees' links in the community by giving them two days off per year for volunteer work in the community. Patagonia Inc. offered a two-month paid sabbatical to employees who desired to take time off to work for a non-profit environmental organisation in the community. With a view to embedding their employees, Marriott International Inc. provided employees as mentors, job coaches, or a 'buddies' to help welfare recipients entering the job force to learn skills needed for their jobs. The firm also provided extra help with child care

and transportation to and from work. In conclusion, although employees' decisions regarding job embeddedness are personal to them, effective management practices could influence employees' embeddedness in their organisation and community.

2.3.7 Synthesis

JE is the extent to which an employee becomes 'stuck' in his or her job (Mitchell et al., 2001). JE comprises two dimensions, that is, organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness, and three sub-dimensions of fit (i.e. perceived comfort or compatible with the environment), links (i.e. formal and informal relationships), and sacrifices (i.e., benefits that are relinquished when leaving). The basic tenet of JE is that individuals become stuck in their work organisation and in their community when they have many and stronger links in both domains, a strong sense of fit with each domain, and anticipate substantial resource sacrifices upon leaving the two domains (Mitchell et al., 2001; Ng & Feldman, 2014). Because of the forces of links, fit and sacrifice, JE has been conceptualised as a state of abundant resources that individuals will strive to obtain, maintain and protect in the organisation and community (Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008; Hobfoll, 2001; Wheeler et al., 2012). Although JE has similarities with constructs such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions, it is a distinct construct and has the ability to explain incremental variance in employee voluntary turnover, above and beyond perceived job alternatives, and affective variables, such as job satisfaction (Mitchell et al., 2001; Tanova & Holtom, 2008). Following Mitchell et al.'s call for extending JE theory, researchers have extended the JE–turnover relationship and found that JE predicts non-turnover outcomes, such as life satisfaction, task performance and innovation-related behaviours (Ampofo, Coetzer, et al., 2017; Ampofo et al., 2018; Coetzer et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2004). Research

shows that effective management practices such as socialisation, social support and mentorship can enhance employees' levels of embeddedness in the organisation and residential community (e.g., Allen, 2006; Bergiel et al., 2009; Holtom et al., 2006; Singh et al., 2018). Despite evidence that JE explains incremental variance in employee turnover (e.g., Jiang et al., 2012), findings in one national culture and institutional framework cannot be generalised to another because embedding factors may vary across contexts (e.g., Jiang et al., 2012; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Therefore, the validity of the JE construct depends on the cultural and institutional contexts. In this regard, it is important to determine how the unique culture and institutional framework of Ghana will affect peoples' level of embeddedness with the organisation and in the residential community, and in turn influence their turnover intentions.

2.4 Turnover Intention

Turnover intention is a significant cognitive shift of an employee that precedes his or her detachment from the organisation (Burriss, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008). Griffeth et al. (2000) defined it as an employee's conscious and volitional willingness to leave the organisation. According to Mobley (1977), turnover intention is the culmination of the decision-making process regarding turnover, and it represents a transitional connection between thought processes and behavioural action. Thus, the underlining assumption of turnover intention is that it is a thoughtful and conscious desire of employees that eventually results in quitting in the near future (Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Mobley et al. (1979) asserted that intentions provide a better elucidation of turnover because they comprise a person's judgement and perception. Thus, what a person perceives and judges cannot be separated from his or her intent, which makes turnover intention an immediate

predictor of voluntary turnover (Mobley, 1977). Several empirical studies have examined the relationship between turnover intentions and actual turnover and found a positive, significant relationship between turnover intentions and actual turnover (Allen, Weeks, & Moffitt, 2005; Peltokorpi et al., 2017; Sun & Wang, 2017). A meta-analysis by Griffeth et al. (2000) showed that turnover intentions explained 38% of the variance in actual turnover.

Although a person's intentions are not obviously known by another person, there are cues that could predict a person's turnover intentions (Bertelli, 2007; Bufquin, DiPietro, Orłowski, & Partlow, 2017). A number of studies have found that employees' turnover intentions are related to quality of work life (Surienty, Ramayah, Lo, & Tarmizi, 2014), job enrichment and job stability (Luna-Arocas & Camps, 2007), job stress (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007), perceived organisational career management and career adaptability (Guan, Zhou, Ye, Jiang, & Zhou, 2015), and organisational commitment (Chen & Francesco, 2000; Yousaf, Sanders, & Abbas, 2015). In a longitudinal study, Nohe and Sonntag (2014) found that work-to-family conflict predicted increases in turnover intentions. Studies have found that demographic characteristics such as age, tenure and gender are factors that predict employees' turnover intentions (Benson, 2006; Chen & Francesco, 2000; Mai, Ellis, Christian, & Porter, 2016; Miller & Wheeler, 1992). Dane and Brummel (2014) found a negative relationship between workplace mindfulness (i.e., the extent to which people are mindful in their work setting) and turnover intention. Further studies show that employees' turnover intentions are influenced by factors such as intrinsic motivation (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010), organisational politics (Byrne, 2005), anxiety and avoidance (Richards & Schat, 2011), perceived supervisory support (Park, Newman, Zhang, Wu, & Hooke, 2016) and leadership behaviour (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Mittal, 2016). Studies have also found that employees with higher levels of

career satisfaction and job satisfaction do not intend to leave their jobs (Chan, Mai, Kuok, & Kong, 2016; Flickinger, Allscher, & Fiedler, 2016; Tschopp, Grote, & Gerber, 2014).

In conclusion, the large amount of variance that turnover intentions explain in voluntary turnover, combined with the former triggering the latter, make turnover intentions an important outcome to test the applicability of JE theory in Ghana. Further, the present study used turnover intentions because data on actual voluntary turnover typically requires a minimum of two to three years to collect, particularly if it involves multiple waves of data (Lee et al., 2014; Mitchell et al., 2001). Thus, collecting data on actual turnover is not feasible in a three-year PhD program.

2.5 Ghana and Its National Culture

Ghana is a culturally and ethnically diverse male-dominated society, which is highly collectivistic and entrenched in cultures that thrive on interpersonal relationships and communal ties (Adu-Febiri, 1995; Amoateng & Heaton, 2015; Langer, 2010). Ghana is also a multilingual country with over 75 different spoken local languages (Bodomo, Anderson, & Dzahene-Quarshie, 2009; Gordon & Grimes, 2005). A typical Ghanaian organisation comprises employees from different cultural and ethnical backgrounds (Joshua & Taylor-Abdulai, 2014). Despite different cultures, Ghana is one of the most peaceful countries in Africa and in the world (Global Peace Index Report, 2018). However, many communities in Ghana, particularly in the north, are fragile because of chieftaincy disputes that result in bloodshed and destruction of properties, which usually erupt either within a particular ethnic group, or between two or more ethnic groups (Brobbe, 2013; Bukari, Kendie, Sulemana, & Galaa, 2017; Issifu, 2015). Ghana has a tropical climate, but Northern Ghana is the hottest

area with usually one rain pattern in a year, while Southern Ghana has two more rain patterns in a year (Frimpong & Oluwoye, 2003; Nkrumah et al., 2014; Rademacher-Schulz, Schraven, & Mahama, 2014). Thus, many people from Southern Ghana find it difficult to adjust to life in the north because of the warm temperature, particularly during Harmattan season, which is accompanied by a dry, dusty wind that blows from the Sahara Desert in late December to early February.

As a developing country, Ghana is confronted with numerous socio-economic challenges, such as high unemployment (especially among university graduates), low salaries and lack of basic social infrastructures, such as electricity, schools and health centres, which have chronic and devastating impacts on the lives of many citizens (Amissah, Gamor, Deri, & Amissah 2016; Asamani & Mensah, 2013; Delle, 2013; Osei-Tutu, Badu, & Owusu-Manu, 2010). Additionally, article 31 of the United Nations *Convention on the Rights of the Child* (1989) recognises the importance of play and recreational activities in a child's development. However, most Ghanaian children are denied this right because there are no recreational parks in most local communities where children can congregate to engage in sporting activities such as playing football. Regarding entertainment, major events such as music concerts, movie premieres and football gala awards are organised in Accra. This is because there are few theatres in Ghana (e.g., National Theatre, and International Conference Centre) and they are all located in Accra.

Religion has a powerful social influence on the daily lives of people in Ghana, to the extent that religious leaders are very influential in the decision-making of individuals (Acquaah, 2011; Pokimica, Addai, & Takyi, 2012). Ghanaians have strong religious beliefs and practices, which enable religious leaders and groups to have a strong impact on their lifestyles

by advocating values and principles by which they should live (Diawuo & Issifu, 2015; Pokimica et al., 2012). Further, Ghanaians view religion as a collective and social undertaking that brings people together from diverse social, cultural, ethnic and economic backgrounds. Therefore, people build social ties with church members who might support them in several ways, such as facilitating bank loans, raising initial capital for business and resolving marital issues (Assimeng, 1989; Kuada, 2009). In conclusion, the numerous socio-economic challenges coupled with a diverse cultural and ethnical workforce composition in Ghana have potentially substantial implications for the applicability of JE theory in Ghana. In the next section, I emphasise the importance of culture in examining people's job embeddedness and discuss the significant influence of the Ghanaian national culture on managerial employees' job embeddedness.

2.6 National Culture and Job Embeddedness

Culture plays an important role in individuals' job embeddedness, since the way a group of individuals view the micro and macro environment influences their intentions to quit their jobs (Parkes et al., 2001; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Research indicates that JE varies across cultures because the factors that influence the job embeddedness of individuals in one culture are different from the factors that influence their counterparts in another culture (Jiang et al., 2012; Parkes et al., 2001). Given the impact of national culture on job embeddedness (e.g., Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010), it is important to tailor JE theory to a specific country because every country has a unique culture that is distinct from the US where the theory was originally theorised and tested (Hofstede, 1980, Mitchell et al., 2001). In this section, I draw on Hofstede's (1980) dimensions of national culture (i.e., individualism–collectivism, power

distance, masculinity–femininity and uncertainty avoidance) to discuss how the Ghanaian culture might influence the job embeddedness of managerial employees in the banking sector.

2.6.1 Individualism–Collectivism

This dimension is the degree of interdependence a society maintains among its members. Unlike the US (an individualistic country), Ghana is considered a collectivistic society, which is characterised by a strong social framework in which individuals belong to ‘in-groups’ (e.g., families, clans), which take care of them in exchange for loyalty (Hofstede, 1980). Therefore, in collectivistic societies loyalty is paramount, and it overrides most other societal rules and regulations. Individuals from collectivistic countries also place belief in group decisions (Hofstede, 1980, 2001), and organisations emphasise practices such as work unit solidarity and team-based rewards (Newman & Nollen, 1996). Hofstede (1991) asserted that in collectivistic countries, “people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people’s lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty” (p. 51). Therefore, collectivists feel more optimistic and effective, and perform better, when they are embedded in a group and have high shared responsibility (Chatman & Barsade, 1995; Earley, Gibson, & Chen, 1999; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001). Further, individuals from collectivistic countries characteristically develop more long-term intimacy with their friends and co-workers (Sinha, 1997; Triandis, McCusker, & Hui, 1990) because they place enormous value on belongingness, cooperation and harmony (Oyserman, Coon, & Kimmelmeier, 2002; Triandis, 1995).

Collectivists also have a strong belief in the extended family system, such that they often live close to extended family members, such as parents, uncles and aunts, grandparents, and brothers and sisters (Georgas et al., 1997). Research indicates that collectivists use social

bonds and responsibilities, such as upholding the status of family or meeting the financial requirements of the family, to guide their choice of job, career and relocation (e.g., Sinha & Sinha, 1990; Triandis, Bontempo, Villareal, Asai, & Lucca, 1988). Because Ghanaians uphold the extended family system, they usually consider family members' interests when making important work- and career-related decisions. In addition, Ghanaians' strong belief in the extended family system is a reason that individuals seldom leave the extended family, and females traditionally serve in their homes of derivation even after marriage (Acquaah, 2011; Codjoe, 2003; Takyi & Gyimah, 2007). Although the extended family ties are less pronounced in urban communities in Ghana because of modernisation (Aboderin, 2004), urban settlers, especially those with economic power, still have the duty to care for extended family members such as parents, grandparents, siblings, cousins and uncles in the rural communities by paying for school fees and hospital bills, among other living expenses (Kuada, 2009).

Being collectivists, Ghanaians respect and uphold fewer close and long-term friendships (Sinha, 1997; Triandis et al., 1990). In Ghana, families also build friendships as a unit, that is, members of one family are friends to members of another family. Such friendships could be built on several grounds, such as closeness, status and work. Collectivistic cultures also emphasise internal equity, such as seniority-based pay and pay based on hierarchical status (Fischer & Smith, 2003; Ramamoorthy & Carroll, 1998), because they highly respect seniority and group orientation (Peltokorpi, 2011). Given the collectivistic culture in Ghana (Hofstede, 2001), managerial employees in the banking sector are likely to be highly embedded in their jobs, because collectivists strongly emphasise interdependence between

group and organisation members (Markus & Kitayama, 1991), and prioritise relationships over tasks (Hofstede, 1991; Parkes et al., 2001).

2.6.2 Uncertainty Avoidance

This dimension represents the extent to which a society feels threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations and tries to avoid these situations by creating beliefs and institutions (Hofstede, 1980). The US is scored below average on uncertainty avoidance, while Ghana is scored high on this dimension (Hofstede, 1980). Countries that exhibit high uncertainty avoidance establish rules that are more formal, maintain rigid codes of belief and behaviour, are intolerant of unconventional ideas and behaviours, and show more emotions (Hofstede, 1980, 2001). Further, individuals from high uncertainty avoidance countries have a higher level of anxiety and stress, and are highly motivated by security in life (Hofstede, 1980). Because Ghanaians are high risk-averse people, they are likely to be embedded in their jobs, making JE theory noteworthy to test in Ghana. Managerial employees in the banking sector might be embedded in their jobs because of factors such as job security and the anxiety of not obtaining an equal or better job when they leave, especially considering the high rates of unemployment.

2.6.3 Power Distance

This dimension deals with the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organisations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 1980, 2001; House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002). Ghana is considered a high power distance society, which means that people accept a hierarchical order, which in turn is reflected in the amount of formal hierarchy, the degree of centralisation and the

amount of participation in decision-making, in organisations (Hofstede, 1980; Newman & Nollen, 1996). In high power distance cultures, superiors openly demonstrate their rank. Thus, recognition is more important to individuals from a high power distance culture where managers expect that subordinates always take guidance from them. In high power distance countries, people are usually employed through social connections and status rather than merit and experience (Budhwar & Khatri, 2001). Further, power holders in high power distance countries are entitled to privileges (Hofstede, 1980). Although JE theory was conceptualised in a below average power distance culture (i.e., the US), the theory can be used to explain turnover in a high power distance culture like Ghana. This is because individuals from high power distance cultures who occupy managerial positions may have power and authority that earn them more respect, recognition and privileges in the organisation and residential community, and hence enhance their job embeddedness.

2.6.4 Masculinity–Femininity

With this dimension, a high score (i.e., Masculine) represents a society in which people are driven by competition, assertiveness, achievement, heroism, success and material rewards for success. In contrast, a low score (i.e., Feminine) represents a society in which the dominant values are caring for others and quality of life (Hofstede, 2001). On this dimension, Ghana scores 40, that is, relatively Feminine, while the US scores 62, that is, relatively Masculine (Hofstede, 2001). Individuals from feminine cultures value solidarity, prefer flexibility, make decisions through involvement, ‘work in order to live’, strive for consensus and are supportive (Hofstede, 1980). People from feminine countries consider people and the environment as important, and are interdependent (Hofstede, 1980). Further, feminine cultures emphasise the quality of social ties and quality of working life concerns (Hofstede,

1980; Newman & Nollen, 1996). In feminine cultures, people place less importance on failure and sympathise with the unfortunate (Hofstede, 1980). Thus, JE theory should be examined in the context of Ghana because individuals who are shown much more care, concern, love and sympathy in their organisation and community might find it difficult to leave their jobs, especially if moving community is also necessary because of a change of employer.

In conclusion, because culture is distinct and has a significant influence on how individuals become embedded in their jobs, it is important to assess how cultural values in Ghana will affect the operation of JE theory among managerial employees in the banking sector. As noted, the theory was conceptualised in a culture that is significantly different to Ghana. The Ghanaian national culture (as characterised by Hofstede, 1980) incorporates factors that enhance individuals' levels of embeddedness in the organisation and residential community, and thus the theory should be empirically tested in Ghana.

2.7 Institutional Framework

The banking sector in Ghana has several laws, regulations and directives governing its operations, including the *Bank of Ghana Act, 2002* (Act 612) and the *Bank of Ghana (Amendment) Act, 2016* (Act 918). However, because of the focus of the present study, this section focuses on the institutional framework relating to HRM policies and practices in the sector. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) identified three institutional mechanisms (i.e., coercive, mimetic and normative) that influence HRM decision-making. In Ghana, coercive mechanisms that address labour relations and contract of employment are enshrined in the 1992 *Constitution* and the *Labour Act, 2003* (Act 651). The *Constitution* guarantees every

individual the right to work under satisfactory, safe and healthy conditions, receive equal pay for equal work, and form or join a trade union of his or her choice. The importance of the right to form or join a trade union is reiterated and detailed in the *Labour Act*, which provides that every worker has the right to form or join a trade union of his or her choice for the promotion and protection of the worker's economic and social interests. However, Act 651 prohibits certain types of workers, such as policy makers, decision-makers, managers, those holding positions of trust and those performing highly confidential duties from forming or joining trade unions. The *Labour Act* provides that either an employer or employee can terminate a contract of employment at any time. However, the termination should be on fair grounds and in a written notice of termination (i.e., seven days' notice for weekly basis employment, two weeks' notice for employment of less than three years and one month's notice for employment of three years or more), or pay in lieu of notice should be provided. An employee who finds his or her termination of employment unfair (e.g., on grounds of joining a trade union) may refer the matter to the National Labour Commission for remedies, including reinstatement from the date of termination, re-employment or payment of compensation. Social partners such as trade unions have a strong influence on HRM policies and practices in Ghana. Act 651 provides that an employer is required to consult the trade union with respect to dismissal of employees, and on measures to be taken to avert or minimise the termination. Subject to a collective agreement, trade unions are included in determining the terms and conditions of employment of workers, such as remuneration and conditions of work (e.g., hours of work and annual leave). Act 651 also stipulates that five members from organised labour (i.e., trade unions) should be included in the National Tripartite Committee for the determination of the national daily minimum wage.

Under the common law (which is applicable in Ghana), an employer is not entitled to protect itself against mere competition from employees who leave the organisation. However, the employer will be able to enforce such a restraint on the employee if he or she can show that the employee has acquired knowledge of trade secrets (*Herbert Morris Limited v Saxelby* [1916] AC 688). Ghana labour law also makes provision for flexible work arrangements, including temporary, casual and fixed-term contract. Unlike a fixed-term contract, the *Labour Act, 2003* provides a maximum duration of six months of employment for a temporary or casual worker with the same employer, or the worker shall be treated as a permanent worker. Today, temporary or fixed-contract employment has crept into the banking sector in Ghana because redundancy is not associated with severance pay. Additionally, several tax incentives have been introduced in Ghana to enhance business and economic development. To reduce unemployment, the government offered additional deductions for organisations that employed fresh graduates in 2017. That is, 10% for employing less than 1% of fresh graduates, 30% for employing more than 1%, and 50% for employing more than 5% (KPMG, 2018). Rural banks enjoy a tax concessionary rate of 1% on their chargeable income for the first 10 years. In addition, special incentives are offered to organisations that employ persons with disability. The *Labour Act* also prevents an employer from assigning, whether permanently or temporarily, a pregnant woman worker to a post outside her place of residence after the completion of the fourth month of pregnancy, if in the opinion of a medical practitioner the assignment is detrimental to her health.

Further, the intense competition for market share in the sector causes banks in Ghana to adopt mimetic mechanisms, that is, imitations of strategies and practices of competitors as a result of uncertainty or fashionable fads in the field of management (Anabila, Narteh, Tweneboah-

Koduah, & Box, 2012; Paauwe & Boselie, 2003). Related to human resources (HR) policies, banks in Ghana have similar career development, job design, appraisal systems and recruitment procedures. For example, poaching of key staff has become a normal practice among banks in Ghana, which has encouraged banks to adopt practices that are likely to reduce key employees' intentions and decisions to quit. Mobile and online banking are also job designs that have gained momentum in the banking sector, leading to banks that do not engage in these designs being labelled old fashioned and outdated.

Finally, because values and norms that stem from the professionalisation of employee groups within an organisation influence HRM decision-making (Paauwe & Boselie, 2003; Rahaman, Lawrence, & Roper, 2004), banks in Ghana depend on universities (e.g., University of Ghana Business School) and professional training institutions (e.g., Chartered Institute of Bankers) for the development of organisational norms among employees and managers. Bank jobs in Ghana are yet to be institutionalised as a profession through various forms of certification and legislation, such as law and accountancy. In Ghana, banks employ staff with different educational backgrounds and training (e.g., agriculture, biological science), who may not be strongly embedded in the norms and values of banking. Hence, bank jobs in Ghana are not characterised by a high degree of institutionalised professionalisation, which may not limit options for the adoption of different HRM policies and practices. In a highly institutionalised professional group, HRM practices such as training programs, performance-related pay schemes and appraisal systems are often discussed, facilitated or stimulated by members (Paauwe & Boselie, 2003). In sum, the institutional framework in Ghana, and specifically that of the banking sector, will potentially influence managerial employees' levels of embeddedness in their jobs.

2.8 Affectivity Traits

Affectivity is a relatively stable, ongoing dispositional trait in individuals (Levin & Stokes, 1989; Stoeva, Chiu, & Greenhaus, 2002). The seminal work of Watson and colleagues (Watson & Clark, 1984; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) suggested that affectivity is a two-dimensional construct comprising positive affectivity (PA) and negative affectivity (NA). PA refers to a stable dispositional tendency that makes individuals experience a variety of positive activated emotions (Gallagher & Meurs, 2015; Kaplan, Laport, & Waller, 2013; Seib-Pfeifer, Pugnaghi, Beauducel, & Leue, 2017; Watson & Clark, 1984). Watson and Clark (1992) defined it as an individual's fairly stable level of receptivity to positive ecological stimuli and experience of positive feelings. PA individuals have a generalised sense of wellbeing and are predisposed to experience positive emotional states (Burke, Brief, & George, 1993; Greenberg & Baron, 2008). Watson and Clark (1984) asserted that PA individuals have an enthusiasm for life and tend to have a general sense of happiness. An individual can have either high or low PA (George, 1992). High PA people are energetic, enthusiastic, exhilarated, inspired, determined and happily engaged with the world, whereas low PA people are characterised by sadness, listlessness and weariness (Cropanzano et al., 1993; Gilmore, Hu, Wei, Tetrick, & Zaccaro, 2013; Greenberg & Baron, 2008; Heller, Judge, & Watson, 2002; Kahn, Schneider, Jenkins-Henkelman, & Moyle, 2006; Watson et al., 1988).

Conversely, NA refers to a stable dispositional tendency that makes people more susceptible to experience a variety of aversive emotions and distress across time and situations (Penney & Spector, 2005; Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, & de Chermont, 2003; Watson & Clark, 1984, 1988). They not only have a negative view of themselves, but also have a tendency to

dwell upon and magnify mistakes, disappointments, weaknesses and threats (Larsen & Ketelaar, 1991; Seib-Pfeifer et al., 2017; Watson & Clark, 1984). Like PA, an individual can experience either high or low NA (George, 1992). High NA people experience higher levels of discomfort, arousal, agitation, tension, worry, contempt, disgust, upset and pessimism (Barsky, Thoresen, Warren, & Kaplan, 2004; Greenberg & Baron, 2008; Heller et al., 2002; Jeronimus, Riese, Sanderman, & Ormel, 2014; Vasey, Harbaugh, Mikolich, Firestone, & Bijttebier, 2013). Low NA people, in contrast, are fairly calm, secure and satisfied with themselves (Chiu & Francesco, 2003; Greenberg & Baron, 2008; Watson et al., 1988).

2.8.1 Distinction between Positive Affectivity and Negative Affectivity

A number of studies have shown that the dimensions of PA and NA are independent dimensions (George, 1992; Greenberg & Baron, 2008; Judge & Locke, 1993). PA and NA are two unipolar factors that are not dependent on each other (Burke et al., 1993), and they operate through different biological and behavioural mechanisms (Watson, 2000). Therefore, the opposite of PA is not NA, because the dimensions are not opposite poles on the same continuum (Lucas, Diener, & Suh, 1996; Watson & Clark, 1997). A person can be low or high on both NA and PA, or high on one and low on the other (Jain, Malhotra, & Guan, 2012). Although most empirical studies have found that PA and NA do not correlate, Watson, Wiese, Vaidya and Tellegen's (1999) study revealed a weak but persistent inverse correlation between PA and NA.

2.8.2 Effects of PA and NA

PA and NA have been recognised as prominent traits among general dispositional traits (George, 1996; Hough & Schneider, 1996) because they strongly predict work outcomes,

more than any other trait (Thoresen et al., 2003). For instance, although PA and NA are closely linked to extraversion and neuroticism (Burke et al., 1993), they strongly predict job outcomes better than extraversion and neuroticism (Thoresen et al., 2003). Affective event theory proposes that the affective mood of an individual affects his or her emotional reactions to events (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Thus, research indicates that PA and NA are related to job outcomes such as counterproductive work behaviour (Penney & Spector, 2005), work stress (Fredrickson, Tugade, Waugh, & Larkin, 2003) and job satisfaction (Bowling, Hendricks, & Wagner, 2008; Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008). Other empirical studies have shown relationships between the affectivity traits of PA and NA and task performance, OCB (Johnson, Tolentino, Rodopman, & Cho, 2010; Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes, 2009), group decision-making (Kooij-de Bode, Van Knippenberg, & Van Ginkel, 2010), turnover intentions (Chiu & Francesco, 2003) and team effectiveness (Kaplan et al., 2013).

2.8.3 Synthesis

Affectivity traits are stable patterns of dispositional traits that influence the way individuals think and act (Côté, Saks, & Zikic, 2006; Fredrickson, 1998; Watson et al., 1988). That is, individuals with NA think and act differently from individuals with PA because NA often enhances focus and the systematic processing of information, while PA usually boosts optimism, ingenuity and open-mindedness (Forgas, 1995; Isen, 2000; Schwarz & Clore, 1996). Individuals who are high in PA are more likely to report positive emotions, while those high in NA are more likely to report negative emotions (Duffy, Ganster, & Shaw, 1998). The opposite of high NA is low NA, but not high or low PA (Johnson et al., 2010). Given that PA and NA influence peoples' thoughts and actions regarding important work outcomes, such as job satisfaction, task performance and OCB (Johnson et al., 2010; Kaplan

et al., 2009), these affectivity traits are also likely to influence individuals' intentions and decisions to stay in their organisations and residential communities. For example, individuals' positive views about themselves in terms of capabilities and their optimism about easily obtaining a new job may influence their intentions and decisions to continuously stay with their employer (Chiu & Francesco, 2003). Therefore, understanding peoples' affectivity traits would be important in determining the reasons behind their decisions to stay in their jobs.

2.9 Career Stage

An employee's career has generally been segregated into stages in the career development literature (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009) because people, regardless of where they work, have intentions, desires, needs and ambitions that they want to fulfil (Lee et al., 2015; Saari & Judge, 2004). The needs are not the same among individuals within an organisation because of different career stages in which they find themselves (Levinson et al., 1978). This is the principal idea that underpins the career stage theory. The theory states that the effects of variables on work outcomes differ across stages in a person's career (Cohen, 1991; Greenhaus, 1987). Super originally postulated the theory of career stages in 1957. According to Super (1957), individuals, irrespective of their occupational background, go through several stages in their careers. The needs and desires of individuals concerning their employment relationships are unique in each career stage (Carlson & Rotondo, 2001; Kooij & Boon, 2018; Lam, Ng, & Feldman, 2012). The uniqueness of Super's (1957) theory is that it focuses on employees' specific developmental aspirations and personal concerns in different stages.

Researchers do not agree on a definite number of career stages for an individual (George & Jones, 2008). From the perspective of Super (1957, 1980), employees' careers can be categorised into four stages: exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement. Similarly, Quick and Nelson (2009) grouped careers into four stages, namely establishment, advancement, maintenance and withdrawal. George and Jones (2008) described five stages of a person's career, which include preparation for work, organisational entry, early career, mid-career and late career. Other researchers have grouped employees' careers into three stages, which include establishment, advancement and maintenance (e.g., Morrow & McElroy, 1987; Slocum & Cron, 1985). Lam et al. (2012) and Ng and Feldman (2010) also grouped career into three stages: early career, mid-career and late career. This present study has adopted the latter three career stages.

Early career stage: This stage comprises the exploration and establishment stages. Here, individuals are concerned with making the right vocational choice (Low, Bordia, & Bordia, 2016), which often commences with the selection of a job or an organisation (Dowd & Kaplan, 2005; Lam et al., 2012). Early career employees focus on self-discovery by creating an initial professional self-image; they also depend largely on co-worker acceptance and support to fit into their career or organisation (Cron & Slocum, 1986; Miao et al., 2009). They keep options open for alternative employment where there is no career fit (Gibson, 2003; Ng & Feldman, 2010). In addition, early career employees strive to be accepted as competent members of the organisation by building specialised career niches within the organisation and adjusting to work expectations (Greenhaus, 1987; Shen & Hall, 2009). According to Lynn, Cao and Horn (1996), early career employees are largely interested in organisational socialisation, development of professional and organisational competence,

and obtaining peer acceptance. Also, during the early career stage, employees mostly think about how to advance in their career, considering promotion as a primary interest (Cron, 1984). Thus, employees in the early stage of their career are mainly concerned about learning the job, fitting into the organisation and occupation, and increasing their competence (Quick & Nelson, 2009), indicating that the most relevant needs of employees are associated with the work itself and the quality of relationships with other people in the organisation (Gould & Hawkins, 1978).

Mid-career stage: This is the stage where employees are well settled in their career pattern. They focus mostly on preserving their current job position, status and performance level (Flaherty & Pappas, 2002; Gibson, 2003; Hess & Jepsen, 2009), and holding onto earlier career accomplishments (Ng & Feldman, 2007; Shen & Hall, 2009). In the mid-career stage, many people reach the height of career success (George & Jones, 2008), or accomplish some level of both career stability and career success (Gibson, 2003; Super, 1957; Williams & Savickas, 1990). Employees tend not to work harder because their promotion interest has diminished significantly along with the desire for competition (Flaherty & Pappas, 2002; Mehta, Anderson, & Dubinsky, 2000). Mid-career employees focus on security, reduced competitiveness, strengthening the organisation, productivity, maintaining motivation and developing peer relationships (Cron, 1984; Gould & Hawkins, 1978; Lynn et al., 1996).

Late career stage: This is the period during which employees have passed the peak of their career accomplishments (Greller & Simpson, 1999). As a result, they concentrate on other aspects of their lives, such as family and friends, and also begin to think about their retirement (Griffin, Loh, & Hesketh, 2013; Lam et al., 2012; Quick & Nelson, 2009). Low et al. (2016) posited that because late career employees will retire from their organisations soon, they

spend much time and effort preparing for their lives after departing their organisations. Some late career employees are associated with low job performance because they are psychologically separated from their work (Flaherty & Pappas, 2002; Post, Schneer, & Reitman, 2013; Shen & Hall, 2009). Often, they become entrenched in building a stronger self-identity outside their career or organisation, while maintaining an acceptable performance level (Lam et al., 2012; Post et al., 2013; Robson, Hansson, Abalos, & Booth, 2006; Sabharwal, 2013). Thus, late career employees are concerned about keeping their performance at satisfactory levels in order not to become obsolete, and planning for retirement (Greenberg & Baron, 2008).

2.10 Organisational Politics

Politics is a common phenomenon that inevitably occurs in organisations (Abbas et al., 2014; Yuan, Xiao, Li Chen, & Ning, 2016) because organisations are arenas in which individuals have competing interests (Mintzberg, 1985; Quick & Nelson, 2009). Organisational politics refers to “a social influence process in which behaviour is strategically designed to maximise short-term or long-term self-interest, which is either consistent with or at the expense of others’ interests” (Ferris, Russ, & Fand, 1989, p. 145). Mintzberg (1983) defined organisational politics as “informal, ostensibly parochial, typically divisive, and above all, in a technical sense, illegitimate—sanctioned neither by formal authority, accepted ideology, nor certified expertise (although it may exploit any one of these)” (p. 172). Similarly, Rosen et al. (2009, p. 203) described organisational politics as illegitimate and self-serving activities that are often detrimental to the organisation or its employees. Thus, political behaviours are unofficially authorised activities or actions in the organisation that are taken by people to achieve their own personal goals without regard to the wellbeing of other people or their

organisation (Greenberg & Baron, 2003; Quick & Nelson, 2009). These are deliberately orchestrated behaviours of individuals or groups with the primary objective of advancing and protecting their selfish goals, notwithstanding the detrimental effects on other individuals or the organisation (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Kacmar & Baron, 1999). A typical example of organisational political behaviour includes obtaining a promotion or pay increase through favouritism and nepotism (Kacmar & Ferris, 1991). Greenberg and Baron (2008) identified forms of political behaviours in organisations, which include gaining control over and selective use of information, cultivating a favourable impression, building powerful coalitions, accusing and attacking other people, connecting with influential people, and creating obligations and using reciprocity.

2.10.1 Factors Contributing to Organisational Politics

Several factors— both individual and organisational— contribute to political behaviours in organisations. For example, Robins and Judge (2012) suggested that political manoeuvrings in organisations are influenced by both individual factors (e.g., personality traits and investment in organisations) and organisational factors (e.g., downsizing, promotion, scarce resources and a culture characterised by low trust, role ambiguity and unclear performance evaluation systems). According to Greenberg and Baron (2008), personal factors (e.g., Machiavellianism and social chameleon characteristics) and organisational factors (e.g., scarce resources, vagueness in goals and roles, and a history or climate of political activity) are key determinants of organisational political activities. Steers and Black (1994) identified several factors (e.g., ambiguous goals, limited resources, changing technology, a dynamic and complex external environment, nonprogrammed decisions and organisational change) that contribute to organisational politics. Further, organisational factors such as the

performance appraisal process, autocratic decision-making, unclear goals, ambiguous lines of authority, scarce resources and uncertainty stimulate political behaviours in organisations (Quick & Nelson, 2010; Ralston, 1985). Fandt and Ferris (1990) and Ferris et al. (1989) suggested that organisations that are characterised by a reasonably high degree of uncertainty or ambiguity are likely to be prone to political behaviours. Similarly, Kreitner and Kinicki (2010) indicated that uncertainty influences political behaviour in organisations. Examples of uncertainty are unclear objectives, vague performance measures, ill-defined decision-making processes and any type of change.

2.10.2 Perceptions of Organisational Politics

Researchers have considered organisational politics a subjective state rather than an objective reality (Ferris et al., 1989; Gandz & Murray, 1980; Lewin, 1951). From Gandz and Murray's (1980) perspective, political perceptions are the product of many organisational and individual characteristics. Ferris et al. (1989) expanded this notion of political perceptions and developed a ground breaking model, which recognised political perceptions as a product of organisation, job and individual influences. POP has been defined in various ways by several researchers. For example, Kacmar and Ferris (1991) defined POP as "an individual's perceptions of others' political activities (not one's own), such as favouritism, suppression of competing entities, and the manipulation of organisational policies" (p. 203). Similarly, Ferris, Harrell-Cook and Dulebohn (2000) viewed POP as a person's subjective appraisal of the extent to which the organisation is characterised by the self-centredness of individuals and groups at the expense of others in the organisation. Kacmar and Carlson (1997) asserted that how employees perceive the political work environment potentially influences their job attitudes.

POP can be at a high level, that is, serving the interests of only a few individuals while contradicting the overall objectives of the organisation, or at a low level, that is, interests are organisational and not self-focused, for example, openly sharing important work-related information, and normative decision-making procedures (Drory & Vigoda-Gadot, 2010; Hochwarter, Witt, & Kacmar, 2000). In organisations, perceptions of political behaviours occur across all levels (Hochwarter, Kacmar, Treadway, & Watson, 2003). Employees not only spot political behaviour at their level, but also can spot political behaviour at the topmost hierarchy and supervisor hierarchy of the organisation (Quick & Nelson, 2009). Prior studies show high POP among managers (Ferris et al., 1989; Madison, Allen, Porter, Renwick, & Mayes, 1980), as well as among lower level employees (Gandz & Murray, 1980). Kacmar and Carlson (1997) suggested a three-dimensional model of POP. These dimensions are: general political behaviours, where employees are aware that their co-workers are exhibiting political behaviours (e.g., backstabbing); ‘go along to get ahead’, where employees remain silent or ingratiate themselves by consenting to people in power to obtain esteemed outcomes; and pay and promotion, where politics influence the enacted policies of the organisation.

2.10.3 Positive Effects of Perceptions of Organisational Politics

The subjectivity of POP makes individuals view political behaviours as either functional (positive) or dysfunctional (negative; Quick & Nelson, 2009). Those who perceive organisational politics as positive are of the conviction that it stimulates them to strive for success, career advancement, power and greater status (Hochwarter, Ferris, Laird, Treadway, & Gallagher, 2010; Kumar & Ghadially, 1989). According to Treadway et al. (2004), managers who are politically astute may build a great amount of social capital and strong networks that enable them to increase resources that are accessible to employees. Wayne and

Ferris (1990) also argued that a politically motivated work environment helps managers to effectively handle complex problems. Some employees who perceive the organisation as highly political find the use of political strategies more satisfying and report higher levels of job satisfaction when they involve themselves in political behaviour (Quick & Nelson, 2009).

2.10.4 Negative Effects of Perceptions of Organisational Politics

Organisational politics is often considered an aversive and intimidating part of the work milieu that often has a harmful effect on employees' positive work behaviours, because POP activities (e.g., back stabbing and influence tactics) often occur without taking into consideration the welfare of co-workers and the organisation (Fedor, Maslyn, Farmer, & Bettenhausen, 2008; Ferris, Adams, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, & Ammeter, 2002; Kacmar & Carlson, 1997). Quick and Nelson (2009) argued that POP can be quite undesirable when behaviour is tactically undertaken to maximise self-interest. Thus, people are unlikely to pay attention to the concerns of other people if they competitively pursue selfish interests in the organisation (Quick & Nelson, 2009). From the perspective of Kreitner and Kinicki (2010), political behaviours become negative when the self-interests of individuals erode or defeat the interests of the organisation. In a typically highly negative political organisation, individuals are rewarded for engaging in informal influence tactics, such as having ties with high-ranking associates, and taking credit for other individuals' accomplishments (Harrell-Cook, Ferris, & Dulebohn, 1999; Treadway et al. 2005).

Most empirical studies have found that POP is largely a dysfunctional variable because it is positively related to both individual and work detrimental outcomes such as stress, counterproductive work behaviour, absenteeism, organisational deviance, interpersonal conflict and burnout (e.g., Abbas et al., 2014; Chang, Rosen, & Levy, 2009; Ferris et al.,

1996, 2002; Vigoda, 2002). Further studies have shown that increases in POP lead to decreases in organisation performance, internal integration, job satisfaction, productivity, OCB, organisational commitment, meeting personal and career goals, and job involvement (Abbas et al., 2014; Chang et al., 2009; Chang, Rosen, Siemieniec, & Johnson, 2012; Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Harris, Andrews, & Kacmar, 2007; Miller, Rutherford, & Kolodinsky, 2008; Thornton, Esper, & Autry, 2016; Treadway et al., 2005).

2.10.5 Distinction between Organisational Politics and Perceptions of Organisational Politics

The literature seems to concentrate extensively on perceived political behaviours, rather than actual political behaviours (Ferris et al., 1993). This is because the latter occasionally denotes delusions of actual events (Blickle et al., 2013), which largely emanates from the former (Ferris et al., 2002). Further, people's behaviours are often based on their perceptions of reality (Ferris & Kacmar 1992; Ferris, Frink, Galang, Zhou, Kacmar, & Howard, 1996). Ferris et al. (1989) argued that the concept of POP is an appropriate measure of organisational politics. Gandz and Murray (1980) also asserted that organisational politics is a state of an individual's mind. In line with these assertions, this study focuses on POP, rather than organisational politics.

2.10.6 Synthesis

Political behaviours are naturally part of an organisation, and are triggered by an individual's self-interest, purposefully to obtain resources at the expense of others (Beugré & Liverpool, 2006; Rosen et al., 2009). Perceptions of behaviour are different from actual behaviours, but assessment of perceptions is more valuable than assessment of actual behaviours because perceptions of reality usually trigger a person's behaviours (Ferris et al., 1989, 1996). POP

can be functional or dysfunctional, but either depends on the subjectivity of an individual because individuals who benefit from organisational politics may perceive it as functional, while individuals who do not benefit from political behaviours in organisations may perceive it as detrimental (Drory & Vigoda-Gadot, 2010; Quick & Nelson, 2009). However, research focuses more on dysfunctional POP because of their detrimental effects on work outcomes, such as stress, and lowered organisation performance (e.g., Abbas et al., 2014; Chang et al., 2012). Given the high POP among managers (e.g., Ferris et al., 1989), it is a worthwhile line of inquiry to determine how perceptions of high dysfunctional organisational politics might influence managerial employees' decisions to stay in the organisation or leave.

2.10.7 Summary

This chapter reviewed the literature relating to the relationship between JE and turnover, and the potential moderators of affectivity traits, career stage and POP. The chapter began with a review of the concept 'turnover' and the costs and benefits of employee turnover, before providing an overview of the phases of development that turnover research has undergone. Following this, the chapter reviewed literature on JE theory to provide a detailed understanding of the theory. It was apparent in the literature review that JE is a unique construct that has two dimensions (i.e., organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness), and three sub-dimensions (links, fit and sacrifice), which predict employee turnover, and non-turnover outcomes such as task performance and life satisfaction. Further, the reviewed literature showed that JE is theorised as a state of abundant resources that people strive to obtain, maintain and protect, but people's perceptions of JE vary because of different cultural backgrounds. That is, national culture influences an individual's job embeddedness and therefore JE theory should be tested for its applicability to different cultural contexts.

Therefore, the chapter discussed Ghana's national culture and institutional framework in the banking sector, which might substantially influence people's job embeddedness and hence intentions to leave. The chapter also reviewed literature on the concept 'affectivity traits', and after that proceeded with a review of the concept 'career stage', the differences between PA and NA, and the effects of PA and NA on work outcomes. Finally, the chapter reviewed the literature on the concept 'organisational politics', and then the literature on POP. It was obvious from the reviewed literature that a distinction exists between actual politics and perceptions of politics, and that the latter usually triggers the former. In the next chapter, I outline the development of the research hypotheses for the direct relationship between JE and turnover intentions and the three potential moderators of the proposed relationship, and I illustrate the hypothesised relationships in a research conceptual framework.

CHAPTER 3: HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In the previous chapter, I reviewed studies relating to the concepts, constructs or variables used in this study. In this chapter, I review theoretical and empirical literature that helped develop, explain, support and justify the hypotheses to achieve the purpose of the present study. The purpose was to test JE–turnover intentions relationships in banks located in Ghana and examine the potential moderating roles of affectivity traits, career stages and POP in the proposed relationships. In this chapter, I also construct a conceptual framework that graphically represents the concepts or variables to be researched, and the relationships among them. Thus, this chapter presents the conceptualisation of a model that reflects factors affecting turnover in Ghana’s banking sector. The model was operationalised to explore the applicability of JE theory and to examine the three variables that have potential moderating effects on key employees’ job embeddedness. The research conceptual framework is important because it provides direction for the next stage of the research process, which includes formulating the research design and methods.

3.1 Hypotheses Development

3.1.1 Relationship between Job Embeddedness and Employee Turnover

Several studies have demonstrated the relationship between JE and employee turnover. (Appendix 1 contains a summary of results of key studies that have examined the relationship between JE and turnover intentions). Mitchell and colleagues (2001) found a significant negative relationship between JE and actual turnover after controlling for job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job alternatives and job search. Similarly, Tanova and Holtom

(2008) found that JE incrementally predicted employee turnover beyond that predicted by demographic variables, desirability of movement and ease of movement. Li, Lee, Mitchell, Hom and Griffeth's (2016) study showed that JE more strongly influenced the intent to leave and job search behaviour of enthusiastic stayers and leavers than of reluctant stayers and leavers. In Thailand, Afsar, Shahjehan and Shah (2018) sampled 343 frontline employees of four- and five-star hotels and found that organisation embeddedness was significantly and negatively related to turnover intentions.

A further study by Felps et al. (2009) showed a negative relationship between JE and voluntary turnover. Khorakian, Nosrati and Eslami's (2018) study sampled the views of 618 female employees working in travel agencies and found a significant negative relationship between JE and intention to quit. Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) also sampled US employees from a wide variety of industries and occupations, their supervisors and their closest co-workers and found a negative relationship between JE and intentions to leave. Coetzer et al.'s (2017) study in large and small organisations showed that JE predicted turnover intentions in large organisations but not in small organisations. A further study by Holtom and Inderrieden (2006) showed that JE incrementally explained the variance in turnover intentions above and beyond what was explained by gender and job satisfaction. Ferreira, Martinez, Lamelas and Rodrigues (2017) sampled hotel employees in Portugal and found a significant and negative relationship between JE and turnover intentions. In Iran, Karatepe (2013a) collected data from 174 full-time frontline employees in four- and five-star hotels within a two-week time lag and reported a significant and negative relationship between JE and turnover intentions. Crossley et al. (2007) developed and tested a global,

reflective measure of JE and reported that JE predicted voluntary turnover beyond job attitudes.

It is apparent from the above studies that JE is an important construct that predicts employees' turnover intentions and voluntary turnover, because employees who are embedded in their jobs do not intend to leave their jobs. The results of previous studies show that JE has increased the explained variance in employee turnover more than attitudinal variables and job alternatives. Since peoples' embeddedness in their jobs influences their intentions and decisions to leave their jobs, in the present study, it was important to consider whether there are factors relating to JE in Ghana that are likely to cause employees to be embedded in banking jobs and eventually lower their intentions to quit their jobs.

Ghana is a collectivist society where employees interact with and depend on others for support and assistance (Hofstede, 2001). Thus, people believe in, revere, uphold and adore ties with family and friends. In a collectivist culture, individuals usually are more intimate with their friends and co-workers (e.g., sharing personal information); prefer closer, fewer and more long-term links (Sinha, 1997; Triandis et al., 1990); and emphasise the values of belongingness, harmony and cooperation (Triandis, 1995). Living in family houses (mostly with extended family members) is a common practice in Ghana (Nukunya, 2003) and young women are traditionally and religiously not permitted to move out unless they are married, while some young men are reluctant to relocate because their family is rooted in the community. People typically make important lifetime decisions by considering the impact on their family and friends. Thus, because of the culture of collectivism, employees in Ghana are likely to build strong ties in their residential communities (e.g., with friends and family)

and workplaces (with co-workers and supervisors), which encourage them to be embedded in their jobs.

A bank job is a highly desirable job for many Ghanaians, especially young graduates, because of the attractive reward packages (e.g., salary, loans with no or negligible interest, allowances) that accompany it (Delle, 2013; Nyukorong, 2014; Sarpong, 2016). Thus, employees' personal interests and values are likely to match with corporate interests and values because banks in Ghana, through training, help develop the skills and capabilities of their staff (Hinson et al., 2010).

In addition, employees in the banking sector may be embedded in their jobs because of their church affiliation and recreational facilities (e.g., football fields). Pokimica et al. (2012) argued that "religious institutions have an enormous presence in virtually every part of Ghana and most visibly in their physical infrastructure, but more importantly in their integration into daily lives of most Ghanaians" (p. 63). Thus, a change of job that requires relocation of their residential community is likely to be declined by employees in Ghana's banking sector, who often engage in church activities and programs. Further, Ghanaians are very passionate about sports, particularly football (Darby & Solberg, 2010), such that many male youths play football in their schools and communities. Thus, employees in Ghana's banking sector are less likely to leave communities where there are better football pitches (which is not common in all communities), where they can participate in games with their family and friends. Finally, given the benefits that employees enjoy from their banks, which is uncommon in other employment sectors in Ghana, employees may be embedded in their jobs because leaving means sacrificing these benefits. Similarly, employees who love their community because their families are happily living there, they have good friends there and they engage

in local church activities may be embedded in their jobs, because leaving means sacrificing these benefits. Thus, consistent with the foregoing arguments, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 1a: Job embeddedness will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

Studies have also examined the relationships between the JE dimensions of organisation embeddedness and turnover, and community embeddedness and turnover, and found mixed results in the relationships. Ramesh and Gelfand (2010), in their study of call centre workers based in the in US and India, found that organisation embeddedness predicted turnover beyond and above job satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceived job alternatives and job search. However, Ramesh and Gelfand (2010) found no significant relationship between community embeddedness and turnover. Similarly, drawing on a sample of 181 employees in small and medium size enterprises located in two provinces of Thailand, Ampofo, Coetzer, Susomrith and Rermlawan (2017) found that organisation embeddedness, but not community embeddedness, predicted turnover intentions. Also, drawing on a sample of 497 employees in small and medium enterprises located in Perth, Western Australia and South Africa, Coetzer, Inma, Poisat, Redmond and Standing (2019) found that organisation embeddedness predicted turnover intentions. After analysing data from 204 self-initiated expatriates working in public healthcare organisations in the United Arab Emirates, Hussain and Deery (2018) found that organisation embeddedness predicted turnover intentions but community embeddedness did not. In two leading Southeast Floridian financial institutions, Mallol et al. (2007) validated the JE construct as a predictor of voluntary turnover. The authors found that organisation embeddedness predicted turnover intentions and voluntary turnover (after controlling for job satisfaction and organisational commitment) for employees in culturally diverse companies. Drawing on a sample of 643 full-time employees at 3 points

in time over a 12-month period in a wide range of organisations in Japan, Peltokorpi et al. (2017) also found that organisation embeddedness was a predictor of turnover intentions. Lee et al. (2004) reported that community embeddedness negatively predicted employee turnover and absences, but organisation embeddedness did not predict turnover intentions. A meta-analytic study by Jiang et al. (2012) on 65 independent samples showed that both organisation and community embeddedness were negatively related to turnover intentions and actual turnover. Further, after analysing data from 205 automobile employees, Harris et al. (2011) found that organisation embeddedness was a significant predictor of turnover intentions and actual turnover. After analysing data from 259 newcomers in a large financial services organisation, Allen (2006) found that organisation embeddedness significantly predicted turnover. Drawing on a sample of 1,189 government agency employees and 346 nurses at a hospital in the US, Dawley and Andrews (2012) found that organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness significantly predicted turnover intentions. In a recent study, Munyon, Madden, Madden and Vigoda-Gadot (2019) found that community embeddedness during unemployment negatively predicted intentions to leave upon re-employment.

The results of these earlier studies show that community embeddedness is not a stable predictor of turnover intentions, despite the country culture, particularly individualism and collectivism, of samples. For example, community links (a dimension of community embeddedness) did not predict turnover among samples drawn from the US, but predicted turnover in India, suggesting the importance of social relationships to collectivists (Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Mallol et al. (2007) found that Hispanics, who are considered mainly collectivists, were more embedded in their communities compared with Caucasians, who are considered mainly individualists. However, Lee et al. (2004) found that community

embeddedness predicted turnover in an individualistic culture. Robinson et al. (2014) also found that community links predicted turnover intentions among hotel frontline employees in Australia, an individualistic country. Although the United Arab Emirates is a collectivistic country, Hussain and Deery's (2018) finding that community embeddedness did not predict turnover intentions was related to only expatriates, who may have different cultural backgrounds. The question for the current study is will community embeddedness predict turnover intentions in Ghana, a collectivistic country? Despite the mixed results, the cultural values of study participants from collectivistic countries are more likely to lead to community embeddedness cues (Georgas et al., 1997; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010; Sinha, 1997). Organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness can separately influence individuals' intentions and decisions to stay in their jobs (Feldman et al., 2012). Thus, employees may be embedded in their jobs because of on-the-job factors, but not off-the-job factors (and the inverse is true).

Below, I draw on COR theory to explain the relationships between the JE dimensions of organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions, and community embeddedness and turnover intentions, because individuals who have abundant resources within an organisation and in the community, strive to protect and retain those resources, rather than sacrifice them upon quitting their jobs (Hobfoll, 2011). Organisations offer employees several resources, such as training and development opportunities, salaries, perks, bonuses, defined benefits and social support. Because resource losses have painful impacts on employees, which are greater than the benefits of resource gains, employees with more resources in the organisation will be motivated to protect and retain their current resources in the organisation (Hobfoll, 2001, Hobfoll et al., 2018). Thus, employees who have more resources in the organisation will be

embedded in their organisation and think less about leaving, because leaving will be associated with giving up valued resources (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001, 2011; Mitchell et al., 2001).

In Ghana, because banks offer employees abundant resources such as high salaries, training and development programs, post-retirement medical care, long service awards, promotional opportunities and social support (e.g., Agbozo, Owusu, Hoedoafia, & Atakorah, 2017; Hinson et al., 2010), managerial employees are more likely to experience a higher level of embeddedness and subsequently report lower turnover intentions. Further, because people must invest resources to gain additional resources (Hofboll, 2001), managerial employees are likely to acquire additional resources in the organisation. For example, bank employees in managerial positions in Ghana can use their resources, such as social ties to power holders within the organisation, to acquire additional resources, such as promotion and higher salaries. Although poaching of key employees is common in the banking sector, employees with more resources in their current organisation will feel reluctant to change jobs because they know some resources are non-portable (e.g., defined pension benefits, post-retirement medical care) and difficult to replicate in other organisations (e.g., social support from peers and supervisors; Mitchell et al., 2001).

As conceptualised by Mitchell and colleagues (2001), the community also plays an important role in an individual's job embeddedness, and intentions and decisions to leave his or her job. Several resources, such as family ties, can cause an employee to become embedded in the community (Mitchell et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2012). Given the strong religious beliefs of most Ghanaians (Pokimica et al., 2012; Salifu Yendork, & Somhlaba, 2017), managerial employees who actively participate in church activities and do not want to change their place of worship might find it difficult to relocate geographically. This is because they might fear

forfeiting valued resources like strong ties with church members. Also, because most communities in Ghana do not have basic infrastructure and social amenities such as health centres, playgrounds, recreational areas, good schools, theatres, shopping centres and good roads, managerial employees who live in communities that have these resources may well be embedded in their jobs and report lower turnover intentions because of their reluctance to move to another community. Additionally, collectivists (e.g., Ghanaians) are typically more intimate with their friends and prefer closer and more long-term relationships (Lo et al., 2012). This means that managerial employees will strive to protect and retain their relational resources to fulfil their belongingness needs (Wellman & Wortley, 1990; Wiseman, 1986) by living in communities where most of their family and friends live. Thus, bank employees in managerial positions in Ghana might not risk losing their long-term friends by accepting job offers that require changing the community in which they live, because friends are more likely to be lost after leaving a community (Gillespie, Lever, Frederick, & Royce, 2015; Gonzalez, Ragins, Ehrhardt, & Singh, 2018). Consistent with the previous empirical studies and COR theory, I hypothesise that:

Hypothesis 1b: Organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

Drawing on COR theory, I argue that bank employees in managerial positions in Ghana will be highly embedded in their jobs in order to obtain, protect and retain valued resources in the organisation and community. Thus, employees who have strong interpersonal ties in the organisation will be embedded in their jobs because leaving will be associated with forfeiture of instrumental support from peers, such as obtaining help to complete a task, and emotional support from supervisors, such as listening, showing sympathy and concern (Brough & Pears,

2004; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007). Also, employees who have strong ties with people in higher positions in the organisation are likely to obtain other resources, such as advancement opportunities, perks and bonuses. Community factors, especially family and friends, are instrumental in individuals' embeddedness in their jobs (Crowe, 2010; Flaherty & Brown, 2010). Additionally, Gonzalez et al. (2018) found that employees with strong ties to friends and family were attached to their communities and reported lower turnover intentions. In addition, employees who have many and strong relational ties in the community might receive tangible support with childcare, intangible support in terms of leads for good medical care and socio-emotional support in times of family emergencies (Ng & Feldman, 2013).

Further, managerial employees who have a better fit within the organisation and community are likely to think less about leaving their jobs, in order to protect their sense of belongingness resource (Hobfoll, 1989). Thus, people become more attracted to and think less about leaving an organisation with which they perceive a close match (Ampofo, Coetzer, Susomrith, et al., 2017; Elfenbein & O'Reilly, 2007). For example, employees who perceive that their skills and knowledge are recognised and utilised in the organisation may feel valued, and hence they will stay in the organisation. Also, because individuals who are a good fit within an organisation have a better understanding of the organisation, they are likely to meet their job's demands, which will result in obtaining additional resources such as higher salary, promotion and perks that they would fear forfeiting if they were to leave (Chang, Chi, & Chuang, 2010; Kiazad et al., 2014; Lievens, Decaestecker, Coetsier, & Geirnaert, 2001). In addition, employees who love the culture of a particular community, such as the food, dance, shared beliefs and language, are likely to remain in their jobs in order to retain the sense of community belongingness resource. Regarding sacrifice, individuals who have several

resources in the organisation (e.g., defined pension benefits, perks) and in the community where they live (e.g., safe neighbourhood, access to employer-provided day care facilities) are likely to stay in their jobs because they would have to give up these valued resources upon leaving (Ampofo, Coetzer, Susomrith, et al., 2017; Mitchell et al., 2001). Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) described changing jobs as a risky investment in resources because a person with more organisational benefits to sacrifice must find a very good or better alternative organisation that is worth the resource investment. A study by Ampofo, Coetzer, Susomrith, et al. (2017) showed that fit, links, and sacrifices in the organisation predicted turnover intentions. In a recent study, Coetzer et al. (2019) found that each component of organisation embeddedness (fit, links, and sacrifice) was significantly and negatively related to turnover intentions.

In Ghana, banks increase employees' perceptions of fit through substantial investment in training programs and socialisation processes such as holding annual fun games, including football and tug-of-peace (Hinson et al., 2010). Because a bank job is highly valued in Ghana (Nyukorong, 2014; Sarpong, 2016), managerial employees, given their status, are likely to earn significant respect in the community and build strong relationships with other influential members in the community. Thus, it is hard for managerial employees to leave a community where people love, like or respect them. Given the stiff competition for market share in Ghana's banking sector, banks encourage and sustain teamwork as a key operational strategy to obtain competitive advantage (Anabila et al., 2012). Despite the friendly and welcoming culture of Ghanaians (Dull, 2004; Hoftsede, 2001), not all employees necessarily transfer this generic culture into their organisation. Banks in Ghana also offer significant benefits, such as defined benefits (e.g., long service award, post-retirement medical care), to managerial

employees, which might be sacrificed upon leaving. Some banks in Ghana offer perks that improve employees' private lives, such as vehicles provided by the company for travel to and from work, educational scholarships for employees' children and medical care covering employees' families, which employees will find difficult to give up if they leave their organisation. Because of their respect and preference for close and long-term social ties with friends and family members, Ghanaians in managerial positions in the banking sector will find it hard to change jobs if that will result in forfeiture of relational resources. In addition, Ghanaians believe in the phrase that "it takes a village to raise a child". Therefore, managerial employees will find it difficult to relocate to a new community where they will not have the support of key community members such as parents, siblings and close friends who will support the upbringing of their children. Consistent with the tenets of COR theory, I hypothesise that:

H1c: Job embeddedness sub-dimensions of links, fit and sacrifice will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

3.1.2 Moderators of the Job Embeddedness–Turnover Intentions Relationship

Scholars have called for the expansion of the relationship between JE and turnover intentions. For instance, Jiang et al. (2012) asserted that future studies should consider examining multiple moderators concurrently and additional moderators in the relationship between JE and turnover. Lee et al. (2014) also strongly urged researchers to replicate and extend the main ideas in the JE–turnover relationship, rather than extend JE to other outcome criteria. In this regard, the present study examined three potential moderating variables (i.e., affectivity traits, career stages and POP) in the relationship between JE and turnover intentions. In the following paragraphs, both theoretical and contextual justifications are

provided for the effects of these potential moderators on the relationship between JE and turnover intentions.

3.1.2.1 Moderating Role of Affectivity Traits

Because affective dispositions moderate an individual's responses to what he or she perceives as negative or positive events (Holtom, Burton, & Crossley, 2012), a high NA individual, for example, would be inclined to respond more strongly to negative events (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In line with this assertion, Crossley et al. (2007) indicated that people's tendencies and cognitive frames may influence their overall perceptions of job embeddedness. According to these researchers, high NA people may underestimate the number of job alternatives or their (i.e., NA people) worth to potential employers, thus influencing the degree to which they feel embedded in their jobs (Crossley et al., 2007). An empirical study revealed that unsuccessful job applicants compared with their successful counterparts, among other factors, reported less self-esteem and much more pessimism about their chances of success in the labour market (Schaufeli & Vanyperen, 1993). In addition, high NA people may fail to impress prospective employers during job interviews because they may show less confidence, underestimate their abilities and hold self-fulfilling views about unsuccessful job interviews (Barrick, Patton, & Haugland, 2000; Crossley & Stanton, 2005), thereby feeling embedded in their present job. Further, Crossley and Stanton (2005) indicated a direct, inverse relationship between NA and job search success (i.e., number of offers and employment status). In contrast, the high self-esteem and optimism that characterise high PA people may make them feel less stuck to their jobs. Research has demonstrated that high PA people tend to be more self-assured in their abilities to re-establish themselves elsewhere (e.g., Staw & Barsade, 1993). Feldman et al. (2012) asserted that high

PA people are more likely to make friends in their neighbourhoods and communities, thereby making them feel more embedded off the job. From a different perspective, because affectivity traits are stable predispositions of people (Kaplan et al., 2013; Watson & Clark, 1984), high PA people who likely make friends in their current environment may replicate that behaviour in a different environment, making them feel less stuck to their current job.

A high rate of unemployment and job search continues to be dominant in contemporary Ghana (Baah-Boateng, 2013, 2015; Sackey & Osei, 2006). Unemployment particularly is high among graduates (Asamani & Mensah, 2013; Delle, 2013) and in urban settlements because people often migrate from rural areas to urban centres in search of non-existing jobs or better economic prospects, which are not easy to come by (Baah-Boateng, 2015). The high unemployment rate in Ghana may influence high NA employees to stay in their jobs because there are already a limited number of job alternatives or because of a large pool of prospective job applicants who may be more competent than them (Benson, 2014; Sackey & Osei, 2006). Moreover, the reward packages (e.g., salary, allowances) offered to employees in the Ghana banking sector may influence their decisions to stay in their jobs (Amediku, 2008). For example, the number of labour strikes and agitations for improved conditions of service by employees in other sectors of the Ghanaian economy (Asamoah, Osei-Kojo, & Yeboah-Assiamah, 2013) are hardly experienced in the banking sector, causing high NA employees to underestimate other sectors' capacity to offer them similar or better reward packages. Consistent with the foregoing arguments, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 2a: Affectivity traits will moderate the job embeddedness and turnover intentions relationship.

Hypothesis 2b: The job embeddedness–turnover intentions inverse relationship will be weaker among high PAs relative to low PAs.

Hypothesis 2c: The job embeddedness–turnover intentions inverse relationship will be stronger among high NAs relative to low NAs.

3.1.2.2 Moderating Role of Career Stages

Research has suggested that employees' job embeddedness varies across different career stages. The early stage of an employee's career is important for organisations because it is a transitional stage where newcomers usually go through organisational socialisation (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1997, 2000; Wanous & Reichers, 2000). Newcomers who succeed in the process become significant members of the organisation, whereas unsuccessful newcomers become disillusioned and may leave for another organisation that could better meet their expectations (Vandenberghe, Panaccio, Bentein, Mignonac, & Roussel, 2011). Feldman and Ng (2007) asserted that until early career employees find a job they fit in with, they will continue to experiment with their careers in different organisations, which makes them consider organisation embeddedness unappealing. The fit dimension is more precious to early career employees than any dimension (Miao et al., 2009; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Studies have shown that almost half of employee turnover is recorded in the first year of service in the organisation (Price, 1977; Wanous, 1980).

Also, some mid-career employees are embedded in their jobs because they may see no reason to sacrifice what they have over the years worked hard for (e.g., current status) by starting afresh in a new career or organisation (Slocum & Cron, 1985). From the perspective of Gibson (2003), the main concern of mid-career employees is to preserve their self-concept and hold on to career achievements. Mid-career employees, having settled well in their career

patterns or reached the pinnacle of their career in the organisation, do not work harder anymore to obtain promotion (Cron, 1984; Flaherty & Pappas, 2002), but they may have to work harder again to settle well in a different organisation. Ng and Feldman (2008) posited that individuals in the mid-career stage often have a level of job performance that has peaked and levelled off. They added that the “levelling off can signify an individual’s sense of professional satisfaction and a comfort level with career stability” (p. 342).

Moreover, late career employees become embedded in their community because they develop stronger interpersonal ties with family and friends and do not intend to explore new opportunities (Carstensen, Pasupathi, Mayr, & Nesselroade, 2000; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). According to Feldman et al. (2012), late career employees become embedded in their jobs not because they intend not to explore further opportunities but because they have fewer opportunities in the external labour market. Research has shown that older employees are more likely to stay in their jobs than younger ones (e.g., Peltokorpi et al., 2015). Also, Ng and Feldman (2010) reported that mid-career and late career employees are more embedded in their jobs than early career employees.

Nonetheless, there is a distinction between career stage and JE. For example, employees who changed jobs five years before their expected retirement may not be embedded in their jobs, but still consider themselves to be late career employees. Moreover, many turnover decisions do not require individuals to leave their neighbourhood (Allen, 2006). Thus, because late career employees are close to retirement and want to spend more time with family and friends (Lam et al., 2012; Low et al., 2016), they may move to jobs that offer perks such as more vacations, better pension benefits and longer sick leave. In an industry where there is a shortage of highly experienced workers, late career employees may be excited to re-enter the

labour market if a prospective employer can offer more perks to poach them from their current organisation (Lam et al., 2012). Specifically, late career employees may think about quitting their jobs if local labour markets offer abundant job prospects such that leavers can find jobs without relocating to another community (Allen, 2006). In contrast, recent university graduates who work in their jobs for five years may become embedded in the job but still consider themselves to be early career employees (Ng & Feldman, 2010). Research indicates that early career employees will keep experimenting with their careers in different organisations until they find the right fit for themselves (Feldman & Ng, 2007; Super, Savickas, & Super, 1996). Thus, early career employees are less likely to think about quitting their jobs if they have a good fit with their jobs (Gibson, 2003).

In the Ghanaian context, new entrants who were attracted to the banking sector because of the benefits associated with the job may leave if they do not experience a good fit with the organisational values and goals. The fierce competition for employment opportunities in the banking sector (Biekpe, 2011) leads banks to expect new entrants to adjust quickly to the organisation's processes, which may change the beliefs of newcomers towards the characteristics of a bank job. Thus, because bank jobs in Ghana are characterised by conditions such as long hours, work overload, unreasonable work targets (especially monthly money targets for mobile bankers), inflexible leave provisions, and early-to-work and late-to-home schedules (e.g., Dartey-Baah & Ampofo, 2015; Dwomoh & Korankye, 2012), new entrants who cannot adjust to these conditions may be less embedded in their jobs. Also, although poaching of key employees is a common practice in the banking sector (Mathisen & Buchs, 2005), mid-career employees may find it difficult to leave their jobs, because to settle well in another work milieu might be difficult and take a longer time. Further, mid-

career employees are likely to be embedded in their jobs because Ghanaians are risk averse (Hofstede, 2001). Thus, many Ghanaians prefer comfortability, making it hard for them to sacrifice their current enviable status in the organisation to start their career in another organisation. Finally, Ghanaians place enormous importance on family (especially the extended family system) and friends' support and assistance (Ohemeng, 2009), making late career employees in the banking sector less likely to sacrifice the stronger interpersonal bond with family members and friends for a job in another community. Consistent with the foregoing reasoning, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 3a: Career stages will moderate the job embeddedness and turnover intentions relationship.

Hypothesis 3b: The job embeddedness–turnover intentions inverse relationship will be stronger among mid- and late career employees relative to early career employees.

3.1.2.3 Moderating Role of Perceptions of Organisational Politics

Employees' POP as either positive or negative can potentially influence their embeddedness in their jobs and thus turnover intentions. Ferris et al. (1989) identified three main potential responses of employees to POP: (1) quitting the job, (2) staying but refusing to engage in politics and (3) staying and engaging in politics. In a politically charged organisation (i.e., organisations where employees are rewarded for taking credit for the work of others, that engage in informal influence tactics such as impression management, and that seek to influence high-ranking allies), employees who decide not to participate in politics are more likely to quit than employees who decide to engage in politics (Harrell-Cook et al., 1999; Treadway et al., 2005). Political behaviours in organisations are generally fostered by a

scarcity of resources (Mehta, 2013; Steers & Black, 1994) and individuals often collaborate in order to compete for their allocation (Rosen, Ferris, Brown, Chen, & Yan, 2014).

Consistent with COR theory, POP is viewed as a source of resource loss for employees, because valued resources that employees anticipate may be lost. COR theory proposes that individuals are motivated by their desire to obtain, protect and retain their esteemed resources (Hobfoll, 2002, 2011). COR theory also proposes that negative outcomes occur when the resources of a person are forfeited or threatened, or return on invested resources is below expectations (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993). Because instrumental resources enhance individuals' capability and readiness to respond to resource loss, employees with strong relational ties with co-workers and supervisors, and a better fit with organisational values, will less likely leave their jobs, because they can use those resources to secure resources gain (Kiazad et al., 2014; Mitchell et al., 2001). For example, individuals with strong ties to managers at higher organisational levels are likely to obtain resources, such as promotion, increased salary and perks (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Kiazad et al., 2014; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). Also, because individuals who have a good fit with the organisation have a better understanding of the organisational values, needs and interests, they are likely to meet job demands, which will help them secure rewards, such as higher pay and promotion (Kiazad et al., 2014; Kiazad et al., 2015). However, employees who perceive the political work environment as creating a threat to or loss of resources are likely to elicit a strain response, such as turnover intention (Ferris et al., 1989; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). For example, a person whose promotion is on hold for a long time or given to another person because of political influence may feel threatened or experience loss of a resources, which would threaten his or her job embeddedness. Prior researchers have suggested that employees who

perceive incongruent allocation of resources become jealous, resentful and disengaged in their jobs (e.g., Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010; Parker, Dipboye, & Jackson, 1995), and they therefore called for fairness in resource allocation to prevent employees considering quitting (Byrne, 2005). Thus, valued resource loss or threats as a result of perceived dysfunctional workplace politics may ruin employees' relational ties and minimise their fit, because a perceived highly political organisation may be a scene for higher levels of antagonistic work behaviours, such as threats, arguing with co-workers and gossiping (Cheng, 1983; Cropanzano et al., 1997).

Nevertheless, it could be argued that POP is an antecedent of embeddedness within the organisation because a person who does not like the organisational politics would not feel a sense of fit. POP, however, was not considered a 'fit' item when JE theory was conceptualised. *Fit* refers to how an employee's personal values, career goals and plans match with the larger corporate culture and the demands of his or her immediate job (Mitchell et al., 2001). Therefore, employees will leave their firms when they perceive incongruence between their personal values and corporate values. Also, a dislike for organisational politics does not mean one does not fit with the organisation, because people who perceive political behaviours in an organisation may either quit their job, remain in their job but refuse to be involved in political behaviours, or remain with the organisation and become involved in political behaviours (Ferris et al., 1989).

Additionally, Gorgievski and Hobfoll (2008) argued that an abundance of resources develops both engagement and embeddedness. Therefore, individuals who are highly embedded in their jobs as a result of sacrificing more valued resources (e.g., perks, allowances) by leaving the organisation will be intrinsically motivated to conserve those resources and acquire

additional resources by not leaving the organisation (Hobfoll, 2001; Kiazad et al., 2015; Mitchell & Lee, 2001). However, loss or threatened valued resources resulting from POP is likely to influence the organisational embeddedness of an individual with intrinsic resources, such as salary, bonuses, promotion and retirement benefits (Kiazad et al., 2014; Kiazad et al., 2015; Mitchell et al., 2001). This is because the perceived manipulative and self-serving interest of others may cause employees to forfeit valued resources (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Hobfoll & Lilly, 1993). For example, an employee may be demoted, have promotion delayed, or lose his or her job as a result of political machinations in the organisation. Because individuals are intrinsically motivated to protect their valued resources, loss of those resources is likely to lead to them being less embedded in the organisation, thereby influencing their turnover decisions (Kiazad et al., 2014; Kiazad et al., 2015).

Further, the COR notion of resource investment suggests that individuals who actually forfeit resources, or are threatened by resource loss without replenishment, will be inspired to invest remaining resources (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007; Wheeler et al., 2012). That is, resources from one domain can be used to replace lost resources in another domain (Halbesleben, 2006; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008). Thus, embedded employees may have more resources to endure job resource losses (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). For example, a person who fits in a job and receives support from co-workers and supervisors may not think about quitting the organisation because of delayed promotion or demotion resulting from POP. However, POP, conceptualised as environmental stressors, may motivate employees' intentions to quit their jobs if they are unable to cope with stressors (Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009; Ferris et al., 1989, 1996; Hang-Yue, Foley, & Loi, 2005). In other words, in a highly politically motivated organisation, employees who are not politically astute or not ready to cope with politics may

find it hard to restore valued resource losses, such as pay cuts and demotions (Treadway et al., 2004). Thus, POP may influence organisational embeddedness if individuals who perceive high dysfunctional organisational politics feel that their knowledge, skills and competences do not fit with the organisation after a promotion is awarded to others, their links with others in the organisation are too limited and weak to obtain resources, and the benefits they unfairly sacrifice to others in the organisation are similar to the benefits they may sacrifice if they leave the organisation.

In organisations with perceived low level of political behaviours, individuals are less likely to forfeit resources to, or have resources threatened by others. People may experience less stress in two ways. First, individuals may develop higher feelings of security for their acquired ample work resources, such as perks and benefits, since the pain that arises from resource loss is greater than the pleasure that arises from similar resource gain (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Second, when people perceive low level of political behaviours in the organisation, they are less likely to go through the stress of becoming politically astute in order to protect their current resources and acquire new resources. Thus, in organisations where politics is perceived as low, people with greater valued resources are more likely to retain those resources due to perceived fairness in the organisation, thereby minimising their intentions to leave, since leaving may lead to forfeiture of accumulated valued resources (Lee et al., 2004).

In Ghana, employees of many organisations, including banks, face competition for limited resources. To obtain a larger portion of scarce resources, many people in Ghana build strong interpersonal ties with people in higher authorities or possessors of resources. The local parlance of 'who you know' or 'who knows you' (i.e., nepotism) is engrained in

contemporary Ghana (Nyukorong, 2014). The parlance simply means that people, regardless of their status, cannot progress their career unless they know a ‘magnate’ at the top to expedite it, or the reverse. Thus, individuals who people in authority know, or who know people in power, often find ways to advance their careers. However, people lose confidence in organisations in Ghana, which leads to the pessimistic conclusion that what matters is not merit, but who you know (Woode, 1997). This parlance is prevalent in Ghanaian organisations during hiring, promotion and resource allocation decisions (Ayentimi, Burgess, & Brown, 2018; Nyukorong, 2014). Another commonly known feature among Ghanaians is the syndrome of ‘pull him down’ (i.e., prevent others from achieving their goals; Akosah-Sarpong, 2004; Zoure, 2016), or ‘tall poppy’ (i.e. cutting down high achievers or successful people to size; Feather, 1989; Motion, Leitch & Brodie, 2003) which is likely to be worse in a politically motivated work environment. Further, the high level of uncertainty (e.g., unclear objectives, vague performance appraisal system and ill-defined decision-making processes) characterising many Ghanaian organisations may increase the perceptions of political climate in organisations. Based on focus group discussions with Ghanaian senior civil servants, Bawole, Hossain, Domfeh, Bukari and Sanyare (2013) argued that the performance appraisal system needs an overhaul because leaders rarely pay needed attention to it; it is deficient of objectivity; it is fraught with spirituality, fear and superstition; appraisers are seldom trained; and people become keenly interested in it during promotion-related interviews. Consistent with the foregoing arguments, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 4a: POP will moderate the organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions relationship.

Hypothesis 4b: The organisation embeddedness–turnover intentions inverse relationship will be weaker when POP is high relative to when POP is low.

3.2 Conceptual Framework

Figure 3.1 illustrates the conceptual framework that contains the concepts or variables, and the relationships among them. In Figure 3.1, the conceptual model is theoretically bounded by JE and its extension through moderator variables. From a practical perspective, the conceptual framework attempts to find an antidote to the major issue of key employee's turnover in Ghana's banking sector. Thus, the conceptual framework graphically presents the reasons key employees may intend to leave their organisations. In Figure 3.1, the conceptual model shows four basic relationships. The first relationship is the direct relationship between JE and turnover intentions, which denotes hypothesis 1 (as formulated in this chapter). In Figure 3.1, JE is shown to comprise two separate components, that is, organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness. Thus, a person may be embedded in his or her job as a result of organisation factors, but not community-job factors, and the inverse is also true. Additionally, each dimension of JE comprises three further dimensions—that is, links, fit and sacrifice. This represents that the forces of links, fit and sacrifice embed people with the organisation and in the community. Accordingly, I conceptualise that there are relationships between organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions, and community embeddedness and turnover intentions. In sum, the conceptual framework indicates that there are direct relationships between composite JE and turnover intentions; organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions; and community embeddedness and turnover intentions.

Figure 3.1 also illustrates three moderator variables that potentially influence the relationship between JE and turnover intentions, which are the three remaining relationships in this study. The first moderator variable is affectivity traits. Figure 3.1 reflects that affectivity traits potentially moderates the relationship between composite JE and turnover intentions, which denotes hypothesis 2 (as formulated in this chapter). Figure 3.1 also reflects that affectivity traits are conceptualised as PA and NA. In this study, the moderating effects of PA, and NA were distinctively determined in the relationship between composite JE and turnover intentions. The purpose was to determine which of the traits potentially or better embeds key employees in their jobs such that they do not think about leaving.

The second moderator variable in Figure 3.1 is career stage. Figure 3.1 illustrates the potential moderating role of career stage in the relationship between JE (as a composite construct) and turnover intentions, which denotes hypothesis 3 (as formulated in this chapter). In Figure 3.1, career stage is conceptualised as early career, mid-career and late career. Thus, I examined the relationship between composite JE and turnover intentions across each career stage in this study. The purpose was to determine which career stage potentially or better influences key employees' embeddedness in their jobs such that they report lower turnover intentions.

Figure 3.1 shows the third moderator variable, which is POP. The figure shows the potential moderating role of POP in the relationship between organisational embeddedness and turnover intentions. In Figure 3.1, this relationship denotes hypothesis 4 (as formulated in this chapter). The purpose of exploring this relationship was to determine how perceived negative workplace politics affects the embeddedness of key employees in their organisation and their intentions of leaving their current organisation.

Finally, Figure 3.1 reflects the potential effects of control variables in the relationship between JE and turnover intentions. As conceptualised in the model, and consistent with prior research on JE, I controlled for the effects of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and perceived job alternatives in this study. Finally, the potential effects of six demographic variables were controlled for in the relationship. These demographic variables were age, gender, education, marital status, years of employment in the organisation and years of employment in the industry. The decision to control for the potential effects of these demographic variables was informed by prior JE research.

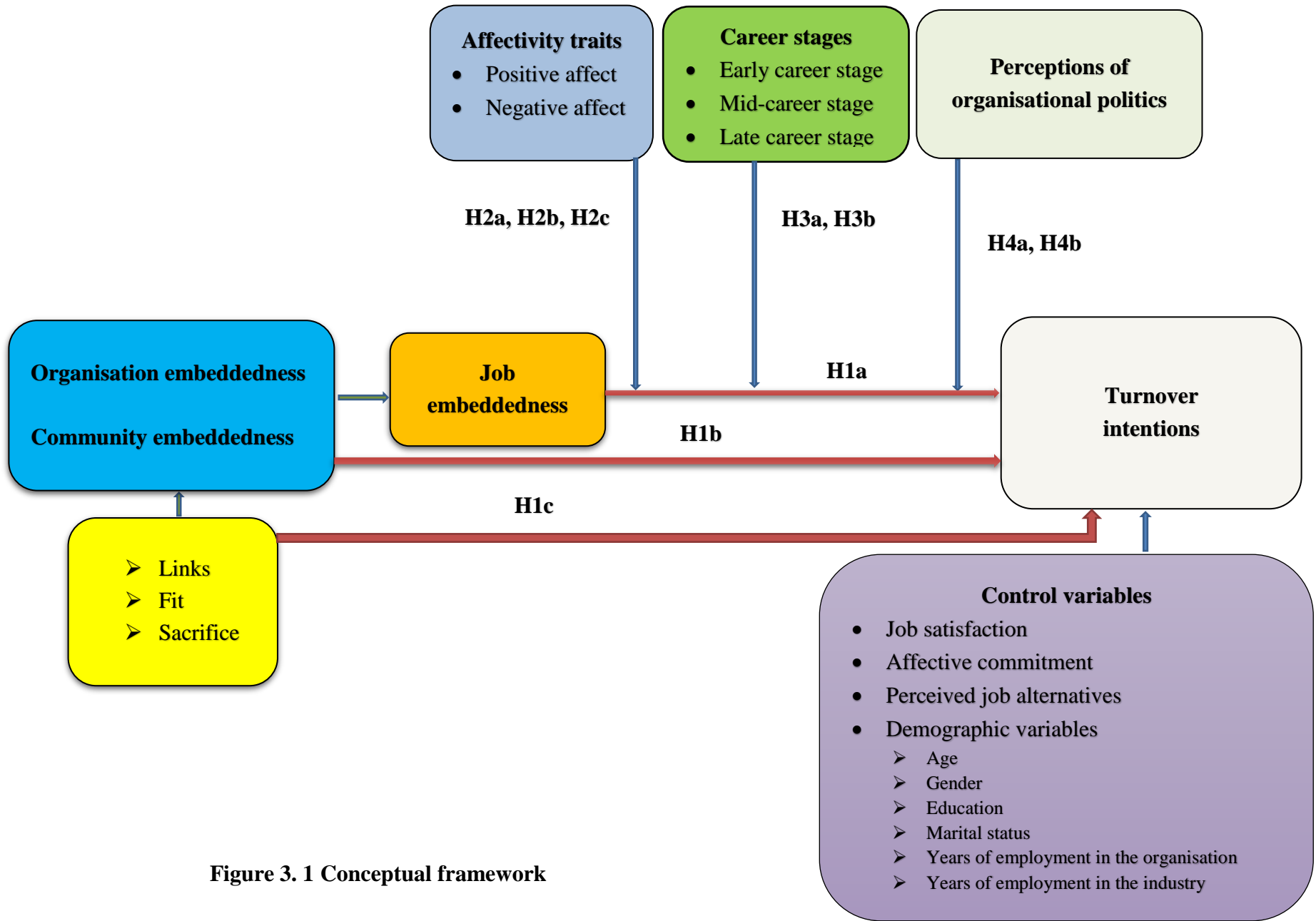


Figure 3. 1 Conceptual framework

3.3 Summary

In this chapter, I focused on developing arguments to support the research hypotheses in the present study. Drawing on previous empirical evidence and the characteristics of Ghana's national culture, I argued that JE and its dimensions (i.e., organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness) and sub-dimensions (i.e., links, fit and sacrifice) will lower turnover intentions among bank employees in managerial positions in Ghana. In developing my arguments on the hypotheses, I also drew on COR theory to explain managerial employees' embeddedness and turnover intentions in the banking sector. I argued that managerial employees in the banking sector will have many and strong social ties (e.g., supervisors, co-workers, friends, family), a strong sense of fit with their organisation and residential community, and significant benefits (e.g., defined pension benefits, family ties) in the organisation and residential community, which they will be motivated to protect and retain. Further, I made arguments for the potentially moderating effects of the three variables (i.e., affectivity traits, career stage and POP) on the proposed relationship between JE and turnover intentions among managerial employees in the Ghana's banking sector.

Following the exposition of these arguments, I presented a conceptual framework, which contains the hypothesised relationships in this study. In the framework, I conceptualised that there are relationships between composite JE and turnover intentions, dimensions of JE and turnover intentions, and sub-dimensions of JE and turnover intentions. I also conceptualised moderating effects on the JE–turnover intentions relationship of three variables. Finally, I conceptualised that job satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceived job alternatives and six demographic characteristics potentially influence the relationship between JE and turnover intentions. Therefore, I controlled for their effects on the hypothesised relationships

in the present study. In the subsequent chapter, I outline the research design and the research methods to be used for the operationalisation of the conceptual framework in order to achieve the purposes of this study.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to draw on the conceptual framework presented in the previous chapter and explicate how this study progressed from thoughts at a theoretical level through to the operational level. Figure 4.1 provides an overview of the thesis structure and highlights the organisation of material in this chapter. As shown in Figure 4.1, this chapter is divided into three sections. In the first section, I outline the research strategy, including analysis of the research paradigms and justification for choosing the post-positivism paradigm, and quantitative and cross-sectional research designs. Next, I outline the research context, then proceed to describe the population of the study. I close this section with an outline of the sample and sampling procedure used in this study. In the second section, I focus on the data collection techniques, including data source, design and operationalisation of the questionnaire, challenges encountered during operationalisation of the questionnaire, pre-testing the questionnaire and ethical considerations. In the final section of this chapter, I outline the measurement instruments used to assess the constructs in this study.

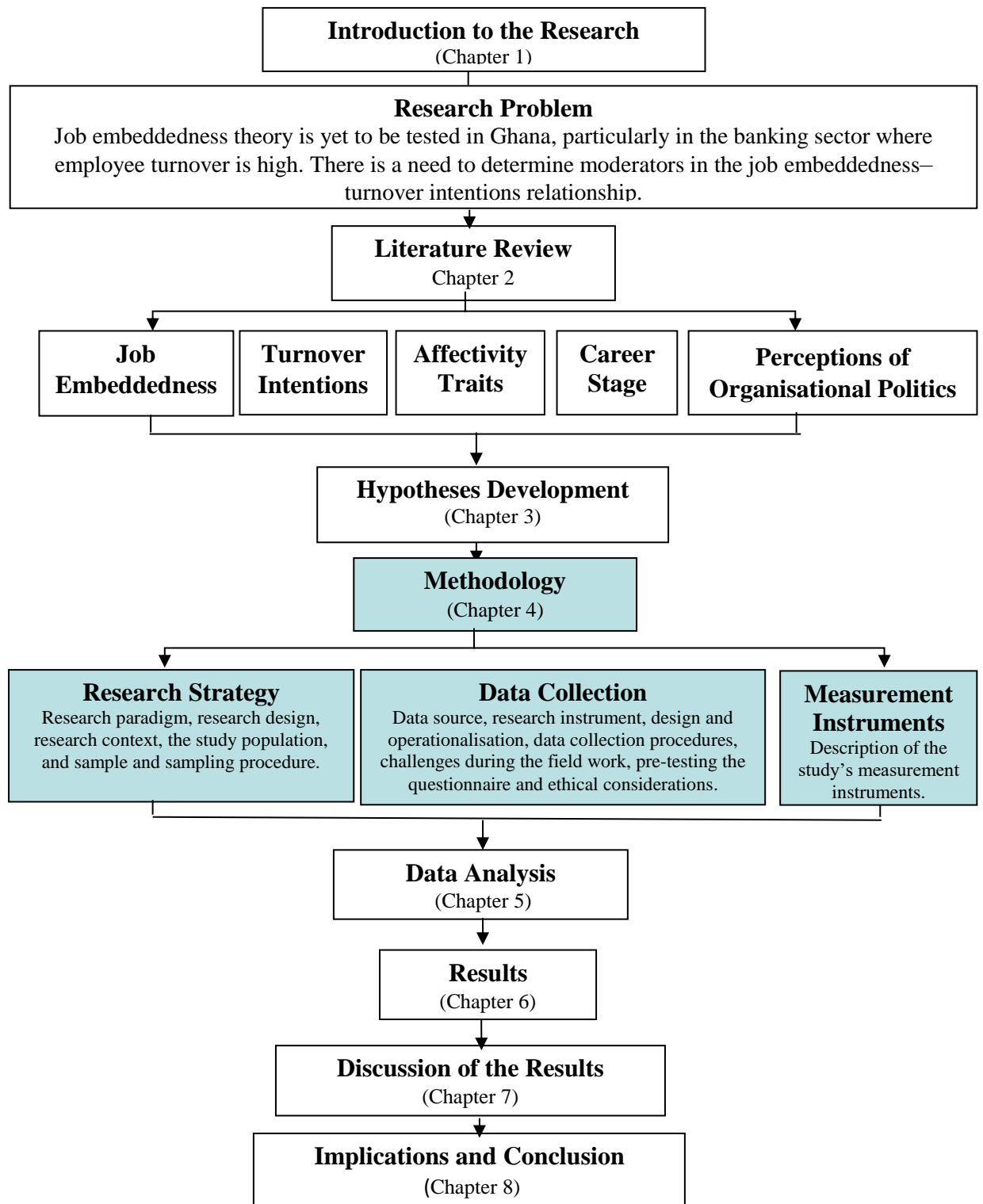


Figure 4. 1 Research procedures

4.1 Research Strategy

4.1.1 Research Paradigm

A research paradigm is a broad framework that consists of a set of perceptions, values, beliefs, techniques and understandings of common theories and practices commonly shared by fellows of a scientific community, guiding them on how to undertake research, or dictating to them the kinds of problems they should address or explain (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2013; Kuhn, 1970). Jonker and Pennink (2010) defined a research paradigm as a set of fundamental assumptions and beliefs about how the world is perceived, which then serves as a thinking framework that guides the behaviour of the researcher. Creswell (2009), instead of using the term ‘paradigms’, prefers the concept ‘worldview’ because it describes a general orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher holds. Although mostly implicit in several studies (Slife & Williams, 1995), paradigms significantly affect the kind of research people carry out. Creswell (2009) argued that “the types of beliefs held by individual researchers will often lead to embracing a qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods approach in their research” (p. 6).

Research paradigms have been classified in several ways. According to Creswell (2009), there are four classifications of a paradigm: post-positivism, constructivism, advocacy or participatory, and pragmatism. Post-positivists assume that causes will probably determine effects or outcomes (Creswell, 2009). Such researchers strongly believe in the objectivity of their findings (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). Post-positivists “hold that meaning, and therefore meaningfully reality, exists as such, apart from the operation of any consciousness” (Crotty,

1998, p. 8). Further, post-positivists are more aligned with quantitative research because it involves the testing of theories that exist in the relationship among variables (Creswell, 2009). For constructivists, to understand the world in which we live, there is a need to adopt subjective meanings of our experiences, which are “meanings directed towards certain objects or things” (Creswell, 2009, p. 8). The variety and multiplicity of these meanings lead the researcher to search for complexity of views, rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas (Creswell, 2009). Constructivists emphasise participants’ views of the situation being studied (Creswell, 2009). From the perspective of the advocacy or participatory worldview, research investigation needs to be entwined with both politics and a political agenda (Creswell, 2009). Such research contains an action agenda for reform that may change the lives of the participants, the institutions in which individuals work or live and the researcher’s life (Creswell, 2007). Lastly, pragmatism focuses on making investigations based on research problems instead of methods, and adopts all available approaches that seek to provide solutions to the problem (Creswell, 2009; Patton, 1990). In the sub-section that follows, I explore which of these paradigms was most suited to achieve the purpose of this study.

The present study was underpinned by post-positivism assumptions because post-positivism is usually employed in quantitative studies, rather than qualitative studies (Creswell, 2009). Further, because this study examined the nexus between JE and turnover intentions, it was more appropriate to take a post-positivism view because such researchers identify and assess the variables that influence outcomes (Creswell, 2009). Post-positivists also believe that

scientific researchers start a study with a theory, then collect numeric data that either support or reject the theory, and later make necessary revisions before additional tests are made (Creswell, 2009). The present study was premised on JE theory, and a structured questionnaire was used to collect numerical data for analyses. Additionally, post-positivists advance relationships among variables and produce results by testing hypotheses (Creswell, 2009). However, they believe that there is no truth because knowledge is conjectural, thus research hypotheses are not proved, but rather confirmed or rejected (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). In this study, I examined ten hypotheses, and their confirmation or rejection were contingent on the results.

4.1.2 Research Design

Research design is “a plan that describes how, when and where data are to be collected and analysed” (Parahoo, 1997, p. 142). Yin (2003) described research design as an action plan to get from here (i.e., a set of questions to be answered) to there (i.e., a set of answers). In this study, I employed quantitative and cross-sectional research designs. In the sub-sections that follow, I explain these research designs in detail.

4.1.2.1 Quantitative Research

Quantitative researchers make use of questionnaires and experiments to gather data that are revised and tabulated in numbers for statistical analysis (Hittleman & Simon, 1997). In this study, I used structured questionnaires for data collection. The questionnaires sought participants’ responses on questions relating to JE, turnover intentions, POP, affectivity

traits, career stages, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and perceived job alternatives. Because quantitative research explains phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods (Creswell, 1994), in this study, I analysed data collected with three mathematical software programs — Microsoft Excel (2016), Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS; version 25) and analysis of a moment structures (AMOS; version 25).

Another important characteristic of quantitative research is to control for alternative explanations (Babbie, 1990; Creswell, 2009). In this study, I controlled for the confounding effects of variables (i.e., job satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceived job alternative, gender and age) on the relationship between JE and turnover intentions. Control variables are a special type of independent variables that potentially influence the dependent variable, to the extent that they inhibit the true influence of the independent variable on the dependent (Creswell, 2009). Further, quantitative research is characterised by testing hypotheses (Creswell, 2014). In this study, I tested a total of six hypotheses (see Table 4.1).

Table 4. 1 Tested hypotheses

Hypothesis 1a	Job embeddedness will be negatively related to turnover intentions.
Hypothesis 1b	Organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness will be negatively related to turnover intentions.
Hypothesis 1c	Job embeddedness sub-dimensions of links, fit and sacrifice will be negatively related to turnover intentions.
Hypothesis 2a	Affectivity traits will moderate the job embeddedness and turnover intentions relationship.
Hypothesis 2b	The job embeddedness–turnover intentions inverse relationship will be weaker among high PAs relative to low PAs.
Hypothesis 2c	The job embeddedness–turnover intentions inverse relationship will be stronger among high NAs relative to low NAs.
Hypothesis 3a	Career stages will moderate the job embeddedness and turnover intentions relationship.
Hypothesis 3b	The job embeddedness–turnover intentions inverse relationship will be stronger among mid- and late career employees relative to early career employees.
Hypothesis 4a	Perceptions of organisational politics will moderate the organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions relationship.
Hypothesis 4b	The job embeddedness–turnover intentions inverse relationship will be weaker when perceptions of organisational politics is high relative to when perceptions of organisational politics is low.

4.1.2.1.1 Moderation

A key aspect of this study, and a feature of quantitative research, was to examine the role of three moderators (i.e., affectivity traits, career stages and POP) in the relationship between JE and turnover intentions. Because moderator variables are not just selected to influence a bivariate relationship (Baron & Kenny, 1986), it is imperative to justify the choice of the three moderator variables employed in the present study. Moderation occurs when a third variable is introduced and believed to affect the relationship between two variables (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013; Dawson, 2014). Baron and Kenny (1986) defined a moderator as a qualitative or quantitative variable that influences the direction and/or strength of the relationship between a predictor variable and a criterion variable. The moderator should intervene in a bivariate relationship, where its presence either increases or decreases the relationship (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In this study, I introduced the variables ‘affectivity traits’, ‘career stages’, and ‘POP’ in the relationship between JE and turnover intentions. In chapter two, I made the case that introducing any of the three variables in the JE–turnover intentions relationship would either increase or decrease the relationship. Thus, the proclivity of the JE—turnover intentions relationship to either increase or decrease is dependent on affectivity traits, POP and career stages. For instance, because high NA employees may underestimate their capabilities, show less confidence, and hold self-fulfilling views about unsuccessful job interviews, they are more likely to embed in their jobs, and eventually to intend not to leave their jobs (Barrick et al., 2000; Crossley & Stanton, 2005). High PA employees, conversely, may be less embedded in their jobs and intend to leave because their attitudes of high self-esteem and optimism might assure them of their ability to re-establish themselves in different jobs (Staw & Barsade, 1993).

POP may also increase or decrease the organisation embeddedness–turnover intentions relationship. Employees who perceive organisational politics as a negative feature of the workplace may feel threatened by their too-limited links in the organisation to obtain resources (such as promotion). Thus, they become less embedded in their jobs and intend to leave because they may consider the benefits they have unfairly sacrificed are similar to the benefits they would sacrifice if they quit their jobs. Finally, because mid-career employees have settled in their career patterns, and late career employees focus on developing stronger interpersonal ties with family and friends, they may be more embedded in their jobs and intend not to leave them (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Early career employees, in contrast, may not be embedded in their jobs and may intend to leave when their skills, knowledge and abilities do not fit into the organisation (Feldman & Ng, 2007). Thus, they are more likely to search for jobs that best match their skills and capabilities if they perceive a mismatch in their current workplace.

Further, because a moderator does not contribute to or correlate with an independent variable (Evans & Lepore, 1997; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), I conducted an extensive literature review to determine whether a relationship has been established between the predictor variable (i.e., JE) and any of the three moderators. In my review, I found that previous research had not established that the moderators were antecedents of JE, or vice versa. Thus, the decision to use career stages, affectivity traits and POP as moderators was supported by previous studies, that is, they do not contribute to or correlate with JE.

Theoretically, it could be argued that POP could be considered an antecedent of organisational embeddedness, because employees who do not like political behaviours in organisations may not fit in the organisation. However, it is important to note that POP is not

a component of the ‘fit’ dimension in JE. Mitchell and colleagues (2001) conceptualised ‘fit’ as a person’s personal values, career goals and plans that must match the larger corporate culture and the demands of his or her current job, including job knowledge, skills and abilities. Thus, people leave their organisation when their personal values are incongruent with corporate values. However, people who dislike organisational politics may fit in the organisation because they may have options— that is, quit, or stay and be involved in politics, or stay and not be involved politics— even when their personal values are congruent with corporate values. Thus, POP was considered a moderator in this study.

Finally, researchers place much emphasis on interaction effects in moderation. J. Cohen et al. (2013) suggested that the moderation effect is characterised by statistical interaction between the predictor variable and moderator variable. Dawson (2014) described the interaction as the heart of testing moderation. In this study, all moderator variables were examined to determine their interaction with the predictor variable (i.e., JE). A significant relationship between the interaction term (i.e., product of moderator variable and predictor variable) and criterion variable (i.e., turnover intentions) was used to confirm their moderating effect in this study. Graphs were also used in the present study to explicitly show the interaction between a moderator variable and a predictor variable, and their influence on the criterion variable.

4.1.2.1.2 Shortcomings of Quantitative Research

In this sub-section, I discuss the shortcomings associated with using a quantitative research approach. A key pitfall of quantitative research is its inability to explore the meanings of people’s experiences or views about a particular issue (Guba & Lincoln, 1994), because there is no such thing as objective fact, but rather reality is socially constructed through meanings

and interpretations, and people's interactions with events (Creswell, 2009; Walsham, 2006). Further, quantitative research statistically tests hypotheses and makes inferences based on the significance of the test (Creswell, 2014). However, statistical inferences cannot be considered completely accurate regarding the hypotheses, especially in the case of small samples, because inadequate samples can undermine the accuracy of findings in quantitative research (Kothari, 2004; Sale, Lohfeld, & Brazil, 2002). Thus, samples must be adequately large to ensure greater accuracy (Kothari, 2004). To overcome the pitfall of small sample size, in this study, I obtained samples that were accurate and adequate for quantitative analysis.

4.1.2.2 Cross-sectional Research

Cross-sectional design produces a 'snapshot' of a population at a particular point in time (L. Cohen et al., 2013). Thus, data are usually collected at the same time (Reaves, 1992). In this study, I collected data from bank employees in managerial positions in Ghana at the same time. I used a three-week time interval to separate the administration of the two questionnaires. In the Time 1 questionnaire, I assessed participants' views on demography, JE, career stages, affectivity and job satisfaction. In the Time 2 questionnaire, I assessed participants' views on organisational commitment, perceived job alternatives, turnover intentions and POP. In this study, I purposefully used the two questionnaires to control for CMB (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Also, the two questionnaires assessed participants' views on different constructs at the time. Thus, they did not measure the same constructs more than once. However, data from cross-sectional designs are incompatible with research questions that covertly or overtly deal with change or causality, or tests that require either measurement of some variables more than once, or manipulation

of one variable that is subsequently connected to another (Bono & McNamara, 2011). Thus, it will be difficult to draw any causal inferences from the findings of this study, because of the use of cross-sectional design.

4.1.3 Research Context

As indicated in chapter 2, the context of this study was Ghana, a multicultural society, which is entrenched in the belief of the extended family system and religion (Bodomo et al., 2009; Langer, 2010; Pokimica et al., 2012). Specifically, this study focused on the banking sector in Ghana, which has characteristics that potentially influence the job embeddedness of employees in managerial positions. The banking sector, as in many developed countries, contributes significantly to the economic growth of Ghana. Banks in Ghana offer lucrative reward packages to employees, which increase the desire of individuals, especially young graduates, to obtain bank jobs (Dwomoh & Korankye, 2012; Sarpong, 2016). For example, besides paying defined benefit contributions such as provident funds and an end-of-service benefit, banks in Ghana offer high wages and salaries, cash bonuses, several allowances (e.g., fuel, rent and canteen allowances), and loans at low, negligible or concessionary rates to employees (e.g., Fidelity Bank [Ghana], 2017; Guaranty Trust Bank [Ghana], 2017; Sarpong, 2016). Banks in Ghana also cover the medical expenses of employees and their immediate family (usually nuclear family members). Some banks expand employees' health cover to include some members of the extended family, particularly parents, because in Ghana people's core responsibility include supporting and meeting the needs of their extended family members (Acquaah, 2011; Takyi & Gyimah, 2007). Banks in Ghana also invest significantly in training and development of employees to ensure that they obtain competitive advantage through employees better understanding their roles and responsibilities, and

updating their skills and knowledge to enhance operational procedures and practices (e.g., Antwi, Opoku, Seth, & Margaret, 2016).

In addition, banks in Ghana foster employees' socialisation processes in the organisation through annual fitness and fun games, such as football, volleyball and athletics, which also bring together employees from other branches of the bank. Through such socialisation processes, employees can share their work experiences and knowledge with other organisational members, which should increase employees' perceptions of fitting in with the organisation (Allen, 2006; Rollag & Cardon, 2003). To show appreciation to employees for their hard work and contributions towards the organisation's annual goal achievement, some banks in Ghana organise awards and celebration programs for their employees (e.g., Fidelity Bank [Ghana], 2017). Moreover, the awards night serves as a platform for employees to build stronger links with other employees in the organisation. Some banks in Ghana also offer a long service award to their employees who have completed periods of uninterrupted service in the organisation. Additionally, banks in Ghana create promotion opportunities for employees, and some banks have instituted committees that oversee matters relating to employees' promotion (Antwi et al., 2016; Hinson et al., 2010). In conclusion, because of the characteristics of the banking sector in Ghana coupled with the national culture, it was important to test the applicability of JE theory.

4.1.4 The Study Population

A study's population refers to the number of all units of the phenomenon to be investigated that exists in the area of investigation (Kumekpor, 2002). In this study, the population comprised employees in Ghana's banking sector. Specifically, the study's population boundary comprised employees in managerial positions in the banking sector. The population

was chosen from banks because banks make significant contributions to Ghana's gross domestic product, thus forming a buoyant pillar of the country's economy (Anabila & Awunyo-Vitor, 2013; Ghana Statistical Service, 2014). Further, the population comprised managerial employees, because Ghana's banking sector is characterised by competition for skilled and experienced employees, which results in poaching and employee turnover (Ghana Banking Survey, 2014; Mathisen & Buchs, 2005). In addition, because the primary objective of this study was to find ways to reduce employee turnover, it was appropriate to find a sector in Ghana where employee turnover was a significant concern. Although jobs in Ghana's banking sector are attractive and rewarding to many people, statistics show that there are high levels of employee turnover (e.g., ADB, 2017) because of factors such as heavy workloads, long working hours without overtime pay, and unreasonable work targets (Dartey-Baah & Ampofo, 2015; Dwomoh & Korankye, 2012). Bank employees who leave their jobs can join other equally attractive and rewarding sectors, such as telecommunications, mining, insurance and energy (particularly oil and gas), in which jobs offer attainable work targets, manageable workloads and normal working hours. As a consequence, there are other reasons people leave their bank jobs, and thus JE theory is important to examine in this context because it focuses on both on-the-job factors and off-the-job factors to explain why people stay in their jobs and do not consider leaving them.

4.1.5 Sample and Sampling Procedure

As noted above, participants were bank employees in managerial positions in Ghana. However, participants were drawn from selected banks in Ghana. I used the 2014 edition of the *Ghana Club 100* (i.e., an annual compilation of the top 100 companies in Ghana to give due recognition to successful enterprise building) to select the banks because it is a

recognised platform for excellence and achievement that many revered and prudent organisations in Ghana endeavour to be listed on. Although the *Ghana Club 100* (2014 edition) list included rural and commercial banking companies, in this study, I drew participants from only commercial banks because commercial banks are usually big organisations (in terms of capital, technology, branches and staff) in Ghana, and they provide more attractive reward packages to employees than rural banks. There were 19 commercial banks listed on the *Ghana Club 100* (2014 edition). Of the 19 commercial banks, I collected data from 14 banks because senior management of the remaining 5 banks did not wish to participate in the survey.

In this study, I sampled participants purposively because of the unique skills, knowledge and competences they possessed, which a bank would wish not to lose to any rival bank. Managers performed such key roles in the banks as providing leadership, hiring and training new staff, participating in critical decision-making, acting as the face of the organisation in a community, and facilitating and approving major financial transactions. Banks do not want to lose managers who perform these roles to a high standard. In addition, I sampled participants purposively because of the small number of managers in the organisations, so that those available would be captured in the present study. Thus, the aim of using purposeful sampling in this study was in line with Leedy and Ormrod's (2010) assertion that purposeful sampling is used for selecting people (or other units) for a particular purpose. It enables the researcher to consider the purpose of the research and select samples accordingly (Coyne, 1997). However, there are shortcomings of purposeful sampling, which include intentionally selecting samples to achieve expected results, and insufficient variation in a sample (Koerber & McMichael, 2008). With these shortcomings in mind, the sampling procedure must ensure

maximum variation and no predetermined results. In this study, I addressed the pitfalls through analysis of participants' demographic profile, including age, gender, years of employment in the organisation and industry, marital status and level of education.

In the present study, I drew managerial bankers from the headquarters and various branches of the selected banks in four regions (Greater Accra Region, Ashanti Region, Eastern Region and Northern Region). Greater Accra region and Ashanti region were chosen because they are the two biggest cities in the country, with more bank branches. More specifically, I drew more participants from the national capital, Accra, because it is the central business city of the country and thus houses the head offices, and many branches of the banks are located there. I drew managerial employees from banks in the Eastern region and Northern region to understand the embeddedness of participants in communities, which lack many basic amenities and infrastructures.

However, in this study, I made some exclusions. First, I excluded senior management members because of factors (e.g., status, decision-making power, very generous reward packages) that ensure they rarely leave their jobs. In addition, I precluded departmental managers at the various branches in this study because an employee with a managerial title (e.g., customer relations manager) in a branch is not recognised as a manager in the entire organisation's hierarchy.

I personally contacted branch managers in the regions, with the assistance of some key contacts who were in the human resource department and other key positions in the selected banks. Although there were different numbers of management members at the selected banks,

I administered questionnaires to as many accessible managers as possible to increase the response rate. In this study, I sampled 374 managerial employees.

4.2 Data Collection

In this section, I provide the source of data, and explain how the data were collected in this study. I also discuss the pre-test analysis of the questionnaire. Finally, I outline the ethical considerations pertinent to this study.

4.2.1 Data Source

In this study, I collected data from primary sources. Primary data are first-hand data that the researcher collects from the actual site where the events took place for a specific research objective (Sekaran, 2000). In this study, I used a questionnaire to collect primary data.

4.2.2 Research Instrument

As noted above, the questionnaire was the main research instrument that I used to collect data in the present study. Specifically, I used the structured and closed-ended questionnaire to collect data in this study because it is an efficient data collection instrument if the researcher knows exactly what is required and how to measure the interested variables (Sekaran, 2000). I also used the questionnaire method in this study because it is a quick and generally inexpensive means to obtain a large number of data (Nieswiadomy, 2012). In addition, I used the questionnaire for data collection in this study because it can enable participants to remain anonymous, which may increase the honesty of responses (Nieswiadomy, 2012).

Nevertheless, there are some pitfalls associated with using questionnaires, including frequent low response rates, socially desirable responses, non-responses to the questions and lack of

opportunity to clarify participants' understanding of items (Nieswiadomy, 2012). To overcome these shortcomings of using questionnaires, I provided organisations and participants with information letters to inform and motivate them to participate in the study. Such information explained to participants that the study sought to address concerns, such as turnover intentions, that were pertinent to them. In this study, two questionnaires were used with a three-week time lag. The main purpose for using two questionnaires at two different times was to minimise CMB (Podsakoff et al., 2003). That is, participants' responses on items on the Time 1 questionnaire would not influence their responses on items on the Time 2 questionnaire.

4.2.3 Design and Operationalisation of the Questionnaires

As noted above, in this study, I used two questionnaires at two different times. The Time 1 questionnaire sought responses on participants' demography, JE, career stages, affectivity and job satisfaction, while the Time 2 questionnaire sought their responses on organisational commitment, perceived job alternatives, turnover intentions and POP. The Time 1 questionnaire could be completed within 15 minutes, while the Time 2 questionnaire could be completed within 10 minutes. I personally administered the questionnaires to the participants. I traced the responses of the participants for the two different questionnaires with a bank/branch/number code. I administered 374 Time 1 questionnaires and 361 Time 2 questionnaires. The difference in number occurred because some managers travelled out of the country and could not be reached, while others voluntarily withdrew from the research because of their busy schedules. Therefore, the total number of questionnaires completed by participants in both Time 1 and Time 2 was 361. Of this number, I discarded 27 questionnaires because of monotone responses (i.e., responses that have no variance), and

incomplete responses, leaving 334 questionnaires available for data analysis. Of the 361 questionnaires administered to participants, I recorded a response rate of 92.5% in the present study.

In this study, I used procedures as suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003) to control for CMB during the design of the questionnaires. That is, I separated predictor variables and outcome variables in this study. As noted above, I asked participants to complete the questionnaires at a three-week time interval. The rationale was to minimise participants' ability and motivation to use their earlier responses to complete subsequent questions, thus diminishing consistency motifs and demand characteristics—that is, participants becoming aware of the expected findings of a research and changing their behaviour to suit the interpretation of the findings (Podsakoff et al., 2003). I also controlled for CMB in this study by ensuring that participants' responses were anonymous, and there were no right or wrong response options for participants to choose from. Further, I checked CMB by carefully constructing questionnaire items to reduce ambiguity (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Procedural remedies help researchers to eliminate or minimise sources of CMB (e.g., common measurement context, ambiguity of items) during data collection (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Also, I statistically tested for CMB in this study (see chapter 5).

4.2.4 Data Collection Procedures

To meet formal procedures before administration of the questionnaires, I sent letters to the organisations, which contained information relating to the title of the study, the purpose of the study, consent to undertake the study and the importance of the study's results to the organisation. I made several follow-up phone calls to the organisations before approval to conduct the study. After that, I focused on seeking the consent of participants. Thus, before

administering the questionnaires to participants, I provided them with information letters (different to those letters sent to the organisations to obtain management consent) that indicated the title of the study, the purpose of the study, and the need for them to participate. It also clearly indicated participants' right of voluntary participation despite management consent. As already indicated, I personally administered the questionnaires to participants. By so doing, I was able to increase employees' participation in the study. Time 1 questionnaires were placed in envelopes and given to participants. I made follow-ups via email, phone calls and messages, and personal visits once a week to remind participants of completion and collection of the questionnaires. I gave Time 2 questionnaires to participants to complete after three weeks of completing Time 1 questionnaires. I used the same follow-up procedures in Time 1 to collect completed Time 2 questionnaires.

4.2.5 Challenges during Questionnaire Operationalisation

In this study, I was confronted with several challenges during field data collection. For instance, management approval of the questionnaires took longer than expected. I sent several reminders, held meetings, and/or made presentations before I was permitted to collect data. However, some management approvals fell through in some of the banks after I had waited several weeks and made numerous follow-up calls. Also, I found it difficult to obtain the contacts of participants in the various branches of banks that had given consent for their managerial employees to be approached. Thus, I resorted to travelling long distances to the various bank branches to seek managers' voluntary participation. Some participants were also reluctant to participate because they felt they were too busy. The poor road network in the country made travelling difficult for me, especially when travelling became a daily activity. Another challenge that I faced was the cancellation of appointments by participants.

Further, some participants failed to complete the questionnaires, despite the numerous reminders sent to them. In many instances, I had to stay in waiting rooms for long periods for some participants to complete the questionnaires in their free time. Further, some participants who had voluntarily consented to the study asked personal assistants to tell me that they were not available, or in a meeting. Lastly, I had to replace misplaced questionnaires for participants on several occasions.

4.2.6 Pre-testing the Questionnaires

A pre-test study is “a small investigation to test the feasibility of procedures and to gather information prior to a larger study” (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002, p. 33). It helps to fine tune a measuring instrument by identifying possible flaws and ambiguous items, and providing information about any embarrassment or discomfort experienced concerning the content or wording of items in the measuring instrument (Creswell, 2009; Reynolds, Diamantopoulos, & Schlegelmilch, 1993; Welman & Kruger, 1999). In this study, I adopted a personal interview approach for pre-testing. With this approach, I administered questionnaires to 20 key employees (mostly managers) at a three-week time interval to procedurally minimise the concern of CMB. I drew these managerial employees from sectors such as banking, academia, manufacturing and healthcare. I interviewed participants during and after completing the questionnaire to elicit their views, comments and concerns about the questions. Boyd, Westfall and Stasch (1989) described the personal interview approach as the best way of pre-testing. The argument in favour of personal interviews is that it enables the researcher to observe the participant as the questionnaire is being completed (Reynolds et al., 1993).

In this study, the personal interview helped to evaluate how participants interpreted the meaning of questionnaire items, to check whether the range of response alternatives was sufficient, to determine if the layout of the questionnaire was clear for participants and to assess motivational features of the questionnaire. I coded the interview responses as R1 for interview one, R2 for interview two, R3 for interview three, and so on. Most of the participants indicated that items on the questionnaire were simple to understand, concise, and precise. One of the participants stated that:

it's very simple, easy to understand, the wordings are concise and precise. (R2: understanding, simplicity and precision of measures)

Another participant also indicated that:

the questions were straight forward ... they were written in plain language, and I was able to understand exactly what the questions required of me ... for me it was more straight forward. (R4: understanding, simplicity and precision of measures)

However, one participant indicated that:

some of them were a bit controversial ... some of them were not straight forward. (R3: understanding of measures)

Also, most of the participants indicated that the time for completion of the questionnaire was adequate. Responses from participants include:

I was able to complete within the required time ... so for me it wasn't really a problem. (R4: time allocated for completing questionnaires)

it's not too much and it's not too little ... its moderately ok. (R8: time allocated for completing questionnaires)

Further, most of the participants indicated that items on the questionnaires were well structured and formatted, and focused on employee work-related concerns. Some of the responses were:

it was well structured, well organised. (R6: structure and formatting of questionnaires)

the formatting was good. (R4: structure and formatting of questionnaires)

some of the questions are really some of the challenges that have been on my mind while working, so responding to them was not that difficult. (R5: focused and work-related questions)

it touches on the fabric of professional life. (R3: focused and work-related questions)

the questions asked actually relate to the things that you wanted to measure. (R14: focused and work-related questions)

Finally, most of the participants indicated that the questionnaires were generally good. A participant stated that:

in one word, I think it's a fantastic one. (R1: general view of the questionnaires)

I made the following changes to the questionnaires as a result of feedback from participants. First, I increased the font size of the questionnaires and sent them back to participants to ascertain whether they could clearly read the questions without difficulty. Participants noted their satisfaction with the amended font size. Also, the response options for organisational commitment were not properly stated, since “strongly disagree” appeared twice. Thus, I amended this before administering questionnaires to participants in the main study. A few

typographical errors were identified, but I amended the questionnaires before I administered them to participants in the main study.

4.2.7 Ethical Considerations

Research participants expect that adequate measures are put in place to protect their dignity, rights and safety (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). This study adhered to the following ethical standards.

4.2.7.1 Informed Consent and Voluntary Participation

I sought the consent and approval of all participating banks through an official written request to them. I also sought the consent of participants before questionnaire administration. In addition, I strictly adhered to the ethical principle of voluntary participation, which was explicitly indicated on the questionnaire. Thus, I did not pressure any participant to participate in the study at any point in time. However, I asked management to encourage participation, given the potential usefulness of the findings for future corporate decisions relating to retaining key employees.

4.2.7.2 Research Purpose and Simplicity

In addition to the synopsis on the questionnaire, I attached a one-page letter to all participants explaining the purpose and significance of the study. I responded to participants who sought further information about the survey. Further, I ensured the questionnaire format was straightforward to assist the understanding of participants. To reduce ambiguity, I carefully constructed and thoroughly edited the questionnaire items before administering them to participants (Tourangeau, Rips, & Rasinski, 2000).

4.2.7.3 Confidentiality, Anonymity and Privacy

I asked participants not to indicate anything (such as name and address) on the questionnaire that might disclose their identity (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). I also collected most of the completed questionnaires from participants themselves. Confidentiality exists when only the researcher is aware of the participants' identities and promises not to disclose those identities to anyone (Dane, 1990).

4.3 Measurement Instruments

As noted above, I assessed participants' views about the constructs by using questionnaires, which comprise measurement instruments. In this section, I outline the measurement instruments used to assess the constructs in this study. It is important to note that I used standardised measurement instruments to assess the constructs. In the sub-sections that follow, I describe in detail the measurement instruments used to assess the constructs in this study.

4.3.1 Job Embeddedness

Mitchell and colleagues (2001) developed JE theory and a 40-item scale to measure job embeddedness. Later, Holtom et al. (2006) developed and validated the short form version from the seminal scale of Mitchell and colleagues (2001). The short form version is a 21-item scale. Holtom and colleagues (2006) found a strong correlation ($r = .92$) between their revised short form version and Mitchell and colleagues' (2001) long form version. Subsequently, a study by Felps et al. (2009) validated Holtom et al.'s (2006) 21-item short form version scale. Of the 21 items, 18 items are assessed on a five-point Likert scale where 1 = "strongly disagree" and 5 = "strongly agree". Sample items for on-the-JE are "My job

utilises my skills and talents well”, and “I work closely with my co-workers”. Sample items for off-the-JE are “I participate in cultural and recreational activities in my local area”, and “Leaving the community where I live would be very hard”. The remaining three items have response options of 1 = “yes” and 2 = “no”. Items are “Are you currently married?”, “If you are currently married, does your spouse work outside the home?” and “Do you own a home (with or without a mortgage)?” In this study, I used only 18 items to assess job embeddedness. I excluded the three dichotomous questions from this study because the 18 questions are lengthy when compared with most other constructs measured (Clinton, Knight, & Guest, 2012), and could not be increased further because people can respond carelessly to a lengthy questionnaire (Breugh & Colihan, 1994). Further, participants might have regarded the three dichotomous items as an invasion of their privacy, provoking socially desirable responses (Crossley et al., 2007). Of the 18 items, 9 items (e.g., I am a member of an effective work group, I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job) measure participants’ perceptions of on-the-job factors (or organisation embeddedness factors). The remaining 9 items (e.g., I really love the place where I live; If I were to leave the community, I would miss my non-work friends) measure participants’ perceptions of off-the-job factors (community embeddedness factors). In the present study, one item (i.e., On the job, I interact frequently with my work group members) that assessed participants’ perception of on-the-JE items was deleted because of poor factor loading. Similarly, one item (i.e., I participate in cultural and recreational activities in my local area) that assessed participants’ perception of off-the-JE was removed from the analysis because of poor factor loading. Thus, the reason for item removal from the analysis was basically statistical, because the Cronbach’s α for all 9 items of on-the-JE and all 9 items of off-the-JE in SPSS were .91 and .88, respectively. In a study by Coetzer et al. (2017), high α reliabilities were reported for on-the-JE (.86) and off-

the-JE (.84). Similarly, Hussain and Deery (2018) reported α reliabilities of .82 and .70 for on-the-JE and off-the-JE. In this study, the α reliabilities for on-the-JE, and off-the-JE were .90 and .86, respectively. Also, Felps et al. (2009) reported a high α reliability of .88 for composite JE, and in this study, I recorded a Cronbach's α score of .87 for composite JE.

4.3.2 Affectivity Traits

Watson et al.'s (1988) Positive and Negative Affectivity Schedule (PANAS) scale was used to assess PA and NA. The PANAS contains 10 PA items such as "interested", "inspired", "alert" and "strong", and 10 items that assess NA such as "guilty", "upset", "ashamed", and "nervous". The PANAS asks participants to rate how they feel. Response options are on a five-point Likert-type scale where 1 = "very slightly or not at all" and 5 = "extremely". However, the feeling of the participants can be instantaneous or general. The PANAS has seven different time instructions: moment (i.e., you feel this way right now, that is, at the present moment); today (i.e., you have felt this way today); past few days (i.e., you have felt this way during the past few days); week (i.e., you have felt this way during the past week); past few weeks (i.e., you have felt this way during the past few weeks); year (i.e., you have felt this way during the past year); and general (i.e., you generally feel this way, that is, how you feel on average). In this study, the phrase, "Generally, I feel ..." preceded each adjective because it indicates participants' state affect rather than transient or trait affect (Chang, 1997; Nelis, Bastin, Raes, Mezulis, & Bijttebier, 2016). In this study, I deleted two items of PA (i.e., active and attentive) from the analysis because their factor loadings were below .5. Also, six items of NA (i.e., irritable, distressed, upset, scared, guilty and afraid) were removed from the analysis because their factor loadings were below .5. The reasons for removing some PA and NA items from the analysis were mainly statistical, because SEM is a rigorous analysis

that requires strict rules of thumb to be fulfilled to produce satisfactory results. Studies have found high Cronbach's α scores ranging from .85 to .88 for PA, and .83 to .89 for NA (e.g., Gilmore et al., 2013; Heller et al., 2002; Panaccio, Vandenberghe, & Ben Ayed, 2014; Sears, Zhang, & Han, 2016). In the present study, I recorded Cronbach's α scores of .89 and .80 for PA (8 items) and NA (4 items), respectively.

4.3.3 Career Stages

In this study, I used the self-categorical approach to assess participants' career stages because it is an effective yet succinct way of capturing people's career stage concerns (Pappas & Flaherty, 2006). With this approach, I asked participants to identify their current career stage after reading passages relating to early career, mid-career and late career stages. A sample item for early career stage is, "You are most concerned with finding an occupation in which you can succeed and grow as an individual. You are concerned with gaining stability within your occupation, and securing a place in the working world. Achieving professional success is of utmost importance to you. You strongly desire promotion at work". Ng and Feldman (2010) used this measure of career stages in their study of JE and innovation-related behaviours. Pappas and Flaherty (2006) also used four passages to enable employees to identify their career stages of exploration, engagement, maintenance and disengagement. Age and tenure, which have long been used to measure career stage (Hess & Jepsen, 2009; Slocum & Cron, 1985), were not considered because they tend to produce inaccurate categorisation (Pappas & Flaherty, 2006) since more people often delay their retirement or engage in bridge employment after formal retirement (Kim & Feldman, 2000). Also, Cahill, Giandrea and Quinn (2006) found that younger retirees, the healthy, the self-employed and those without defined benefit pension plans engage more in bridge employment. Pappas and

Flaherty (2006) indicated that older employees who re-enter the workforce as first-time employees may regard themselves as early career stage employees. Therefore, because people could recycle back through their career stages (Super, 1957), age and tenure should not be used to measure career stages; instead, career stages should be assessed through career concerns related to the career stages (Hess & Jepsen, 2009). In addition, retirement cannot necessarily be linked to age or tenure because decisions to retire early or late are personal and are influenced by wealth, family demands, health, and rules and incentives of the retirement system (Tomlinson, Baird, Berg, & Cooper, 2018). Of the 334 participants in this study, 170, 102 and 62 participants categorised their career into early stage, mid-stage, and late stage, respectively.

4.3.4 Perceptions of Organisational Politics

In this study, I assessed POP with the Perceptions of Organisational Politics Scale (POPS) developed by Kacmar and Ferris (1991). POPS uses 12 items to describe three sub-dimensions of general political behaviour, political behaviour to “get ahead”, and ambiguity in pay and promotion policies and rules. Four items assess political behaviour to “get ahead”, 6 items assess general political behaviour, and 2 items assess pay and promotion policies and rules. Examples of items are “One group always gets their way in the organisation”, “Pay and promotion policies are not politically applied” and “People build themselves by tearing others down”. I obtained responses by using a five-point Likert-type scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. Three items (i.e., “Individuals do not speak their minds because of fear of retaliation”, “There is no place for individuals who stick to their words” and “Pay and promotion policies are not politically applied”) were reverse scored. Of the 12 items, 6 items were dropped because of poor factor loadings. These items were “Promotions

in the organisation go to top performers”, “Individuals are rewarded for hard work”, “There is no place for individuals who stick to their words”, “Pay and promotion policies are not politically applied”, “Pay and promotion decisions are consistent with policies”, and “People speak out frankly even when they are critical of well-established ideas”. Kacmar and Ferris (1991) reported a high Cronbach’s α of .87 in their study. Other empirical studies by Hsiung, Lin and Lin (2012) and Karatepe (2013b) reported a high Cronbach’s α of .80 on the POPS. In this study, I recorded a Cronbach’s α score of .86 for POP.

4.3.5 Turnover Intentions

I measured turnover intentions with a five-item scale used by Crossley et al. (2007). Response options are on a five-point Likert-type scale from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Sample items are “I often think about quitting”, “I may leave this organisation before too long”, and “I will quit this organisation as soon as possible”. One item, “I do not plan on leaving this organisation soon”, was reverse scored in this study but was later dropped from the data analyses because of poor factor loading. In Crossley et al.’s (2007) study, the Cronbach’s α for turnover intentions was .89. Coetzer et al. (2017) adopted the same items used by Crossley and colleagues (2007) to assess turnover intentions; they reported a high Cronbach’s α score of .90. In this study, I recorded a Cronbach’s α score of .91 for turnover intentions.

4.3.6 Control Variables

4.3.6.1 Job Satisfaction

In this study, I assessed job satisfaction with three composite items that were similarly used by Mitchell et al. (2001). The response options are on a five-point Likert-type scale where

1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. The items are, “All in all, I am satisfied with my job”, “In general, I don’t like my job” and “In general, I like working here”. The item “In general, I don’t like my job” was reverse coded in this study. In Mitchell et al.’s (2001) study, Cronbach’s α for job satisfaction was .85. In their cross-cultural study, Ramesh and Gelfand (2010) adopted the same three items used by Mitchell and colleagues (2001) to assess job satisfaction; they reported α reliability of .86 and .76 for the US and India, respectively. Similarly, Coetzer et al. (2017) reported a Cronbach’s α score of .77 for the same three items of job satisfaction. In the present study, I recorded a Cronbach’s α score of .91 for job satisfaction.

4.3.6.2 Affective Commitment

In the present study, I used Meyer and Allen’s (1997) Organisational Commitment Questionnaire to measure affective commitment. The OCQ uses six items to measure affective commitment. The response options are on a five-point Likert-type scale where 1 = “strongly disagree” and 5 = “strongly agree”. Sample items are, “I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my problems”, and, “This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me”. Three of the items (i.e., “I do not feel like ‘part of the family’ at this organisation”, “I do not feel ‘emotionally attached’ to this organisation”, and “I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organisation”) were reverse scored in this study. In this study, I used three items in the data analysis, because the remaining three items (i.e., “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation”, “I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own”, and, “This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me”) had poor factor loadings. Thus, the deleted items were not able to meet the standards in the measurement model analysis, although they contributed to an

acceptable Cronbach's α score of .77 for the construct in SPSS analysis. In a study by Coetzer et al. (2017), the α reliability for affective commitment was .86. In addition, Mitchell et al. (2001) reported that the Cronbach's α scores for affective commitment were .86 and .89 for employees in grocery and hospital, respectively. In this study, I recorded a Cronbach's α score of .73 for affective commitment.

4.3.6.3 Perceived Job Alternative

Like Mitchell et al. (2001), I measured perceived job alternative with two items adapted from Lee and Mowday (1987). Response options are on a five-point Likert-type scale where 1= "very unlikely" and 5= "very likely". The items are "What is the probability that you can find an acceptable alternative to your job", and "If you search for an alternative job within a year, what are the chances that you can find an acceptable job?" Although the use of only two indicators to measure a construct is potentially problematic (e.g., Harman, 1967), I used two indicators to assess perceived job alternatives in the analysis, because they were in line with Little, Lindenberger and Nesselroade's (1999) assertion that, two indicators can be used to identify a construct if they are theoretically important indicators of the construct. Mitchell and colleagues (2001) reported a high Cronbach's α score of .94. In this study, I recorded a Cronbach's α score of .94 for perceived job alternative.

4.3.6.4 Demographic Variables

Previous empirical studies have found that demographic variables such as gender, age, organisational tenure, number of children, education and marital status are significant predictors of turnover intentions (Benson, 2006; Coetzer et al., 2017; Eberly et al., 2017; Hussain & Deery, 2018; Mai et al., 2016; Peltokorpi et al., 2017). In the present study, I

controlled for the potentially confounding effects on turnover intentions of six demographic variables: gender, age, marital status, years of employment in the organisation, years of employment in the industry and education. Gender was dummy coded as 1 = male, and 2 = female, while age was dummy coded as 1 = under 30 years, 2 = 30–40 years, 3 = 41–50 years, 4 = 51–60 years, and 5 = 61+ years. Education was also dummy coded in this study as 1 = Diploma, 2 = Bachelor's degree, 3 = Master's degree, 4 = PhD, 5 = Professional certificate. Marital status was dummy coded as 1 = Yes, and 2 = No. Finally, years of employment in the organisation was dummy coded as 1 = Less than 2 years, 2 = 2–7 years, 3 = 8–13 years, 4 = 14–19 years, and 5 = More than 19 years, while years of employment in the industry was dummy coded as 1 = Less than 5 years, 2 = 5–10 years, 3 = 11–16 years, 4 = 17–22 years, and 5 = More than 22 years.

4.4 Summary

In this chapter, I explained how the theoretical considerations of this study progressed to operational level through research strategy, and data planning and collection. I began by explaining the paradigms in research and indicating that the post-positivism philosophical assumption was chosen for this study because of the relationships to be established through hypothesis testing. Thus, I employed a quantitative and cross-sectional survey design. This study's research context was the Ghana banking sector. In this study, I purposefully sampled participants, that is, managerial employees, from commercial banks listed on the 2014 edition of the *Ghana Club 100*. I collected data from participants by using two questionnaires, that is, Time 1 and Time 2 questionnaires. The rationale was to control procedurally for CMB. Of the 374 questionnaires administered, I used 334 questionnaires in the data analysis. In this study, I strongly upheld ethical requirements, such as informed consent, confidentiality and

anonymity. I also conducted a pre-test study (i.e., personal interviews) on the questionnaire, and feedback indicated that the questions were clearly structured, simple to understand, precise, completed within time and focused on employees' work-related concerns. Finally, I used standardised measurement instruments with adequate validity and reliability to assess the constructs. In the next chapter, I outline the statistical techniques used to analyse the data in this study.

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS

In this chapter I describe the analytical procedures used for the data analysis. I start the chapter by outlining the techniques used to conduct preliminary data analysis, which included replacing missing values, reverse coding, identifying outliers, and testing for normality and multicollinearity. This is followed by a description of the techniques used for generating descriptive statistics (e.g., frequencies, means and standard deviations) and for conducting the correlation analysis. Thereafter, a substantial part of the chapter is devoted to explaining how the data were analysed with the aid of SEM. The final parts of the chapter outline the analytical techniques used to test for CMB and to test the hypotheses.

5.1 Preliminary Analysis

All correctly completed questionnaires were coded and entered into Microsoft Excel (2016 version). The data were then exported from the Microsoft Excel to the SPSS (version 25). In the sub-sections that follow, I explain the analyses and techniques used in the preliminary data analysis.

5.1.1 Missing Values

I used expected maximisation (EM) method to replace missing values. EM is an interactive procedure producing variances, covariances and means in an initial step, and repeating the whole process until changes in the parameters are so small that the final solution is said to have converged (Graham, 2009, 2012). EM performs best when missing values are missing completely at random (MCAR; Karanja, Zaveri, & Ahmed, 2013). Little's (1988) MCAR test results in this study were chi-square = 2432.877, degrees of freedom = 2450, sig. = 0.593.

The p value was not significant (i.e., $p > 0.05$), which indicated that the missing values in the data set were MCAR (Little, 1988). After that, I proceeded with reverse scoring the negatively worded questionnaire items.

5.1.2 Reverse Scoring

I used SPSS to reverse score all negatively worded items. I reverse scored three organisational commitment items (i.e., OC3, OC4 and OC6), one job satisfaction item (i.e., JS2), one turnover intentions item (i.e., TI4) and three POP items (i.e., POP6, POP9 and POP10). Finally, I reverse scored all 10 of the NA items.

5.1.3 Outliers

I used Mahalanobis distance technique to determine outliers. This technique uses estimates of the location and scatter to identify values that are distant from the main data distribution (Mahalanobis, 1936). Mahalanobis distance values were assessed using $1 - \chi^2$ (Mahalanobis distance, degree of freedom) $< .001$. Mahalanobis distance values below the obtained chi-square value were not deemed outliers.

5.1.4 Parametric Statistics

I performed parametric tests, such as normality and multicollinearity, in SPSS. I tested the normality of the constructs by using skewness, kurtosis and Shapiro-Wilk's test. I treated constructs with skewness and kurtosis between -2 and $+2$ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), and skewness z score and kurtosis z values between -1.96 and $+1.96$ (Cramer, 1998; Cramer & Howitt, 2004; Doane & Seward, 2011) as normally distributed. Further, I considered

constructs with p values exceeding the threshold of .05 as normally distributed (Razali & Wah, 2011; Shapiro & Wilk, 1965).

I used the tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) to test if the assumption of multicollinearity was not violated. I obtained tolerance and VIF values by conducting multiple regression analysis. I considered constructs with a tolerance value greater than .10 and VIF value less than 10 to have not violated the assumption of multicollinearity. I also tested multicollinearity by using Pearson product-moment correlations or correlation coefficients in SPSS to test the correlations among the predicting variables. When using this approach, I considered correlation coefficients greater than .70 as a violation of the assumption of multicollinearity.

5.2 Descriptive Statistics

I used SPSS to generate the descriptive statistics. For example, I determined the frequency statistics of participants' demographic characteristics such as age, gender, education and marital status. I also determined means and standard deviations on all constructs in this study.

5.3 Correlations

With the aid of SPSS, I determined the correlations among the constructs. I used correlation analysis to assess the strength and direction of relationships among the constructs. I used Pearson product-moment correlations to determine the relationships among the constructs, at the .05 significance level.

5.4 Structural Equation Modelling

I used SEM to test hypothesis 1. SEM is a multivariate technique that is ideally suited for testing hypotheses. SEM comprises two models, that is, a measurement model and a structural model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2010). An important distinction between the measurement model and the structural model is that the former concerns the relations between measures of constructs, indicators and the constructs they were designed to measure, while the latter concerns the directional relations between constructs (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). To determine whether the indicators of a construct measure that construct, the measurement model and structural model are tested independently, but the measurement model is tested first (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993).

I used SEM in this study because it combines various multivariate analysis methods (e.g., factor analysis and multiple regression), assesses whether a specific model best fits the statistics, simultaneously estimates a measurement model, specifies relationships between underlying latent variables and measured variables, and specifies structural relationships among the latent variables (DeShon, 1998; Hu & Bentler, 1998; Yuan, 2005). Kline (2011) noted that SEM allows simultaneous testing of direct and indirect relationships between constructs. SEM is a flexible analysis tool that allows modelling of data structures that violate assumptions of traditional models, such as uncorrelated errors and homogeneous error variances (DeShon, 1998, p. 412). SEM analysis also enables the inclusion of higher-order variables (Iacobucci, 2010). Further, I used SEM to analyse data in this study because I sampled 374 participants, which is consistent with Kline's (2011) rule of thumb that a sample size of more than 200 is required when using maximum likelihood estimation.

Although researchers usually use SEM with random samples, SEM can be used to analyse data from non-random samples (Goodman & Blum, 1996). Previous research provides evidence of SEM analysis with non-random samples. For example, in assessing how utilisation of non-financial manufacturing performance measures affect the relationship between lean manufacturing and financial performance, Fullerton and Wempe (2009) used SEM to analyse non-random sampling data provided by 121 US manufacturing executives. Williams and Anderson (1994) also used SEM with a convenience sample to assess spuriousness and suppressor effects of positive and negative mood on predictor variables—job satisfaction relationships. Finally, Josiam et al. (2015) used SEM to analyse data from a convenience sample of 670 participants in India and found that engagement in Bollywood movies is related to both hedonic and utilitarian involvement factors.

5.4.1 Analysis of Moment Structures

As noted above, I used SEM to analyse hypothesis 1. Specifically, I used AMOS (version 25) in SEM for the analysis. AMOS uses a two-step approach to SEM: measurement model (i.e., confirmatory factor analysis) and structural model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). I used the maximum likelihood estimation approach in AMOS to test the measurement model and the structural model. I used AMOS for analysing the data in this study because it is an easy-to-use program that allows simple drawing tools to be used to create, specify, view and modify models graphically in SEM (Arbuckle, 2010). Additionally, AMOS provides a theoretical approach to random missing data that is reliable, efficient and asymptotically unbiased (Byrne, 2001).

5.4.2 Goodness of Fit Indices

I used two different goodness of fit indices (i.e., absolute, and relative) to determine an adequate model fit (e.g., Hu & Bentler, 1999; Mulaik et al., 1989). Regarding absolute indices, I used CMIN/DF (χ^2/df) < .05, chi-square (χ^2) *p* value, goodness of fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and root mean square residual (RMR). In terms of relative indices, I used the comparative fit index (CFI), the incremental fit index (IFI), and the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI). Table 5.1 shows the goodness-to-fit indices used in this study.

Table 5. 1 Goodness of fit indices

	Goodness of fit statistics
χ^2 <i>p</i> value	> .05
RMR	< .08
CFI	< .90
IFI	> .90
TLI	> .95
AGFI	≥ .90
RMSEA	< .05
GFI	≥ .90
PCLOSE	> .05

Sources: Baumgartner & Hombur, 1996; Chau, 1997; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Mulaik et al., 1989; Tanaka, 1993; Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin, & Summers, 1977.

5.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

I performed confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) because it is an SEM approach that assesses the factor structure of a set of indicators or observed variables (Munro, 2005). CFA assesses relationships between indicators or observed variables and latent variables (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hoyle, 2000), and it provides evidence of divergent and convergent validity, and composite reliability of constructs (Akgunduz & Eryilmaz, 2018; Allen et al., 2016;

Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Following Fornell and Larcker (1981), I used a threshold of standardised factor loading $\geq .50$. Thus, I considered items with standardised factor loadings of less than the threshold of .50 as poor and deleted them from the analysis.

5.5.1 Validity and Composite Reliability

Validity is the degree to which the instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Peter, 1981). In this study, I checked for the convergent and discriminant validity of the instruments, because these are the best ways to check the construct validity of a measurement instrument (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Convergent validity refers to the extent to which two or more independent measures that assess the same construct agree (Knight, 1997). Discriminant validity refers to the degree to which measures of different constructs are distinct (Bagozzi, Yi, & Phillips, 1991; Peter, 1981). Procedurally, validity was checked in two ways: (1) by controlling confounding variables (job satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceived job alternatives, age and gender) to avoid alternative explanations of the findings; and (2) by maximising the study's response rate. Statistically, I performed CFA to examine more precisely the convergent and discriminant validity of the instruments. Table 5.2 shows thresholds of convergent and discriminant validity.

Table 5. 2 Validity thresholds

	Thresholds
Convergent validity	CR > AVE AVE > .50 Standardised factor loading > .50
Discriminant validity	MSV < AVE ASV < AVE

Sources: Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010.

5.5.2 Cronbach's Alpha Reliability

I tested the internal consistency or reliability of the constructs, that is, the extent to which the instruments produce consistently precise measures of the construct (Churchill, 1979; Peter, 1979). In addition to composite reliability, I used Cronbach's alpha coefficient to test the reliability of the constructs and considered constructs with Cronbach's alpha coefficients greater than .70 as satisfactory (Sekaran, 2003).

5.5.3 Alternative Factor Models

In the present study, I developed and compared alternative factor models to the hypothesised model to determine which model best fits the statistics (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). In all, I developed eight alternative factor models. I used modification indices such as chi-square difference, degrees of freedom, CFI, IFI, TLI, RMSEA, and Akaike information criterion (AIC). Thus, I chose the factor model with the best goodness of fit statistics.

5.6 Common Method Bias

In this section, I explain the techniques used to test CMB. I used both Harman's single factor test and common latent factor (CLF) analysis to test CMB (Podsakoff et al., 2003). With Harman's single factor test, I performed a single factor constraint of factor analysis in SPSS statistics. In the analysis, I loaded all the variables into a factor analysis and constrained the number of factors to '1' (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The results suggest that CMB was not an issue in this study because the variance explained by the first component was less than 50% of all the variables in the model (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Although Harman's single factor test has been disputed because of its inability to control for the effects of CMB, I used it in

this study because a single factor can account for all the variance in a factor analysis (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

To address the limitations of the Harman's single factor test, I also used CLF analysis to test for CMB. CLF is determined by performing two CFAs. The first is CFA with CLF, and the second is CFA with no CLF. CMB is ascertained when the factor loadings of CFA with CLF are deducted from the factor loadings of CFA with no CLF. The difference is called 'delta'. A delta of less than .2 indicates that statistically CMB is low and not an issue in the study (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

5.7 Testing Direct Effects

As noted above, I used AMOS to test hypothesis 1, that is, the relationships between composite JE and turnover intentions, organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions, and community embeddedness and turnover intentions. I also used AMOS to test the relationships between the sub-dimensions of JE and turnover intentions. I used goodness of fit indices in SEM to check the model fit. In this study, I used standardised regression weights to determine the relationships at the .05 level of significance. I deleted covariances that were not significant (i.e., $p > .05$) from the path analysis in AMOS.

5.8 Testing Moderating Effects

I used Hayes' (2013) PROCESS macro (version 2.6) to test the moderation effects. PROCESS macro is a computational tool that implements path analysis-based moderation and mediation analysis as well as their combination in "an integrated conditional process model" (Hayes, 2012, p. 11). I used simple moderation analysis to test the conditional effects of JE on turnover intentions through the hypothesised moderators of career stage and POP.

In other words, I used PROCESS macro Model 1 to determine the potentially moderating effects of career stage and POP on the JE–turnover intentions relationship. Further, I used PROCESS macro Model 2 to determine the conditional effects of PA and NA on the JE–turnover intentions relationship because this analytical tool allows one to simultaneously determine the conditional effects of two moderators on the same relationship. In the analysis, I used 5,000 bootstrap samples at 95% bias corrected bootstrap confidence intervals to determine the effects of the hypothesised moderators. Following MacKinnon, Lockwood and Williams (2004), bias corrected confidence intervals were used in the analysis because they adjust for any bias in the bootstrap estimate and produce the most precise confidence intervals in bootstrapping. To determine significant effect in PROCESS macro, confidence intervals, that is, lower level confidence interval (LLCI) and upper level confidence interval (ULCI) must not exceed zero (Hayes, 2013). Thus, a moderating effect is significant if 95% bias corrected confidence intervals do not exceed zero. Bootstrapping is one of the more powerful and valid statistical approaches used to test conditional and indirect effects (MacKinnon et al., 2004; Williams & MacKinnon, 2008). The PROCESS model analysis also provides conditional effects of the moderator on the direct relationship. That is, conditional effect determines the effect and significance of the relationship at each level of moderation. In this study, I used the conditional effect to determine the effect and significance of the direct relationship at each level of moderation. For example, I determined the effect and significance of the relationship between JE and turnover intentions at each career stage (i.e., early career stage, mid-career stage and late career stage). Finally, I used interaction graphs to illustrate the interaction between the predictor variable and moderator, and their effect on the criterion variable. In PROCESS macro, Model 1 and Model 2 provide data for plotting the interaction graph (Hayes, 2013).

5.8 Summary

In this chapter I explained that in the preliminary analysis I reversed negative responses, used EM method to replace missing values, and used the Mahalanobis distance technique to determine outliers. I also used skewness and kurtosis, skewness z score and kurtosis z values, and Shapiro-Wilk's test to test normality, while I used tolerance, VIF and Pearson product-moment correlations to test if the assumption of multicollinearity was violated. Further, I used descriptive statistics to determine frequencies for the participants' demographic profile, and to determine means and standard deviations on all constructs. In addition, I tested correlations among the constructs by using Pearson product-moment correlations. I also used maximum likelihood estimation approach in AMOS to perform CFA and structural analysis. I also explained in this chapter that, in this study, a good model fit was determined by using goodness of fit indices. Additionally, I tested convergent and discriminant validity by using average variance extracted, composite reliability, MSV and average shared variance. In this study, I also developed and compared alternative factor models to the hypothesised model to determine the best model fit. I used Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability to test the reliabilities of the constructs. I also tested CMB by using Harman's single factor test and CLF analysis. Finally, I tested hypothesis 1 by using path analysis in AMOS, and the moderation effects by using PROCCESS macro Model 1 and Model 2. In the next chapter, I present the results of my analysis with the aid of key tables and figures.

CHAPTER 6: RESULTS

As explained in chapter 1, the purpose of the present study was to examine the JE–turnover intentions relationship and the potential moderating effects of affectivity traits, career stages and POP on the relationship. In this chapter, I present the results of the analysis with the aid of key tables and figures. I start the chapter with a presentation of the participants’ demographic profile, including age and gender. Thereafter, I provide results of preliminary analysis of the data to determine outliers, multicollinearity and normality.

This is followed by the results for an eight-factor CFA model. Next, I present the results for alternative CFA models, which were developed and compared with the eight-factor CFA model to determine which model best fits the statistics. Then, I present the results of the analysis to detect CMB. Subsequently, I proceed with a presentation of the results for correlations, means and standard deviations.

A key part of the chapter is the presentation of results for the study’s hypotheses. First, I present the results for the relationship between JE (i.e., composite, dimensions and sub-dimensions) and turnover intentions. Next, I present results for the moderating effects of affectivity traits (i.e., PA, and NA), career stages and POP on the JE–turnover intentions relationship.

6.1 Demographic Profile of Participants

Table 6.1 shows the demographic characteristics of the participants. The total number of participants was 334. The statistics show that the participants were male dominated (75.1%), which is to be expected because Ghana is a male-dominated country as in a patriarchal

structure (Adu-Febiri, 1995; Ajayi & Soyinka-Airewele, 2018; Langer, 2010). Further, the statistics indicate that most of the participants were below 41 years of age, and that most of the participants (76.3%) were married. In addition, the statistics show most of the participants (53%) had worked in the organisation for more than 8 years, and in the industry for 11 years and above (58.8%). Thus, the banking sector can rely on the skills and expertise of experienced managers for their operations. Finally, the statistics indicate that most of the participants (60.8%) had obtained a postgraduate degree.

Table 6. 1 Demography of participants

Items	Categories	Frequency	Per cent
Age	Under 30	22	6.6%
	30–40	167	50.0%
	41–50	68	20.4%
	51–60	74	22.2%
	61+	3	0.9%
Gender	Male	223	75.1%
	Female	83	24.9%
Marital status	Yes	251	76.3%
	No	79	23.7%
Years of employment in the organisation	Less than 2 years	31	9.3%
	2–7 years	126	37.7%
	8–13 years	89	26.6%
	14–19 years	48	14.4%
	More than 19 years	40	12.0%
Years of employment in the industry	Less than 5 years	14	4.2%
	5–10 years	124	37.1%
	11–16 years	82	24.6%
	17–22 years	60	18.0%
	More than 22 years	54	16.2%
Highest educational level	Bachelor’s degree	121	36.2%
	Master’s	185	55.4%
	PhD	18	5.4%
	Professional certificate	10	3.0%

Field data 2017. N = 334.

The above data on participants’ demography are important in the present study because demographic characteristics influence the level of employees’ embeddedness (Peltokorpi et al., 2017). For instance, there were mixed results on the gender—embeddedness relationship in the literature. Some studies found that women were more embedded in their jobs than men (Jiang et al., 2012; Ryan & Harden, 2014), while other studies found that men were more embedded in their jobs than women (Peltokorpi et al., 2017). Also, the statistic showing that

most of the participants were younger employees (i.e., below 41 years) was important for this study because younger employees have been found to be less embedded in their jobs than older employees (Ng & Feldman, 2009; Tanova & Holtom, 2008). Further, the statistic relating to tenure is significant because employees who have longer tenures in the organisation become embedded in their jobs since they would make more sacrifices if they were to leave their jobs (Mitchell et al., 2001). In this study, I controlled for the potential effects on turnover intentions of all six of the demographic variables listed in Table 6.1.

6.2 Preliminary Analysis

Prior to the main data analysis, preliminary data analysis was conducted to identify outliers. Additionally, I determined the assumption of multicollinearity to ensure that the assumption was not violated. Finally, I determined whether the constructs were normally distributed.

6.2.1 Outliers

As noted in chapter 5, I used the Mahalanobis distance technique to determine outliers in this study. Appendix 2 shows the Mahalanobis distance values. The results indicated that there is no outlier, because Mahalanobis distance values are all below a chi-square value of 13.816.

6.2.2 Multicollinearity

Appendix 3 shows results relating to multicollinearity. The results indicated that the assumption of multicollinearity was not violated during each hypothesis testing, because tolerance and VIF values for all predictor variables were greater than .10 and less than 10, respectively. Table 6.2 illustrates the correlations among predictor variables. The results showed that the correlation coefficient values among the predictor variables were not strong. Thus, the assumption of multicollinearity was not violated.

Table 6. 2 Correlations among predictor variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Job satisfaction							
2. Organisational commitment	.126**						
3. Perceived job alternatives	.034	-.010					
4. JE	.219**	.237***	-.015				
5. PA	-.016	-.082	-.020	-.018			
6. NA	.089	-.202***	.060	-.040	.098		
7. POP	-.024	-.045	-.040	-.029	-.021	.004	
8. Career stage	.070	-.113*	.006	.042	-.102	.082	.059

Note: JE = job embeddedness; PA = positive affectivity; NA = negative affectivity; POP = perceptions of organisational politics. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed).

6.2.3 Normality

Table 6.3 shows results relating to normality among constructs. The results showed that all constructs were normally distributed, because skewness and kurtosis were between -2 and $+2$ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The results also indicated that constructs were normally distributed, because skewness z score and kurtosis z values were between -1.96 and $+1.96$ (Cramer, 1998; Cramer & Howitt, 2004; Doane & Seward, 2011). Finally, results from the Shapiro-Wilk's test indicated that the constructs were normally distributed, because the p value for each construct exceeded the threshold of .05 (Razali & Wah, 2011; Shapiro & Wilk, 1965).

Table 6. 3 Results for normality of constructs

	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness z score	Kurtosis z value	Shapiro-Wilk	
					Statistic	Sig.
Gender	.715	-1.498	.856	-1.670	.594	.124
Age	.432	-.813	.662	-1.077	.833	.541
Marital status	1.169	-.637	1.528	-.836	.537	.182
Education	.923	1.550	1.068	1.601	.751	.091
YEO	.460	-.665	.738	-1.294	.887	.075
YEI	.360	-1.016	1.545	-1.049	.873	.190
Job satisfaction	-.664	-.786	-1.685	-1.142	.891	.323
Organisational commitment	-.459	-.421	-.863	-.153	.954	.145
Perceived job alternatives	.660	-.880	1.236	-1.350	.859	.056
JE	-.656	.513	-.960	.786	.974	.137
Organisation embeddedness	-.981	.982	-1.131	1.290	.950	.094
Community embeddedness	-.735	.280	1.369	.424	.933	.162
PA	-1.355	1.763	-1.512	1.825	.869	.258
NA	-.714	.625	-.828	1.089	.920	.236
POP	-.769	.587	-.889	.770	.959	.094
Career stage	.627	-1.046	.824	-1.131	.752	.142
Turnover intention	-.071	-1.104	-.534	-1.338	.961	.385

Note: JE = job embeddedness; POP = perceptions of organisational politics; YEO = years of work in organisation; YEI = years of work in industry; NA = negative affectivity; PA = positive affectivity.

6.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

I used CFA to assess the relationships between indicators and latent variables (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hoyle, 2000). Figure 6.1 shows the standardised factor loadings of items in CFA. The results indicated that all the items had standardised factor loadings above the threshold of .50. I deleted all items with standardised factor loadings of less than the threshold of .50 from the analysis. All items used to assess participants' responses on job satisfaction and perceived job alternatives were retained in the analysis because their standardised factor loadings exceeded .50. However, of the 9 items used to assess participants' responses on community embeddedness, I deleted 1 item (i.e., CE6) from the analysis because of poor standardised factor loading. Similarly, I deleted 1 item (i.e., OE6) from the 9 items used to assess participants' organisation embeddedness because of poor standardised factor loading. In terms of organisational commitment, I deleted 3 items (i.e., OC1, OC2, and OC5) because of poor standardised factor loadings, leaving 3 items to be used in the analysis. Of the 12 items used to assess POP, I deleted 6 items (i.e., POP7, POP8, POP9_r, POP10_r, POP11 and POP12) because of poor standardised factor loadings, leaving 6 items to be used in the analysis. Regarding turnover intentions, of the 5 items, I deleted 1 item (i.e., TI4_r) from the analysis because of poor standardised factor loading. Also, I deleted 2 items (i.e., PA7 and PA8) that assessed PA from the analysis because of poor standardised factor loadings, leaving 8 items to be used in the analysis. Finally, I deleted 6 items (i.e., NA1, NA2, NA4, NA7, NA9 and NA10) that assessed NA because of poor standardised factor loadings, leaving 4 items to be used in the analysis.

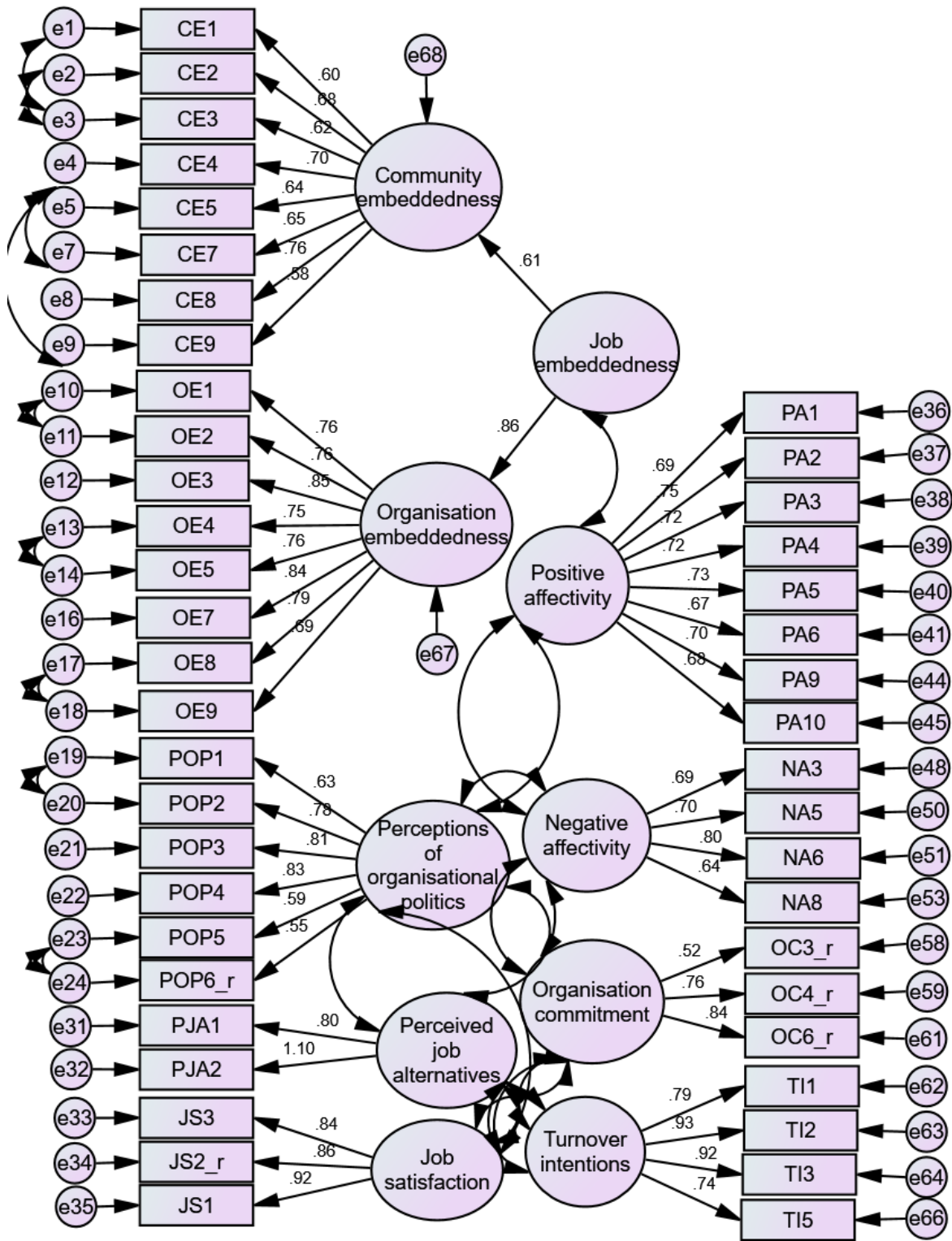


Figure 6. 1 Confirmatory factor analysis

Table 6.4 shows the modification indices and goodness of fit indices used in the analysis. The results indicated that the model adequately fitted the statistics. Thus, the hypothesised model was statistically fit, and could be used in further analysis, such as testing to determine the hypotheses. Table 6.5 shows results relating to discriminant and convergent validity, and composite reliability (CR) of items in the CFA, while Table 6.6 shows results for the Cronbach's α of the constructs. Regarding validity, the results indicated adequate convergent validity of the constructs, because standardised factor loadings were above .50, average variance extracted (AVEs) were above the threshold of .50, and CRs were above AVEs (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). Additionally, the results indicated adequate discriminant validity of the constructs, because maximum shared variances (MSVs) were greater than AVEs, AVEs were above average shared variance (ASV), and the square root of AVEs (see Table 6.2) exceeded inter-construct correlations (see Table 6.5; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010). Regarding reliability, the results indicated adequate construct reliability, because CR and Cronbach's α values were greater than .70 (Hair et al., 2010; Sekaran, 2003).

Table 6. 4 Modification indices and goodness of fit statistics for confirmatory factor analysis

Modification indices	Values	Goodness of fit statistics
$\chi^2 p$ value	.000	> .05
RMR	.069	< .08
CFI	.963	< .90
TFL	.960	> .90
IFI	.964	> .90
RMSEA	.031	< .05
GFI	.948	\geq .90
PCLOSE	1.000	> .05

Note: $\chi^2 = 1245.327$; $\chi^2/df = 1.311$.

Table 6. 5 Results for validity and CR of CFA

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	SQRT of AVE
Job satisfaction	.905	.763	.041	.013	.873
Organisational commitment	.757	.518	.294	.066	.720
Perceived job alternatives	.960	.925	.018	.009	.962
JE	.714	.562	.294	.070	.749
PA	.889	.501	.056	.022	.708
NA	.801	.504	.041	.016	.710
POP	.854	.500	.015	.006	.707
Turnover intentions	.909	.716	.104	.047	.846

Note: JE = job embeddedness; PA = positive affectivity; NA = negative affectivity; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; MSV = maximum shared variance; ASV = average shared variance; SQRT = square root.

Table 6. 6 Results for Cronbach's α of constructs

	Number of items	Cronbach's α
Job satisfaction	3	.905
Organisational commitment	3	.735
Perceived job alternatives	2	.935
JE	16	.851
Organisational embeddedness	8	.901
Fit	3	.786
Links	2	.722
Sacrifices	3	.775
Community embeddedness	8	.879
Fit	3	.806
Links	2	.748
Sacrifices	3	.776
PA	8	.888
NA	4	.798
POP	6	.864
Turnover intentions	4	.906

Note: α = alpha. JE = job embeddedness; PA = positive affectivity; NA = negative affectivity; POP = perceptions of organisational politics.

6.4 Alternative Factor Models

In this section, I describe comparing alternative CFA models with the hypothesised CFA model to determine which model best fitted the statistics. Table 6.7 shows the components of the factor models, and Table 6.8 shows results relating to alternative CFA models. As noted above, the results indicated that the present study's hypothesised eight-factor model best fitted the statistics when compared with other alternative factor models. The chi-square difference test and goodness of fit indices indicated that all the alternative factor models inadequately fitted the statistics. Thus, because the chi-square difference test and goodness of fit indices indicated a significantly good fit for the hypothesised model at the .001 level, I proceeded with the eight-factor model in the analysis.

Table 6. 7 Components of alternative models

Factor model	Components
Eight-factor	OC, JE, PA, NA, TI, PJA, POP, JS
Seven-factor	OC, JS, NA, TI, PJA, JE, and combined POP, PA
Six-factor	PJA, JS, OC, JE, combined TI, POP, and combined PA, NA
Five-factor	JE, PA, NA, combined OC, JS, POP, and combined PJA, TI
Four-factor	Combined PA, NA, combined JE, POP, combined PJA, TI, and combined OC, JS
Three-factor	Combined POP, NA, JS, combined JE, PJA, and TI, PA, OC
Three-factor	Combined PA, NA, POP, combined JE, TI, and combined JS, OC, PJA
Two-factor	Combined JE, POP, PA, NA, and combined PJA, JS, OC, TI
One-factor	All items loaded on a single factor

Note: JE = job embeddedness; JS = job satisfaction; PJA = perceived job alternatives; TI = turnover intentions; OC = organisational commitment; POP = perceptions of organisational politics; NA = negative affectivity; PA = positive affectivity.

Table 6. 8 Alternative factor models results

Factor model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2_{diff}	<i>df</i> _{diff}	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMSEA	AIC
Eight-factor	1245.327	950	-	-	.963	.960	.964	.031	2137.586
Seven-factor	1819.591	957	574.264***	7	.892	.884	.893	.052	2664.173
Six-factor	2658.836	963	1413.509***	13	.788	.772	.790	.073	3462.550
Five-factor	2732.816	968	1487.489***	18	.780	.764	.781	.074	3502.475
Four-factor	2965.615	972	1720.288***	22	.751	.735	.753	.078	3708.030
Three-factor A	2827.971	968	1582.644***	18	.768	.752	.770	.076	3597.630
Three-factor B	3521.827	975	2276.500***	25	.682	.662	.684	.089	4243.808
Two-factor	3728.191	977	2482.864***	27	.656	.636	.659	.092	4436.549
One-factor	4699.855	978	3454.528***	28	.535	.508	.539	.107	5401.403

Note: N = 334. CFI = comparative fit index; χ^2 = chi-square; *df* = degrees of freedom; *diff* = difference; IFI = incremental fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; AIC = Akaike information criterion. ***p < .001 (two-tailed).

6.5 Common Method Bias Results

As noted in chapter 5, in this study I determined whether CMB was an issue, because CMB is a source of measurement error, that is, an error that menaces the validity of the conclusions about the relationships between measures (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The results of Harman's single factor test are provided in Appendix 4. The results indicated that 11.821% of the variance was explained by the first single factor. Because the variance explained was less than the threshold of 50% (Podsakoff et al., 2003), CMB was a low concern in this study. Appendix 5 shows results of the CLF analysis. The results showed that the delta (i.e., results of the difference between CFA with no CLF and CFA with CLF) of all items were below .2, which indicated that CMB effects were low in the present study. In sum, both CLF analysis and Harman's single factor test results showed that CMB was of low concern in the present study, and that I could proceed with the analysis.

6.6 Correlations

In this section, I describe how I determined the correlations between the predictor variables and criterion variable (i.e., turnover intentions). Table 6.9 shows results relating to means, standard deviations, and correlations. The results indicated that job satisfaction, organisational commitment, composite JE, organisation embeddedness, community embeddedness and NA were correlated with turnover intentions. Additionally, the results showed that perceived job alternatives, PA and marital status were significantly and positively correlated with turnover intentions. However, the results indicated that career stages, POP, gender, age, education, years of employment in the organisation and years of employment in the industry were not significantly correlated with turnover intentions.

Table 6. 9 Correlations matrix

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	
1. Gen	1.332	.472																	
2. Age	2.608	.933	.065																
3. MS	1.249	.433	-.082	-.063															
4. Ed	2.752	.670	-.041	-.110*	-.054														
5. YEO	2.820	1.159	.011	.557***	-.036	-.240***													
6. YEI	3.048	1.170	.036	.711***	-.113*	-.123*	.662***												
7. JS	1.677	.769	.057	-.014	-.003	.028	.027	.052											
8. OC	3.640	1.180	.078	-.028	.037	.015	.005	-.055	.131**										
9. PJA	3.245	1.065	-.010	-.080	-.023	.053	-.093	-.109*	-.024	-.010									
10. JE	2.398	1.363	-.039	.022	.025	.033	.010	-.008	.023	.015	-.077								
11. OE	3.664	.587	.041	.040	.007	-.028	.011	.005	.186**	.218***	-.070	.743***							
12. CE	3.595	.789	-.104	-.007	.029	.079	.005	-.015	.114*	.096	-.052	.724***	.088						
13. POP	3.756	.791	-.036	-.090	.004	-.118*	.017	-.008	-.065	.000	-.015	-.046	-.040	-.031					
14. PA	4.085	.825	.085	-.058	-.025	.066	-.042	-.044	-.016	-.020	-.082	-.018	-.095	.057	.052				
15. NA	3.901	.851	.029	-.006	-.010	-.005	.016	-.072	.089	.060	-.202**	-.040	-.015	-.052	.035	.098			
16. CS	3.721	.986	.024	.586***	-.119*	-.101	.295***	.431***	.070	.006	-.113*	.042	.122*	-.062	-.043	-.102	.082		
17. TI	2.895	1.279	-.029	-.044	.114*	.075	-.052	-.068	-.119*	-.110*	.130*	-.233***	-.186**	-.153**	.133*	.112*	-.174**	-.062	

Note: OE = organisational embeddedness; CE = community embeddedness; JE = job embeddedness; JS = job satisfaction; PJA = perceived job alternatives; TI = turnover intentions; OC = organisational commitment; CS = career stages; POP = perceptions of organisational politics; YEO = years of work in organisation; YEI = years of work in industry; Ed = education; MS = marital status; NA = negative affectivity; PA = positive affectivity. *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001 (two-tailed).

6.7 Results of Hypotheses Testing

As noted in chapter 1, the purpose of the present study was to examine the relationship between JE and turnover intentions, and the potential moderating effects of affectivity traits, career stages and POP on the relationship. To achieve this purpose, I developed hypotheses to be tested (as detailed in chapter 3). In this section, I confirm or reject the hypotheses by using the results of the statistical tools that I employed.

6.7.1 Hypotheses 1a, 1b and 1c

In this sub-section, I describe the process to determine whether composite JE and its dimensions and sub-dimensions predict turnover intentions among managerial employees in the banks that were studied in Ghana. Table 6.10 indicates the goodness of fit indices. The results showed that the model adequately fitted the statistics.

Table 6. 10 Goodness of fit indices

	Values	Goodness of fit statistics
χ^2 <i>p</i> value	.736	> .05
RMR	.043	< .08
CFI	1.00	< .90
IFI	1.01	> .90
TLI	1.02	> .95
AGFI	.971	≥ .90
RMSEA	.000	< .05
GFI	.982	≥ .90
PCLOSE	.999	> .05

Note: $\chi^2 = 35.178$; $\chi^2/df = .858$.

Table 6.11 shows the path relationship between composite JE and turnover intentions. The results indicated a significant and negative relationship between composite JE and turnover intentions. Thus, an increase in composite JE would result in a decrease in turnover intentions

among managerial employees in the selected banks. The results also indicated that JE was a stronger predictor of turnover intentions than perceived job alternatives, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and the six demographic variables. This implies that JE can explain variance in turnover intention above and beyond job satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceived job alternatives and the six demographic variables. Thus, the results supported hypothesis 1a, that composite JE will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

Table 6. 11 Standardised regression weights

	β	SE	t value
TI ← Gender	-.008	.140	-.159
TI ← Age	.011	.102	.142
TI ← Marital status	.114*	.153	2.193
TI ← Education	.083	.098	1.571
TI ← YEO	.018	.079	.261
TI ← YEI	-.056	.090	-.676
TI ← Job satisfaction	-.106*	.056	-2.056
TI ← Perceived job alternatives	.103*	.048	1.998
TI ← Organisational commitment	-.115*	.062	-2.212
TI ← JE	-.226***	.112	-4.374

Note: SE = standard error; YEO = years of work in organisation; YEI = years of work in industry; JE = job embeddedness; TI = turnover intentions. * $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed).

Next, I determined whether the two major dimensions of JE construct (i.e., organisational and community embeddedness) are significantly related to turnover intentions. Table 6.12 shows the goodness of fit indices. The results indicated that the statistics adequately fitted the model.

Table 6. 12 Goodness of fit indices

	Values	Goodness of fit statistics
$\chi^2 p$ value	.751	> .05
RMR	.039	< .08
CFI	1.00	< .90
IFI	1.01	> .90
TLI	1.02	> .95
AGFI	.968	\geq .90
RMSEA	.000	< .05
GFI	.980	\geq .90
PCLOSE	1.000	> .05

Note: $\chi^2 = 41.990$; $\chi^2/df = .857$.

Table 6.13 shows the path relationships between the two JE dimensions and turnover intentions. The results indicated a significant and negative relationship between organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions, and community embeddedness and turnover intentions. Thus, bank employees occupying managerial positions who are more deeply embedded in their organisation and residential community are likely to report relatively lower turnover intentions than those who are not deeply embedded. Additionally, the results indicated that bank managers report lower turnover intentions when they are more embedded in their organisation than when they are embedded in their residential community. The results also indicated that both organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness explain variance in turnover intentions above and beyond that explained by job satisfaction, perceived job alternatives, organisational commitment, gender, age, marital status, education, and years of employment in the organisation and industry. Thus, the results support hypothesis 1b, that organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

Table 6. 13 Standardised regression weights

	(β)	SE	t value
TI \leftarrow Gender	-.009	.140	-.166
TI \leftarrow Age	.011	.102	.144
TI \leftarrow Marital status	.114*	.153	2.194
TI \leftarrow Education	.083	.098	1.570
TI \leftarrow YEO	.019	.079	.264
TI \leftarrow YEI	-.056	.090	-.677
TI \leftarrow Job satisfaction	-.107*	.056	-2.054
TI \leftarrow Perceived job alternatives	.103*	.048	1.975
TI \leftarrow Organisational commitment	-.114*	.062	-2.200
TI \leftarrow Organisation embeddedness	-.153**	.084	-2.952
TI \leftarrow Community embeddedness	-.149**	.084	-2.868

Note: SE = standard error; YEO = years of work in organisation; YEI = years of work in industry; TI = turnover intentions. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

In the following set of results, I focus on the relationships between the six sub-dimensions of the JE construct and turnover intentions to determine how each sub-dimension is related with turnover intentions. Table 6.14 shows the goodness of fit indices, and the results indicated a good model fit.

Table 6. 14 Goodness of fit indices

	Values	Goodness of fit statistics
$\chi^2 p$ value	.441	> .05
RMR	.038	< .08
CFI	.999	< .90
IFI	.999	> .90
TLI	.999	> .95
AGFI	.950	\geq .90
RMSEA	.007	< .05
GFI	.970	\geq .90
PCLOSE	1.000	> .05

Note: $\chi^2 = 83.255$; $\chi^2/df = 1.015$.

Table 6.15 shows the path relationships between the sub-dimensions of JE and turnover intentions. The results showed significant and negative relationships between organisation fit and turnover intentions, organisation links and turnover intentions, organisation sacrifice and turnover intentions, community links and turnover intentions, and community sacrifice and turnover intentions. However, the results showed no statistically significant relationship between community fit and turnover intentions. The results indicated that organisation sacrifice is the strongest predictor of turnover intentions among bank employees in managerial positions. In other words, organisation sacrifice lowers managers' turnover intentions to a greater extent than community sacrifice, and organisation fit and links does. The results partially support hypothesis 1c, that the JE sub-dimensions of links, fit and sacrifice will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

Table 6. 15 Standardised regression weights

	β	SE	t value
TI \leftarrow Gender	-.010	.139	-.199
TI \leftarrow Age	.013	.101	.174
TI \leftarrow Marital status	.123*	.151	2.394
TI \leftarrow Education	.053	.097	1.012
TI \leftarrow YEO	.063	.078	.902
TI \leftarrow YEI	.038	.089	-1.244
TI \leftarrow Job satisfaction	-.108*	.055	-2.118
TI \leftarrow Perceived job alternatives	.114*	.048	2.229
TI \leftarrow Organisational commitment	-.052	.064	-.980
TI \leftarrow Organisation fit	-.074*	.119	-1.986
TI \leftarrow Organisation links	-.101*	.091	-2.541
TI \leftarrow Organisation sacrifice	-.166**	.104	-2.137
TI \leftarrow Community fit	.061	.111	.930
TI \leftarrow Community links	-.083*	.059	-2.041
TI \leftarrow Community sacrifice	-.130*	.073	-2.606

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed). SE = standard error; YEO = years of work in organisation; YEI = years of work in industry; TI = turnover intentions.

At this juncture, I provide a summary of the key results relating to hypotheses 1a, 1b and 1c in Table 6.16. The results support hypothesis 1a, that composite JE predicts turnover intentions. Hypothesis 1b is also supported, because organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness are negatively related to turnover intentions. Finally, the results partially support hypothesis 1c because links, fit and sacrifice in the organisation, and links and sacrifice, but not fit, in the community are negatively related to turnover intentions.

Table 6. 16 Support or rejection of hypotheses 1a, 1b and 1c

Structural path	Hypotheses	β	t value	Support
Turnover intentions ← job embeddedness	H1a	-.226***	-4.374	Yes
Turnover intentions ← organisation embeddedness	H1b	-.153**	-2.952	Yes
Turnover intentions ← community embeddedness	H1b	-.149**	-2.868	Yes
Turnover intentions ← organisation links	H1c	-.101*	-2.541	Yes
Turnover intentions ← organisation fit	H1c	-.074*	-1.986	Yes
Turnover intentions ← organisation sacrifice	H1c	-.166**	-2.137	Yes
Turnover intentions ← community links	H1c	-.083*	-2.041	Yes
Turnover intentions ← community fit	H1c	.061	.930	No
Turnover intentions ← community sacrifice	H1c	-.130*	-2.606	Yes

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001 (two-tailed).

6.7.2 Hypotheses 2a, 2b and 2c

As noted in chapter 5, I used PROCESS macro to determine the conditional effects of JE on turnover intentions. In this section, I describe the process of determining whether NA and PA moderated the relationship between JE and turnover intentions. Table 6.17 shows results relating to the moderating effects of NA on the relationship between JE and turnover intentions. Prior to introducing the interaction terms, the results indicated an adequately fit model, $F(14, 319) = 3.7097$; $p < .001$. The results also showed an R^2 of .1400, which means that approximately 14% of the variance in turnover intentions was explained by JE, PA, NA, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceived job alternatives and the six demographic variables. When interaction 1 was introduced, the results indicated a ΔR^2 of .0179, which means that the interaction between NA and JE explained approximately 2% of the variance in turnover intentions in a good fitted model, $F(1, 319) = 6.6417$; $p < .05$. When interaction 2 was introduced, the results showed a ΔR^2 of .0126, suggesting that the interaction between PA and JE explained about 1% of the variance in turnover intentions in

a good fitted model, $F(1, 319) = 4.6896$; $p < .05$. When both interaction 1 and 2 were introduced, the results indicated an adequate fitted model, $F(2, 319) = 4.9729$, $p < .01$. The results also showed a ΔR^2 of .0268, which signified that both interaction terms explained approximately 3% of the variance in turnover intentions.

Further, the results indicated that the interaction between NA and JE is significantly and positively related to turnover intentions ($B = .2894$, $LLCI = .5103$, $ULCI = .0685$). Thus, an increase in the interaction between NA and job embeddedness will result in a decrease in turnover intentions of managerial bank employees. In other words, NA moderated the relationship between JE and turnover intentions among employees in managerial positions in selected banks in Ghana. Finally, the results showed that the interaction between PA and JE was significantly and negatively related to turnover intentions ($B = -.2725$, $LLCI = -.0249$, $ULCI = -.5201$). This suggests that an increase in the interaction between PA and JE will lead to an increase in turnover intentions. Thus, the results indicated that PA moderated the relationship between JE and turnover intentions among the managerial employees. The results support hypothesis 2a, that affectivity traits of PA and NA will moderate the JE and turnover intentions negative relationship.

Table 6. 17 Moderating effects of PA and NA on job embeddedness and turnover intentions

	B	Boot SE	t value	95% bootstrapped CI	
				LLCI	ULCI
Constant	3.9086	2.4339	1.6059	-.8799	8.6972
Gender	-.0116	.1176	-.0989	-.2429	.2197
Age	.0603	.0853	.7072	-.1075	.2281
Marital status	.2869*	.1280	2.2408	.0350	.5388
Education	.1501	.0825	1.8180	-.0123	.3124
YEO	.0342	.0655	.5226	-.0947	.1632
YEI	-.0678	.0764	-.8867	-.2182	.0826
Job satisfaction	-.0666	.0469	-1.4197	-.1588	.0257
Organisational commitment	-.0943	.0525	-1.7984	-.1975	.0089
Perceived job alternatives	.0624	.0416	1.5006	-.0194	.1442
JE	-.1478*	.1351	-2.1701	-.3862	-.1638
NA	-.2667*	.1474	-2.3592	-1.7879	-.1456
Int_1 (NA_×_JE)	.2894*	.1123	2.5772	.0685	.5103
PA	.1386	.2649	1.8254	-.0569	1.7725
Int_2 (PA_×_JE)	-.2725*	.1259	-2.1360	-.5201	-.0249
		R = .3742			
		R ² = .1400	F(14, 319) = .7097***		
	R ² increase due to interactions				
	Interaction 1 (NA_×_JE)	ΔR ² = .0179	F(1, 319) = 6.6417*		
	Interaction 2 (PA_×_JE)	ΔR ² = .0126	F(1, 319) = 4.6896*		
	Both	ΔR ² = .0268	F(2, 319) = 4.9729**		

Note: YEO = years of work in organisation; YEI = years of work in industry; NA = negative affectivity; PA = positive affectivity; JE = job embeddedness; LLCI = lower level confidence interval; ULCI = upper level confidence interval. SE = standard error. *p < .05; ***p < .001 (two-tailed).

Table 6.18 provides the results relating to the conditional effects of JE and turnover intentions at values of PA and NA. The results indicated that the significant and negative relationship between JE and turnover intentions was strongest among managerial employees who were low in PA, followed by those who were average in PA, and then those who were high in PA. In other words, the relationship between JE and turnover intentions is strengthened among low PAs, but weakened among high PAs. This suggests that high PA managerial employees

are less likely to be embedded in jobs and thus report higher turnover intentions than their counterparts who are low in PA. Thus, the results support hypothesis 2b, that the inverse nexus between JE and turnover intentions will be weaker among high PAs relative to low PAs. Further, the results showed that the significant and negative relationship between JE and turnover intentions was strongest among managerial employees who were high in NA, followed by those who were average in NA, and then those who were low in NA. That is, the inverse nexus between JE and turnover intentions is strengthened among high NAs, but weakened among low NAs. This denotes that managerial employees who are high in NA are more likely to be embedded in their jobs, and thus report lower turnover intentions, than those who are low in NA. In other words, high NA managerial employees make stronger decisions to stay in their jobs than do managerial employees who are low in NA. Therefore, employees in managerial positions who have high NA traits are more likely to be embedded in their jobs, and thus report lower turnover intentions, than those who have low NA traits. The results support hypothesis 2c, that the inverse relationship between JE and turnover intentions will be stronger among high NAs relative to low NAs.

Table 6. 18 Conditional effects of job embeddedness and turnover intentions

B	Boot SE	t value	95% bootstrapped CI	
			LLCI	ULCI

Low NA	Low PA	-.18324*	.1649	-2.1392	-.1466	-.0976
Average NA	Low PA	-.2286**	.1496	-2.286	-.3263	-.1742
High NA	Low PA	-.2361**	.1652	-2.3214	-.2412	-.1317
Low NA	Average PA	-.1973*	.1289	-2.1531	-.4509	-.0562
Average NA	Average PA	-.2537*	.0947	-2.6084	-.2924	-.0386
High NA	Average PA	-.3642**	.1398	-2.5137	-.4462	-.1348
Low NA	High PA	-.2053*	.1660	-2.4853	-.3541	-.2364
Average NA	High PA	-.2187 *	.0839	-2.7142	-.2706	-.0847
High NA	High PA	-.4852*	.1143	-2.9471	-.2751	-.0493

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01 (two-tailed).

Figure 6.2 illustrates the moderating effects of PA and NA on the relationship between JE and turnover intentions. The results indicated that the relationship was strongest among managerial employees who are high in NA (i.e., 4.75 on the graph). However, the figure illustrates that the relationship between JE and turnover intentions was weakest among those who are high in PA (i.e., 4.91 on the graph).

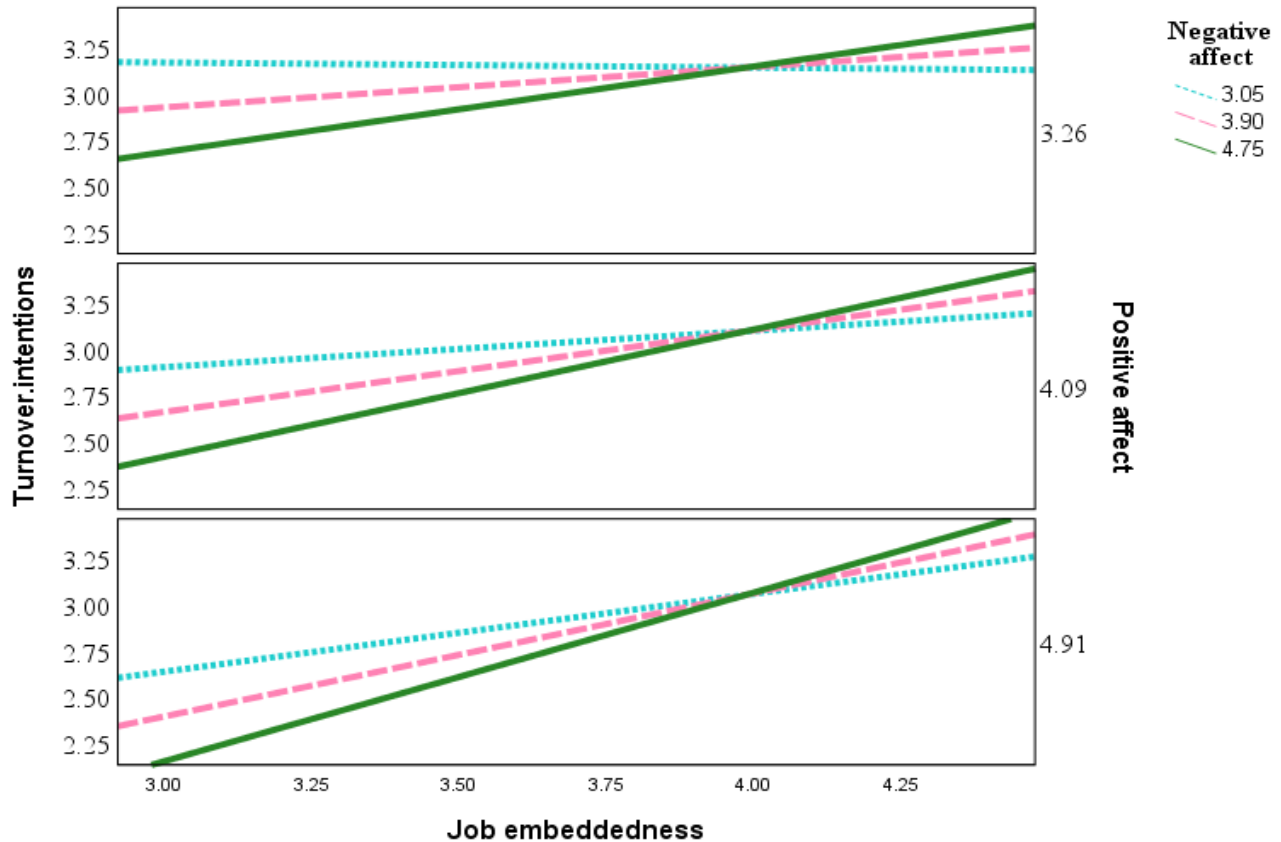


Figure 6. 2 Interaction effects of PA and NA on the JE–turnover intentions relationship

A summary of the results for hypotheses 2a, 2b and 2c are shown in Table 6.19. The results support hypothesis 2a because PA and NA moderated the relationship between JE and turnover intentions. The JE–turnover intentions relationship is also weak among managers who are high in PA, but strong among those who are low in PA, which supports hypothesis 2b. Thus, managerial employees who are low in PA are more likely to be embedded in their jobs, and eventually report lower intentions to leave their jobs than those who are high in PA. The relationship was stronger among high NA managerial employees than among low NA managerial employees, which supports hypothesis 2c. That is, high NA managers become more embedded in their jobs and think less about leaving their jobs than those who are low in NA.

Table 6. 19 Support or rejection of hypotheses 2a, 2b and 2c

Structural path	Hypothesis	B	t value	Support
NA moderates job embeddedness–turnover intentions relationship	H2a	.2894*	2.5772	Yes
PA moderates job embeddedness–turnover intentions relationship	H2a	-.2725*	- 2.1656	Yes
High PA	H2b	-.2187*	-2.7142	Yes
High NA	H2c	-.2361**	-2.3214	Yes

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01 (two-tailed).

6.7.3 Hypotheses 3a and 3b

In this section, I present results that ascertain whether career stage moderates the relationship between JE and turnover intentions, and at what career stage is the relationship strongest. Table 6.20 contains statistics relating to the moderating effect of career stage on the relationship between JE and turnover intentions. Before introducing the interaction term, the results indicated that the model significantly fitted the statistics, $F(12, 321) = 4.0510$; $p < .001$. The results also showed an R^2 of .1118. This means that approximately 11% of the variance in turnover intentions is explained by JE, career stage, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceived job alternatives and the six demographic variables. After introducing the interaction term, the results showed an adequate model fit, $F(1, 321) = 6.5250$; $p < .05$. In addition, the results showed that a ΔR^2 of .0153 was obtained, which means that the interaction between career stage and JE explained approximately 2% of the variance in turnover intentions. Further, the results showed that the interaction between career stage and JE is significantly and positively related to turnover intentions ($B = .2929$, $LLCI = .5186$, $ULCI = .0673$). That is, career stage moderated the relationship between JE and turnover intentions among managerial employees in the selected banks in Ghana. In other

words, how bank managers perceive their career stage moderates the JE–turnover intentions relationship. Thus, hypothesis 3a was supported.

Table 6.20 Moderating effect of career stage on job embeddedness and turnover intentions

	B	Boot SE	t value	95% bootstrapped CI	
				LLCI	ULCI
Constant	2.6637***	.4959	5.3715	1.6881	3.6393
Gender	.0344	.1191	.2888	−.1998	.2686
Age	.0233	.0858	.2714	−.1456	.1922
Marital status	.2802	.1359	1.7243	.0129	.5476
Education	.1455	.0844	1.7050	−.0205	.3116
YEO	.0327	.0699	.4670	−.1049	.1703
YEI	−.0712	.0809	−.8794	−.2303	.0880
Job satisfaction	−.0871	.0587	−1.7747	−.1836	.0094
Organisational commitment	−.0832	.0543	−1.5312	−.1900	.0237
Perceived job alternatives	.0647	.0418	1.5463	−.0176	.1470
Job embeddedness	−.3886***	.0946	−4.1075	−.5747	−.2025
Career stage	.0122	.0818	.1495	−.1488	.1732
Int_1 (Career stage × Job embeddedness)	.2929*	.1147	2.5544	.0673	.5186
			R = .3344	F(12, 321) = 4.0510***	
	ΔR^2 (due to interaction) = .0153		R ² = .1118	F(1, 321) = 6.5250*	

Note: SE = standard error; YEO = years of work in organisation; YEI = years of work in industry; LLCI = lower level confidence interval; ULCI = upper level confidence interval. *p < .05; ***p < .001 (two-tailed).

Table 6.21 shows the conditional effects of career stage on the JE–turnover intentions relationship. The results indicated that the relationship between JE and turnover intentions is significant and negative among mid-career and late career managerial employees. That is, the inverse relationship between JE and turnover intentions is strengthened when employees are in their late and mid career stages. However, the results indicated that the relationship between JE and turnover intentions is not significant among early career managerial employees. This means that the slope of the JE–turnover intentions relationship begins with

mid-career managerial employees and attains its peak with late career managerial employees. The results also demonstrated that the relationship between JE and turnover intentions is strongest among managerial employees who perceive themselves to be in late career stage, followed by those in mid-career stage, then those in early career stage. Thus, bank managers who perceive themselves to be in the late career stage are most embedded in their jobs, which in turn influences their turnover intentions. The results support hypothesis 3b, that the JE–turnover intentions inverse relationship will be stronger among mid- and late career employees relative to early career employees.

Table 6. 21 Conditional effect of job embeddedness and turnover intentions

		B	Boot SE	t value	95% bootstrapped CI	
					LLCI	ULCI
Early	career	-.1904	.1357	-1.4028	-.4573	.0766
stage						
Mid-career stage		-.3886***	.0946	-4.1075	-.5747	-.2025
Late career stage		-.6139***	.1132	-5.4230	-.8367	-.3912

Note: ***p < .001 (two-tailed).

Figure 6.3 illustrates the moderating effect of career stage on the JE–turnover intentions relationship, which shows that the relationship is strongest among late career managerial employees.

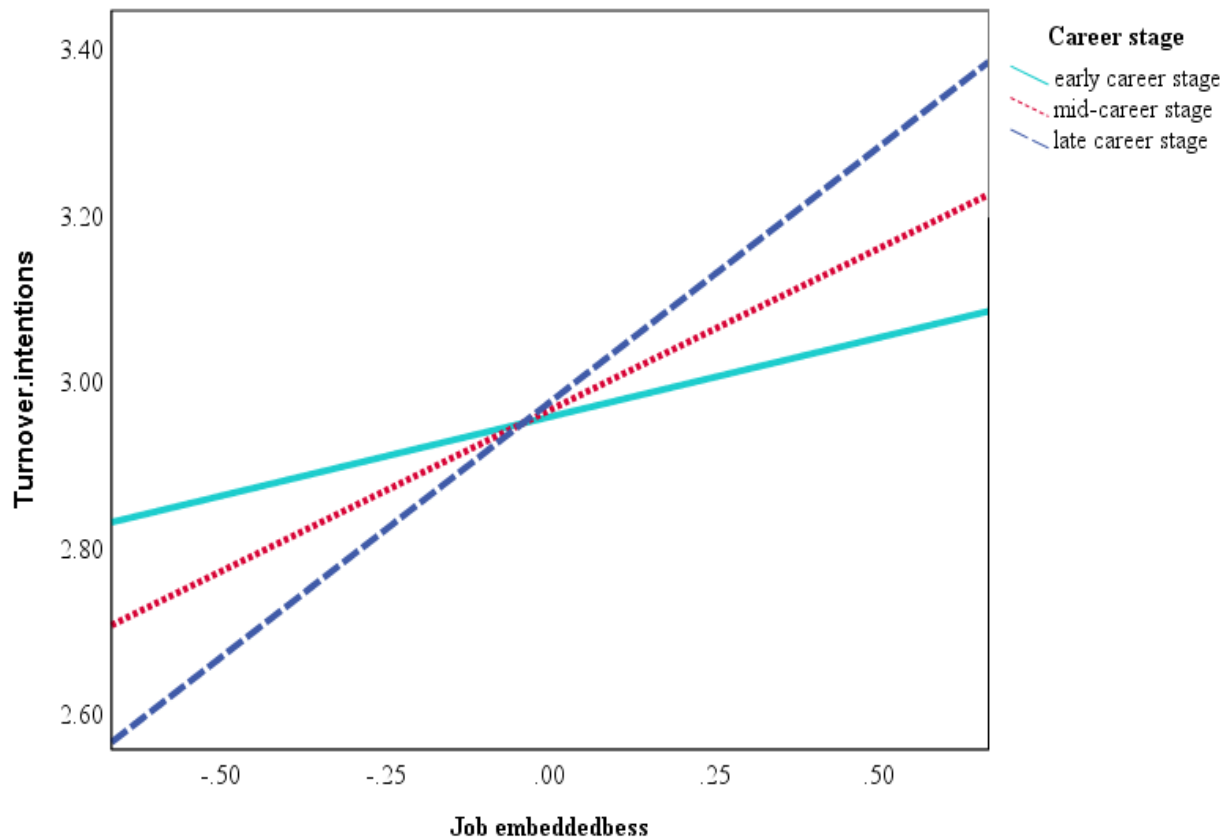


Figure 6. 3 Interaction of career stages and JE on turnover intentions

Table 6.22 provides a summary of results relating to hypotheses 3a and 3b. The results support hypothesis 3, that career stage will moderate the relationship between JE and turnover intentions, such that mid- and late career managerial employees, but not early career managerial employees, will be embedded in their jobs and report lower turnover intentions. The results suggested that managerial employees who perceived themselves to be in mid- and late career stage were embedded in their jobs. However, managerial employees who perceived themselves to be in the late career stage were more embedded in their jobs than mid-career managerial employees, and therefore reported lower turnover intentions.

Table 6. 22 Support or rejection of hypotheses 3a and 3b

Structural path	Hypothesis	B	t value	Support
Career stage moderating job embeddedness and turnover intentions	H3a	.2929*	2.5544	Yes
Early career managerial employees		-.1904	-1.4028	No
Mid-career managerial employees	H3b	-.3886***	-4.1075	Yes
Late career managerial employees		-.6139***	-5.4230	Yes

Note: *p < .05; ***p < .001 (two-tailed).

6.7.4 Hypotheses 4a and 4b

In this section, I present results that determined whether POP moderated the relationship between organisational embeddedness and turnover intentions. Table 6.23 contains statistics relating to the moderating effect of POP on the relationship between organisational embeddedness and turnover intentions. Without the interaction term, the results indicated a significant model fit, $F(12, 321) = 4.1440$, $p < .01$. The results also indicated an R^2 of .1749, which means that approximately 17% of the variance in turnover intentions was explained by organisation embeddedness, POP, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, perceived job alternatives and the six demographic control variables. With the introduction of the interaction term, the results showed that the model fitted the statistics, $F(1, 321) = 2.8919$; $p < .01$. In addition, the results showed a ΔR^2 of .0115, which means that the interaction between POP and organisation embeddedness explained approximately 1% of the variance in turnover intentions. Further, the results indicated that the interaction between POP and organisation embeddedness is significantly and negatively related to turnover intentions ($B = -.1463$, $LLCI = .2575$, $ULCI = -.0502$). Thus, POP moderates the organisation embeddedness–turnover intentions relationship among managerial employees in the selected banks in Ghana, which supports hypothesis 4a.

Table 6. 23 Moderating effect of POP on organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions

	B	Boot SE	t value	95% bootstrapped CI	
				LLCI	ULCI
Constant	2.6782***	.5049	5.3046	1.6849	3.6716
Gender	.0324	.1208	.2679	-.2053	.2701
Age	.0257	.0820	.3129	-.1357	.1870
Marital status	.2989*	.1368	2.1847	.0296	.5682
Education	.1035	.0871	1.1871	-.0680	.2749
YEO	.0146	.0712	.2054	-.1255	.1548
YEI	-.0530	.0820	-.6463	-.2142	.1083
Job satisfaction	-.0805	.0488	-1.6494	-.1765	.0155
Organisational commitment	-.0723	.0540	-1.3395	-.1785	.0339
Perceived job alternatives	.0665	.0439	1.5127	-.0200	.1529
POP	.1100	.1311	1.9473	-.3679	.1479
Organisation embeddedness	-.2088**	.0732	-2.8527	-.3529	-.0648
Int_1 (POP_x_OE)	-.1463*	.0956	-2.1039	-.2575	-.0502
		R = .2736	F(12, 321) = 4.1440**		
	ΔR^2 (due to interaction) = .0115*	R ² = .1749	F(1, 321) = 2.8919**		

Note: SE = standard error; YEO = years of work in organisation; YEI = years of work in industry; LLCI = lower level confidence interval; ULCI = upper level confidence interval; POP = Perceptions of organisational politics. *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001 (two-tailed).

Table 6.24 shows the conditional effects of POP on the relationship between organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions. The results demonstrated that the organisation embeddedness–turnover intentions relationship was significant and negative among managerial employees who perceive low, average and high organisational politics. The results indicated that the relationship between organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions was weakest among managerial employees who perceive high organisational politics, followed by those who perceive average organisational politics, and then those who perceive low organisational politics. In other words, the negative relationship between organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions is strengthened when POP is low, but

weakened when POP is high. Thus, the slope of the organisation embeddedness–turnover intentions relationship attains its lowest point at high POP. The results support hypothesis 4b, that the JE–turnover intentions inverse relationship will be weaker when POP is high relative to when POP is low.

Table 6. 24 Conditional effect of organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions

	B	Boot SE	t value	95% bootstrapped CI	
				LLCI	ULCI
Low POP	–.2293**	.0978	–2.3438	–.4217	–.0368
Average POP	–.2088**	.0732	–2.8527	–.3529	–.0648
High POP	–.1884*	.0722	–1.9855	–.3895	–.0127

Note: POP = Perceptions of organisational politics. *p < .05; **p < .01 (two-tailed).

Figure 6.4 illustrates the moderating effect of POP on the relationship between organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions relationship, which indicates that the relationship weakens among managerial employees who perceive high levels of politics in the organisation but increases among those who perceive low levels of politics in the organisation.

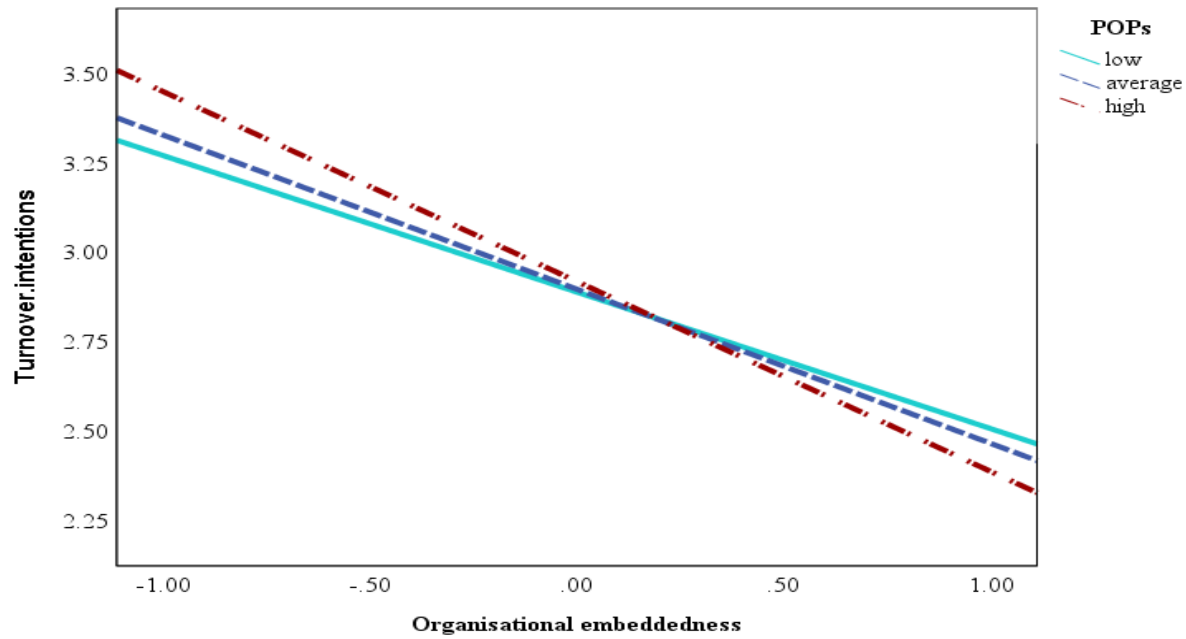


Figure 6. 4 Interaction of POP and organisation embeddedness on turnover intentions

A summary of results relating to hypotheses 4a and 4b is contained in Table 6.25. The results demonstrated that POP moderated the organisation embeddedness–turnover intentions relationship. The results also demonstrated that the organisation embeddedness–turnover intentions relationship was weak among managerial employees who perceived high political activities in the organisation. The results support hypothesis 4.

Table 6. 25 Support or rejection of hypotheses 4a and 4b

Structural path	Hypothesis	B	t value	Support
Organisational embeddedness moderating job embeddedness and turnover intentions	H4a	-.1463*	-2.1039	Yes
High POP	H4b	-.1884*	-1.9855	Yes
Low POP		-.2293**	-2.3438	

Note: POP = Perceptions of organisational politics. *p < .05; **p < .01 (two-tailed).

6.7.5 Summary of Results for Hypotheses

As noted in chapter 1, the purpose of the present study was to demonstrate the relationship between JE and turnover intentions among managerial employees in selected banks in Ghana, as well as the moderating effects of affectivity traits, career stage and POP on the relationship. Table 6.26 provides a summary of results. The results demonstrated that composite JE was significantly and negatively related to turnover intentions, which supports hypothesis 1a. The results also supported hypothesis 1b by demonstrating that organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness were significantly and negatively related to turnover intentions. Moreover, the results showed that fit (organisation but not community), links (organisation and community) sacrifices (organisation and community) were significantly and negatively related to turnover intentions, which supports hypothesis 1c.

Further, the results largely supported the moderation hypotheses. First, the results supported hypothesis 2 by demonstrating that affectivity traits moderate the JE–turnover intentions relationship, such that bank employees in managerial positions who are high in NA are more embedded in their jobs than those who are high in PA. Second, the results demonstrated that career stage moderated the relationship between JE and turnover intentions, such that bank employees in managerial positions who perceive themselves to be in the late career stage are most embedded in their jobs, followed by those who perceive themselves to be in the mid-career stage. The results therefore support hypothesis 3. Finally, the results support hypothesis 4 by demonstrating that POP moderated the relationship between organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions, such that managerial employees who perceived high organisational politics are less embedded in their jobs, while those who perceive low

organisational politics are more embedded in their jobs. In the next chapter, I discuss the results of this study in relation to the literature.

Table 6. 26 Summary of results for hypotheses

	Hypotheses	Support
Job embeddedness will be negatively related to turnover intentions.	H1a	Yes
Organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness will be negatively related to turnover intentions.	H1b	Yes
Job embeddedness sub-dimensions of links, fit and sacrifice will be negatively related to turnover intentions.	H1c	Partial
Affectivity traits will moderate the job embeddedness and turnover intentions relationship.	H2a	Yes
The job embeddedness–turnover intentions inverse relationship will be weaker among high PAs relative to low PAs.	H2b	Yes
The job embeddedness–turnover intentions inverse relationship will be stronger among high NAs relative to low NAs.	H2c	Yes
Career stages will moderate the job embeddedness and turnover intentions relationship.	H3a	Yes
The job embeddedness–turnover intentions inverse relationship will be stronger among mid- and late career employees relative to early career employees.	H3b	
Perceptions of organisational politics will moderate the organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions relationship.	H4a	Yes
The job embeddedness–turnover intentions inverse relationship will be weaker when perceptions of organisational politics is high relative to when perceptions of organisational politics is low.	H4b	Yes

6.8 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I presented the results of this study by providing key tables and figures. Results on participants' demographic profiles were important for this study because employees' demographic characteristics influence their job embeddedness. In the preliminary analysis, the results indicated that the constructs were normally distributed, the assumption of multicollinearity was not violated and there were no outliers. After that, I conducted a CFA. In the CFA, I deleted some items from the analysis because of poor standardised factor loadings, before I proceeded with the analysis. The results showed that all the constructs obtained adequate discriminant and convergent validity, and reliability. Thereafter, I developed and compared alternative CFA models to the hypothesised eight-factor model. The results indicated that the hypothesised model best fitted the statistics, thus it was used for the study. Additionally, the CLF analysis and Harman's single factor test results showed CMB effects were acceptably low in this study. The results also showed significant correlations between the predictor variables and turnover intentions. I tested hypothesis 1 by using SEM path analysis. The results showed significant and negative relationships between composite JE and turnover intentions, organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions, and community embeddedness and turnover intentions. The results also showed that organisation fit, organisation links, organisation sacrifices, community links and community sacrifices (but not community fit) were significantly and negatively related to turnover intentions. I examined the moderation effects by using PROCESS macro Model 1 and 2, and the results indicated that affectivity traits, career stages, and POP all moderated the JE–turnover intentions relationship.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

This chapter discusses the results of the present study in relation to the literature review. The discussion of results is divided into five sections. The first section of this chapter discusses the result that JE (as a composite construct) incrementally and negatively predicted turnover intentions, above that predicted by organisational commitment, perceived job alternatives, job satisfaction, age and gender. The first section also discusses the results showing that both organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness were negatively related to turnover intentions, after controlling for the effects of job satisfaction, perceived job alternatives, organisational commitment, gender and age. The second section discusses the result that the relationship between JE and turnover intentions was moderated by affectivity traits (i.e., NA and PA). In the third section, the result that career stages had moderating effects on the relationship between JE and turnover intentions are discussed. This chapter's fourth section discusses the result that POP moderated the relationship between organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions. The final section of this chapter discusses the result that affectivity traits (i.e., NA), among all the moderator variables, had the strongest moderating effect on the JE–turnover intentions relationship.

7.1 Job Embeddedness and Turnover Intentions

7.1.1 Job embeddedness (composite and dimensions) relationships with turnover intentions

This study found a significant and negative relationship between composite JE and turnover intentions. The results also showed significant and negative relationships between organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions, and community embeddedness and

turnover intentions. The results support hypothesis 1a, that JE (as a composite construct) will be negatively related to turnover intentions. The results of this study also support hypothesis 1b, that organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness will be negatively related to turnover intentions. The results indicated that the turnover intentions of managerial employees are not only influenced by their affect-driven attitudes towards their work and organisation, and the perceived job opportunities in the labour market, but that there are a number of other factors in the organisation and residential community that also influence them. In other words, the intentions of managers to leave their jobs are better explained by their interrelated connections of both on- and off-the-job forces, than merely by job attitudes and perceived job alternatives.

These results are not surprising for the following reasons. First, the cultural context of the study was significant in the results, because Ghanaians exhibit high uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 2001), and they may be reluctant to leave their current job and seek another because of the uncertainty associated with changing workplaces. People in Ghana also believe in the extended family system and in building strong, lasting and intimate relationships, such that it would be difficult for them to break their ties with friends and families for a job relocation. This argument is congruent with Ramesh and Gelfand's (2010) assertion that individuals in collectivist countries prefer fewer and more intimate relationships with others around them. Second, there is high prestige, and lucrative rewards (e.g., car loan, home loan, good pension plans) attached to bank jobs in Ghana. Ghana is a high power distance society, where many people do not have the opportunity to rise to the top, and there is a large gap between the wealthy and the poor (Boateng & Agyemang, 2015; Hofstede, 2001; Puni & Anlesinya, 2017). Therefore, to become a manager in a universal

bank in Ghana reflects substantial career progression, which brings prestige, and could bring one closer to wealthy living. Managers would have to make a number of sacrifices if they left their bank jobs, which they would find difficult to do. This is consistent with the idea that people who perceive that they are making significant sacrifices by quitting would find it difficult to leave their jobs (Mitchell et al. 2001; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010; Shaw et al., 1998). Third, Ghana is a developing country, and many communities lack basic social services that are provided by organisations, such as health centres, public schools and police stations. For instance, security is paramount to everyone, and the high rate of violent crime such as murder, armed robbery and rape in some communities in Ghana (Adu-Mireku, 2002; Appiahene-Gyamfi, 2002) can embed managers in banks that are located close to safe residential communities. Most of these social vices occur in slums and deprived communities in which literacy is low, unemployment is high and the standard of living is extremely low. The elites, including managerial employees, rarely inhabit these communities. Finally, many Ghanaians, for a variety of reasons, such as poor road networks, prefer to spend time with friends and family in their neighbourhood. Thus, managers who reside in communities that have recreational and entertainment facilities (e.g., football fields, tennis courts, pubs) will be reluctant to leave their jobs if that requires a change of residential community.

The results of the present study are consistent with the results of previous studies, that JE is significantly and negatively related to turnover intentions (e.g., Afsar, Shahjehan, & Shah, 2018; Coetzer et al., 2017; Karatepe, 2013a). Further, this study's results are in line with the results of prior research that organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness are significantly and negatively related to turnover intentions (e.g., Coetzer et al., 2019; Harris et al., 2011; Hussain & Deery, 2018; Jiang et al., 2012; Munyon et al., 2019). Given that the

applicability of JE needs to be examined in different cultural contexts (Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010), the results of the present study are important because they extend the generalisability of JE by demonstrating the predictive validity of the construct in Ghana. Thus, the results demonstrate that JE theory is applicable in Ghana, such that the construct explicates significant variance in the turnover intentions of bank managers, beyond the variance explicated by job alternatives and affectively charged variables.

7.1.2 The organisation embeddedness–turnover intentions nexus is stronger than the community embeddedness–turnover intention link

The results of this study also demonstrate that the negative relationship between organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions is stronger than the negative relationship between community embeddedness and turnover intentions. Thus, bank managers who are embedded in their organisation report lower intentions to quit their jobs, than bank managers who are embedded in their residential community. The results are consistent with previous findings that the relationship between organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions is stronger than the relationship between community embeddedness and turnover intentions (e.g., Dawley & Andrews, 2012; Jiang et al., 2012). However, this study's results are inconsistent with earlier research that found individuals from collectivistic cultures were embedded in their jobs mainly as a result of community factors rather than organisation factors (e.g., Mallol et al., 2007; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). A possible interpretation of the present study's results is that the HR practices employed in most organisations tend to increase employees' embeddedness within the organisation, but not within the community. For example, the non-portable benefits (e.g., pension benefits) that organisations offer may make it difficult for employees to quit the organisation, but less difficult for them to accept transfers that require

community relocation. Organisations focus on strategies that embed employees with the organisation because many turnover intentions and decisions do not require geographic relocation, or a longer commute distance (Allen, 2006; Deding, Filges, & Van Ommeren, 2009; Zhang et al., 2012). In such circumstances, several different factors may embed managers with their organisations, but factors that may embed managers in the community would not vary because managers can change employers without leaving their residential community. Thus, different organisations may offer different benefits to enhance managers' organisation embeddedness in the same residential community. Given that a large number of this study's participants were drawn from metropolitan and municipal assemblies (i.e., larger communities in Ghana), managers may be embedded with the organisation more than in the community because they can change jobs without relocating. The present study's results are consistent with the assertion that community embeddedness may have little impact on inter-organisational mobility in large metropolitan areas, because the larger the community, the easier it is for people to change jobs without geographically relocating (Lee et al., 2012).

Another possible interpretation of these results relates to the many financial obligations that employees must meet. Brief, Brett, Raskas and Stein (1997) asserted that employees who have more financial dependants within their immediate and extended family are more likely to regard work as a life-supporting tool than their counterparts, who have fewer financial obligations to meet. Managers employed in banks in Ghana are likely to face many financial obligations, given the belief in the extended family system, the high unemployment rate, and the generally low salaries and poor conditions of service in non-banking sectors in Ghana (Baah-Boateng, 2013; Ohemeng, 2009). Nukunya (2003) asserted that the extended family system in Ghana often leaves an individual with wide-ranging mutual duties, obligations and

responsibilities to relatives beyond his or her immediate conjugal family. Kuada (2009) asserted that the family system in Africa often creates and bolsters financial dependency of the majority on the few such that “family members in need have the right to demand assistance from those they perceive to have the means to assist” (p. 91). Wealthy members of the family are expected to meet and support the economic demands of other family members, such as paying for their education and medical bills, and providing start-up working capital for forming small business (Blunt & Jones, 1997; Kuada, 2009; Sørensen, 2003). Ghana’s sociocultural and economic environment places a wide set of obligations on the richer members of family and society because family members, neighbours and close associates depend on them for economic support (Hanson, 2003; La Ferrara & Milazzo, 2017; Takyi & Gyimah, 2007). Given the reward packages (e.g., salary, home loans, good pension plans, car loans) offered to bank employees in Ghana (Nyukorong, 2014; Sarpong, 2016), managers are likely to have to meet many financial needs from family members, friends and the larger community. In sum, bank employees in managerial positions become enmeshed in the organisation and think less about leaving because they receive relatively better reward packages, particularly salaries, from the organisation, which enable them to meet the financial needs of extended family members and friends.

7.1.3 Relevance of community emeddedness in predicting turnover intentions

The results of the present study demonstrate the importance of community embeddedness in the turnover process because community embeddedness significantly predicted turnover intentions of managerial employees from banks. This result is not in line with previous research showing that community embeddedness was insignificantly related to turnover (e.g., Hussain & Deery, 2018; Lee et al., 2004; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Also, the present study’s

result does not support the great level of attention given to organisation embeddedness as the major JE component that predicts turnover intentions (Lee et al., 2014), because community embeddedness is an important component of JE that predicted a significant amount of variance in turnover intentions. The present study's result that community embeddedness is negatively and significantly related to turnover intentions invites the question: why have there been conflicting results relating to community embeddedness? A possible explanation is that "the measurement items of community embeddedness do not specify the range of a shared geographical location" (Zhang et al., 2012, p. 224). Thus, the power of community embeddedness to predict turnover intentions depends on tailoring community embeddedness to specific needs of members in a community or neighbourhood because there are various factors that make a particular community attractive, but which are not unique to any one specific location (Lee et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2012).

In summary, the connections to community where managerial employees live prevent them from changing their jobs. In other words, the residential community substantially influences managerial employees' intentions not to leave their jobs, particularly when a change of job would require a change of geographic location. Therefore, it is important to note that community factors tie employees to their jobs, especially when the factors are highly salient and specific to the needs of employees.

7.1.4 Job embeddedness sub dimensions relationships with turnover intentions

This study produced important results relating to the relationships between JE sub-dimensions and turnover intentions. The results indicated significant and negative relationships between organisation fit and turnover intentions, organisation links and turnover intentions, organisation sacrifice and turnover intentions, community links and

turnover intentions, and community sacrifice and turnover intentions. However, no significant relationship was found between community fit and turnover intentions. Therefore, this study's results partially support hypothesis 1c, that the sub-dimensions of JE will be negatively related to turnover intentions in Ghana's banking sector. The results of this study confirm previous studies that organisational fit, community links, organisation-related sacrifices and community-related sacrifices are related to turnover intentions, but community fit is not related to turnover intentions (e.g., Ampofo, Coetzer, Susomrith, et al., 2017; Bambacas & Kulik, 2013; Coetzer et al., 2019; Mitchell et al., 2001; Robinson et al., 2014). However, the results contest findings of previous research that fit to organisation, links to organisation and community-related sacrifices are not related to turnover intentions (e.g., Bambacas & Kulik, 2013; Mitchell et al., 2001; Robinson et al., 2014).

The results suggest that managerial employees in the selected banks become embedded in their jobs and think less about leaving because of factors such as fit to organisation, links to organisation and organisation-related sacrifices, as well as links to community and community-related sacrifices, but not fit to community. Thus, the sub-dimensions of JE significantly and independently contribute to managerial employees' intentions to leave their organisation and residential community. That is, each dimension, except community fit, has the capacity to influence managerial employees' job embeddedness and turnover intentions. This is an important result because it provides evidence that links, fit and sacrifice in the organisation and residential community have a substantial impact on managerial employees' intentions to leave their jobs. The results suggest that not all factors in the organisation and residential community might influence a person's embeddedness. Feldman and colleagues

(2012) noted that sometimes only one factor might drive embeddedness in the organisation (e.g., attractive rewards) and community (e.g., close friends) domains.

The result that managerial employees with many organisation-related sacrifices are most embedded in their jobs is unsurprising. The many attractive rewards, such as pension benefits, retirement benefits, insurance benefits, low interest loans, allowances, promotion and advancement opportunity, and substantial salaries given to bank employees who occupy managerial positions in Ghana, discourage them from leaving their jobs since leaving will be associated with many sacrifices (Mitchell et al., 2001; Shaw et al., 1998; Selden & Moynihan, 2000). This is consistent with findings of previous research that showed employees with many organisation-related sacrifices were highly embedded in their jobs and reported relatively low intentions to leave (Coetzer et al., 2019; Robinson et al., 2014).

Further, organisation fit was a significant factor in managerial employees' job embeddedness, because individuals who report high fit within hierarchical levels (i.e., supervisor–subordinate relationship) and within a level (group or membership) are likely to develop positive feelings about their organisation, and subsequently think less about leaving their jobs (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Posner, 2010; Presbitero, Roxas, & Chadee, 2016; Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991). Just as an employee fits with an organisation where his or her knowledge, skills and abilities meet the demands of the organisation, or where the organisation fulfils his or her needs (Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown, 2000), managerial employees fit in the organisation because their abilities meet the selected banks' demands, and the banks in turn cater to their needs. Being professionals, that is, people with extensive education and training, and high expectations of autonomy and challenging work (Cohen, 1999; Horwitz, Heng, & Quazi, 2003; von Nordenflycht, 2010), managerial employees have

high expectations of growth and development opportunities at work (Curry, McCarragher, & Dellmann-Jenkins 2005; Mitchell & Zatzick, 2015). Banks in Ghana offer training and development programs to their employees to equip them with the necessary skills and current knowledge to facilitate execution of operational activities (Dwomoh & Korankye, 2012). Socialisation practices, including annual fun games and dinner nights organised by some of the banks in Ghana, also increase managerial employees' fit in the organisation. Through socialisation, employees build positive relational ties that increase their feelings that they are a part of the organisation (Bauer & Green, 1998; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). It is important to note that values, norms and beliefs are unique and intangible characteristics of an organisation, which are difficult to imitate and transfer to another organisation (Barney, 1991, 2001). Therefore, managerial employees would have positive attitudes towards and think less about leaving the organisation where they find a close match between their values and the organisation's values. This supports Edwards and Cable's (2009) assertion that employees who have high value congruence with an organisation will find it difficult to leave because they develop a self-concept that is closely tied with the image and reputation of the organisation. Further, the result that organisation fit was negatively related to turnover intentions was not surprising because collectivists usually emphasise group cohesion and longer tenure (Parkes, Bochner, & Schneider, 2001). The result could also be explained by the high risk-averse nature of the Ghanaian people (Hofstede, 1980) because managerial employees whose personal values are compatible with the organisation's values would think less about quitting their jobs because of the uncertainty of fitting into another job. For example, a managerial employee who fits well with his or her current organisation may decline the benefits associated with poaching because of fear of incompatibility with the new organisation and its members.

Beyond the friendly and people-oriented attitude of the Ghanaian people (Hofstede, 2001; Ubink, 2008), senior managers in organisations understand that instrumental support from co-workers and emotional support from supervisors are highly important for increased performance and the achievement of corporate objectives and competitive advantage (Glazer, 2006; Joiner, 2007; Wang & Noe, 2010). Thus, teamwork has become a core value and strategy for many banks, given the intense competition that requires effective cooperation, support and harmonisation of all employees to achieve goals (Frimpong & Fan, 2009; Opong, Antwi, & Wærness, 2009). Research shows that managerial employees in Ghana spend long hours at work because of high work demands, such as supervisory responsibilities, meeting attendance, travelling schedules and evaluative assignments, which often leads to work–family conflict (Dartey-Baah, 2015; Dartey-Baah & Ampofo, 2015). Studies also indicate that private bank employees experience higher work stress than public bank employees (Malik, 2011), and managers' job demands, such as heavy workloads and time pressures, cause stress (Mohr & Wolfram, 2010). Thus, the present study's sample might have influenced the results, because managerial employees who participated in this study were largely drawn from private banks.

To reduce stress, a supportive supervisor could change certain aspects of work demands that cause stress, such as deadlines, while supportive co-workers could help complete assigned tasks on time. Managerial employees who achieve their target as a result of high-quality relations with co-workers and supervisors at the workplace would find it difficult to discontinue such relations (Friedman, Kane, & Cornfield, 1998; Mossholder, Settoon, & Henagan, 2005; Moynihan & Pandey 2007). This is because a managerial employee who receives instrumental support from co-workers and emotional support from a supervisor,

especially when tasks become tough to complete, views these supporters as people who care for him or her, and who are concerned about his or her work success. This would strengthen his or her attachment to co-workers as well as to the organisation (Bertelli, 2007; Karatepe, 2013a; Mossholder et al., 2005). Thus, managerial employees who have strong connections with co-workers and supervisors that result in greater supportive roles are embedded in the social web of the organisation, and eventually report lower intentions to quit.

Additionally, the results showing that links influence turnover intentions among managerial employees from the selected banks might be interpreted in the context of a highly collectivistic Ghanaian society, because collectivists place high importance on in-group decisions (Coyne & Ong, 2007; Hofstede, 1980, 2001; Triandis et al., 1990). Therefore, the culture of close and long-term friendships, and a strong belief in the extended family system influenced managerial employees' high level of embeddedness and lower turnover intentions because Ghanaians feel better, happier and more effective when they are with family and friends (Hofstede, 1991). Being collectivists, managerial employees in the selected banks may not consider the supervisor–employee relationship a business relationship, but rather a resemblance of the traditional mutual obligation relationship in a family where there is reciprocity of protection and loyalty (Hofstede, 2001; Wasti, 2003). In addition, because collectivists consider family interests when making significant decisions in life (Sinha & Sinha, 1990; Triandis et al., 1988), managerial employees' intentions and decisions to change their jobs may not be limited to their personal or immediate family members, but include the interest of extended family members, such as siblings, parents and children. That is, collectivists interpret 'self' as interdependence, which means that one sees oneself as part of an encompassing social relationship and recognises that one's behaviour is dependent on

what other people (i.e., the in-group) think, feel and act upon (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Therefore, managerial employees reported lower turnover intentions because they depend on the organisation and community members for several types of support, including childcare, helping to complete a task, leads for good medical care, sharing information, listening and empathy (Adams, King, & King, 1996; Ng & Feldman, 2013). Members of the community especially family and friends also depend on managerial employees for support such as paying bills and fees (Kuada, 2009). Because collectivists prioritise relationships over tasks (Hofstede, 1991; Parkes et al., 2001), managerial employees who have strong interpersonal ties at work and in the residential community would likely decline a job offer that jeopardises their current relational bond with family and friends. In addition, given that individuals from ‘feminine’ countries emphasise strong social ties (Hofstede, 1980), managerial employees from the selected banks in Ghana were embedded in their jobs and subsequently reported lower turnover intentions in order not to ruin their social ties.

In sum, the strong social ties and primacy of norms and obligations that characterise collectivistic cultures emphasise the importance of links in the organisation and residential community as a significant predictor of turnover intentions among managerial employees in Ghana’s banking sector. Thus, strong family and friendship bonds will be difficult for collectivists to give up.

7.1.5 Organisation embeddedness dimensions have stronger effects on turnover intentions relative to community embeddedness dimensions

The results also show that the dimensions of organisation embeddedness have a relatively stronger influence on managerial employees’ intentions to leave their jobs than the dimensions of community embeddedness. That is, managerial employees are more embedded

in the social web of the organisation than in the community. In other words, this result suggests that when managerial employees have strong and many relational ties, better fit and many benefits to sacrifice in the organisation, they develop a higher level of attachment to their jobs than when they have strong links, better fit and many benefits to sacrifice in the community. This might be because organisational policies and practices tend to enhance employees' levels of organisation embeddedness, but not their community embeddedness (Allen, 2006). Another possible explanation is that geographic relocation, which is the premise of community embeddedness, was not particularly important to participants in this study, because most of the bank employees in managerial positions were drawn from big cities (Mitchell et al., 2001). This is in line with Feldman and colleagues' (2012) assertion that organisational mobility may not necessarily require a change of local community, particularly for individuals in larger communities. Given that most jobs (including bank jobs) in Ghana are situated in Accra (i.e., the national capital; Chen, Jaupart, Moreno-Monroy, & Picarelli, 2017), the community, compared with the organisation, would have less impact on keeping managerial employees from changing their organisations because new jobs are more likely to be found in Accra. This result is important because it emphasises the relatively greater substantial impact that work-related factors have on employees' withdrawal intentions and decisions in comparison with non-work-related factors (Allen, 2006; Chen et al., 2017).

As indicated above, the results showed no significant relationship between community fit and turnover intentions. A possible interpretation is that most communities in Ghana, whether in cities or small towns, are unplanned and lack the adequate infrastructure and amenities—such as good roads, drainage systems, high standard educational centres and facilities,

playgrounds, theatres and health centres—that can attract and keep an individual from relocating (Chen et al., 2017). Additionally, Mitchell and colleagues (2001) argued that factors such as the weather and general culture of the local community may influence individuals' love for the residential community. However, the weather in Ghana (i.e., a year-round tropical climate, but with rainy seasons) is virtually the same across all regions and communities. Therefore, because bank employees in managerial positions do not expect any change in weather in their new location, love for community because of the weather is not an important force to keep them in their current organisations.

Further, the political climate in Ghana could be used to explain the non-significant relationship between community fit and turnover intentions. Despite the history of political instability through several coups d'état in Ghana, the country's current democratic dispensation (i.e., fourth republic) is recognised as one of the best in the world (Global Peace Index Report, 2018). In almost all communities in Ghana there is a peaceful political climate that diminishes fear among individuals and encourages free movement from one community to another. There is a peaceful and harmonious coexistence among the three main religious beliefs in Ghana: Christians, Muslims and traditionalists (Cogneau & Moradi, 2014). Therefore, because people feel free to worship in any part of the country (Amanor, 2009; Shipley, 2009), managerial employees would not be constrained to stay in the community because of religion. However, some Christians, especially those in Pentecostal and Charismatic churches who engage in active programs, find it difficult to change community because they want to belong to the same denomination and doctrine, which may not be found in their new residential community. This is consistent with the assertion that religion has a powerful influence on the day-to-day activities and decisions of most people in Ghana

(Pokimica et al., 2012). Nonetheless, many churches are expanding in terms of opening branches in other parts of the country, and using innovative mechanisms, such as online live broadcasts, to reach members who are distant, thereby making community fit unimportant to managerial employees who possibly are committed to the church.

In sum, the factors that Mitchell and colleagues (2001) proposed would influence peoples' level of embeddedness in the community are not important enough to lead managerial bankers to love their communities such that they would avoid geographic relocation. This is not surprising, since there have been calls for the reconceptualisation of the community embeddedness construct (Feldman et al., 2012).

7.1.6 Contribution to COR theory

Finally, the results emphasise the importance of COR theory in explaining job embeddedness, because job embeddedness offers abundant work and non-work valued resources to managerial employees, which they would find difficult to sacrifice if they change their organisation and community (Harris et al., 2011; Wheeler et al., 2012). The results of this study suggest that managerial employees are embedded in their jobs as a result of the valued resources (i.e., links, fit, and benefits to be sacrificed upon leaving) they obtain from the organisation and residential community. This is important because managerial employees who have many valued resources in the organisation and community will stay in their current jobs to protect and maintain those resources. Conversely, because people prefer environments that support creation and accumulation of valued resources to environments that support loss or threat of valued resources (Hobfoll, 1989; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009), managerial employees who perceive loss or threat of valued resources in their organisation and residential community might intend to leave their jobs. Thus, the motivation to protect

valued resources enhances managerial employees' level of job embeddedness and subsequently lowers their intentions to leave their jobs. Given that individuals attach more importance to resource loss than resource gain (Hobfoll, 2011), the valued resources available to managerial employees in their organisation and community might be hard to forfeit. That is, the psychological stress associated with resource loss possibly motivates managerial employees to stay and protect their valued resources in their current organisation and community, rather than leave to gain resources in another organisation and community. This suggests that highly embedded managerial employees report lower intentions to quit their jobs when their valued resources are intact in the organisation and residential community.

7.2 Affectivity Traits and the Job Embeddedness–Turnover Intentions Relationship

The present study found that affectivity traits moderate the relationship between JE and turnover intentions. Thus, the JE–turnover intentions inverse relationship, such that the relationship between JE and turnover intentions becomes weaker among high PA managers. That is, affectivity traits moderate the JE–turnover intentions relationship, such that high PA employees are less likely embedded in their jobs and more likely to intend leaving their jobs than those low in PA. In other words, the negative nexus between JE and turnover intentions is strengthened among low PAs, but weakened among high PAs. Meanwhile, NA moderates the JE–turnover intentions relationship, such that the relationship between JE and turnover intentions becomes stronger among managers who are high in NA. That is, affectivity traits moderate the JE–turnover intentions relationship, such that managers who are high in NA are more likely embedded in their jobs and less likely to intend leaving their jobs than those who

are low in NA. Put differently, the JE-turnover intentions negative relationship is strengthened among employees who are high in NA, but weakened among those who are low in NA. The results support hypotheses 2a, 2b and 2c. The results indicated that managers become embedded in their jobs because of their impressions about themselves and the world, such that managers with high negative impressions about themselves and the world become embedded in their jobs, while managers with high positive impressions about themselves and the world become less embedded in their jobs. Thus, individuals' affectivity traits colour their impressions of embeddedness in their jobs. These results are consistent with the view that JE is largely subjective and is influenced by people's predispositions and cognitive frames (Crossley et al., 2007).

The high unemployment rate characterising the economy of Ghana might be relevant in the context of the present study's results. This is because high NA managers may consider the long queue of applicants at job interviews, the large number of unsolicited applications that are often submitted to the organisations, and the impressive levels of experience and academic qualifications of some job seekers as factors that may limit their chances of securing another job if they leave. The result is consistent with the assertion that high NA individuals are more likely to have doubts about the value and importance of their own expertise and qualifications (Hood, Bachrach, Zivnuska, & Bendoly, 2016). The result also supports the assertion that individuals who are high in NA are more likely to avoid thinking about or actually leaving their current organisation because they do not believe they have the resources (e.g., skills, abilities) to successfully cope with challenging situations in the job market or new organisation (Vandenberghe, Panaccio, & Ben Ayed, 2011).

Although experience, knowledge and competence are significant for a person's ability to obtain a job (Leonard-Barton, 1992), the person's confidence level, attitude and positive outlook may also be very influential in the hiring decisions of prospective employers (Barrick et al., 2000; Crossley & Stanton, 2005). High NA managers will not have these affectivity traits that employers are looking for in job applicants. High PA managers, conversely, may believe that their experience in their current job, competence and determination to succeed will increase their chances of securing another job, regardless of the large pool of prospective applicants. In instances where another bank attempts to poach employees, high PA managers are likely to evaluate and compare the benefits of prospective jobs to their current job, and think about leaving. This is because they are optimistic that they have the abilities to succeed in any work environment, which may not be the case for high NA managers. This view is consistent with the results of Schaufeli and Vanyperen (1993) showing that unsuccessful job applicants, compared with their successful counterparts, reported less self-esteem and much more pessimism about their chances of success in the labour market.

Further, because high NA people have higher levels of attributes such as discomfort, agitation, worry, disappointment and displeasure (Greenberg & Baron, 2008; Watson & Clark, 1984), high NA bank managers are likely to stay in their current jobs, which are not typified by labour agitations and strikes, rather than leave for another sector of Ghana's economy. Thus, the number of labour strikes and agitations characterising those sectors (Asamoah et al., 2013) may increase their anxieties. High NA managers are less likely to socialise and network with others, since NA is an important component of a behavioural inhibition system, that is, a system that constrains behaviours that may result in negative outcomes (Carver & White, 1994; Sears et al., 2016). In contrast, residential community

relocation may not be difficult for high PA bank managers because their optimistic posture and enthusiastic outlook on life facilitates their adaptation in a new community, where they are more likely to participate and invest more hours in volunteer work (Krueger, Hicks, & McGue, 2001; Thoits & Hewitt, 2001) and make friends (Berry, Willingham, & Thayer, 2000; Feldman et al., 2012; Lyubomirsky, Tkach, & DiMatteo, 2006).

The present study also found that the moderating effect of NA on the relationship between JE and turnover intentions was greater than the moderating effect of PA on the JE–turnover intentions relationship. Thus, an individual’s job embeddedness was influenced by NA to a greater extent than by PA. The high rate of graduate unemployment could be a significant contributing factor to these results because the Ghanaian economy is characterised by limited job openings, which attract a large pool of prospective job applicants who may be more competent than employees who intend to quit their jobs (Asamani & Mensah, 2013; Baah-Boateng, 2013; Delle, 2013). The results are consistent with previous findings that, despite intentions to quit, employees are likely stay with the organisation because general labour market conditions result in a generally low level of alternative job openings (Gerhart, 1990). Thus, although individuals may be highly confident and optimistic that they will succeed in a different job environment, they may have lower intentions to quit their jobs because there are limited alternative jobs to move into. People experience higher levels of discomfort, disappointment, dissatisfaction and worry about the job market, and become embedded in their jobs, because they understand that limited job alternatives, regardless of their own competence, may result in unemployment if they quit their jobs.

These results relating to the moderating effects of affectivity traits are important because they establish the influence of personality traits in JE and eventual turnover intentions. Thus, the

embeddedness of individuals in their jobs is influenced by how individuals view themselves and their world. That is, individuals' impressions of themselves and the world shape their job embeddedness and turnover intentions. Individuals with different affectivity traits have different impressions about embeddedness in their jobs. Hiring individuals who are high in NA or low in PA means hiring employees who are more likely to be embedded in their jobs because they have doubts about their competence to be successful in another organisation or community. Such individuals are more likely to use avoidance or withdrawal strategies to cope with unpleasant situations in their environment (Vandenberghe et al., 2011; Wong, Yik, & Kwong, 2006). For example, given their predisposition to react more strongly to negative events when they occur (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), individuals who are high in NA are more likely to react to a negative situation (e.g., low job offers) by avoiding the possibility of leaving their jobs (Holtom et al., 2012). Conversely, hiring high PA individuals is more likely to lead to higher turnover intentions, because these individuals are more likely to engage in approach behaviours, which help to develop personal resources (e.g., self-encouragement) to accomplish goals, such as finding a job (Elliot & Thrash, 2002; Fredrickson, 2001; Turban, Lee, Veiga, Haggard, & Wu, 2013). Further, the high level of belief necessary to be successful in a new environment has a greater influence on high PA or low NA individuals' leaving intentions than that offered by their current organisation and community (e.g., Staw & Barsade, 1993). Because individuals who are high in PA are more likely to build personal resources, such as making friends, they report greater job search success, which increases their job leaving intentions (Feldman et al., 2012; Turban et al., 2013). Even in times of a job rejection, individuals with higher PA do not give up, but rather react positively by thinking constructively and motivating themselves about future job outcomes (Turban et al., 2013). Thus, managerial employees who are high in NA traits are

more embedded in their jobs and eventually think less about quitting their jobs than those who are high in PA traits (refer to Table 6.19).

7.3 Career Stages and the Job Embeddedness–Turnover Intentions Relationship

The present study found that career stages moderate the relationship between JE and turnover intentions, which supports hypothesis 3a. Also, the current study found that the negative relationship between JE and turnover intentions is strengthened when employees are in their mid and late careers, but the relationship is weakened when they are in their early career, which supports hypotheses 3b. The results indicated that managers who perceived themselves to be in mid-career stage and late career stage are more likely to stay in their jobs, and think less about leaving their jobs, than those who perceived themselves to be in early career stage. Thus, employees who find themselves at the peak of their career or at the end of their career are more likely to be embedded in their jobs and have lower turnover intentions than employees who are in the early stage of their career. Because early career employees are mostly concerned about both their jobs and organisation fit (Miao et al., 2009; Ng & Feldman, 2010), managerial employees who perceive themselves to be in their early career stage would be keener to search for job options that would be a good fit for them. These managers would not be as hesitant to leave their current job for another if they perceive that the new job and workplace would be a better fit for them. Similarly, a change of residential community may not be as difficult for early career managers if they have to leave their jobs, because their primary concern is to find an environment that is suitable to them and their family, and that would facilitate their career progress. For instance, managerial employees who perceive themselves to be in their early career stage may think about leaving their jobs

if they are unable to achieve key performance indicators that they perceive as being unreasonable when their personal values are not in line with corporate values, and when their neighbourhood is unsafe for habitation. Early career employees, compared with mid- and late career employees, have fewer benefits to sacrifice, which makes it less difficult for them to leave their jobs. This result is in line with the assertion that until early career employees find a job they fit in with, they will continue to experiment with their careers in different organisations (Feldman & Ng, 2007). Thus, JE will be unappealing to early career managerial employees who were attracted to the banking sector because of the benefits associated with the job if they do not perceive a good person–job and person–organisation fit. Another possible explanation is that early career employees have fewer children or elderly parents, which does not restrict them from changing jobs in order to find a place where they rightfully fit (Lam et al., 2012).

Further, managers who perceived themselves to be in their mid-career stage obviously understood the effort, time, and perseverance it took them to reach that status. Like in many organisations, people assume managerial positions in their banking career based on factors such as years of service, experience and hard work. Because mid-career employees think that they have settled in well in their current job (Flaherty & Pappas, 2002), they will find it difficult to justify leaving all that they have worked for or achieved over the years to start afresh in another organisation and possibly new residential community. Mid-career employees usually focus on holding onto career achievements and preserving their self-concept (Gibson, 2003). Given the risk-averse attitude of Ghanaians (Hofstede, 2001), managers who perceived themselves to be in their mid-career stage will find it difficult to leave their current comfortable and stable work environment for another environment that is

unpredictable. This result is consistent with the assertion that individuals in their mid-career stage typically have a sense of professional satisfaction and a comfort level with career stability (Ng & Feldman, 2008). Another possible reason is that mid- and late career employees through more work experience form and stabilise 'career anchors', which guide them towards jobs that are more fulfilling, rather than jobs that are a poor fit (Lam et al., 2012; Ng & Feldman, 2007; Schein, 1990). Thus, because mid-career managerial employees are well settled in their career, they are embedded in their jobs and subsequently think less about leaving.

Managers who perceived themselves to be in late career stage were more likely to be embedded in their jobs because they would sacrifice a number of benefits (e.g., defined pension benefit, colleagues) if they were to leave their current job. Given that people in their late career stage plan for retirement, managers who perceive themselves to be in late career stage feel reluctant to experiment with their career in a different organisation. Managers who perceive themselves to be in late career stage become conscious of their fewer opportunities in the external market (Feldman et al., 2012) because prospective employers believe that their psychological separation from work results in low job performance (Flaherty & Pappas, 2002; Post et al., 2013; Shen & Hall, 2009). Further, given the importance of family ties (including extended family ties) and networks of friends in Ghana (Ohemeng, 2009), managers who perceive themselves to be in their late career stage will prioritise maintaining strong interpersonal links with family and friends over thinking about quitting their jobs (Carstensen et al., 2000; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). For example, aged care facilities are uncommon in Ghana, and managers who perceive themselves to be in the late career stage understand the importance of maintaining strong connections with family and friends who

will take care of them post-retirement and in the later stages of their lives. Ghanaians believe that the use of institutionalised care demonstrates Western adults' reluctance to care for their aged people. In contrast, Ghanaians regard taking care of their aged people as a matter of responsibility and pride (Oppong et al., 2009; Van der Geest, 2002).

Finally, results of the present study indicated that managerial employees who perceived themselves to be in late career stage are most likely to be embedded in their jobs, followed by those who perceived themselves to be in mid-career stage and early career stage, respectively. These results are not surprising because late career employees' opportunities to obtain jobs are further decreased by the generally low job openings in the external labour market (Baah-Boateng, 2013; Feldman et al., 2012). To avoid being unemployed if they quit, late career managers would become embedded in their jobs. The fewer job alternatives individuals perceive the more they are likely to exhibit high fit in the organisation and perceive more sacrifices if they quit the organisation (Giosan, Holtom, & Watson, 2005). Further, although Ghanaians are generally risk averse (Hofstede, 2001), late career employees may be higher in risk aversion than early career and mid-career stage employees, especially when taking up new work activities, because of their low levels of confidence (Campion, Lord, & Pursell, 1981; Ng & Feldman, 2007). Another possible reason for this study's results is late career managers' desire to maintain strong interpersonal ties with family members, friends and co-workers that were developed over a long term. Although collectivists generally uphold and revere social ties (Hofstede, 2001), late career collectivists are most committed to maintaining strong long-term interpersonal bonds with family members, co-workers, and friends, which influence their job embeddedness (Georgas et al., 1997; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Thus, late career bank managers

from collectivistic cultures are likely to place priority on relationships over tasks, more so than early and mid-career bank managers, because they are close to retirement age (Hofstede, 1991; Low et al., 2016). Because late career employees desire to spend greater amounts of time with family and friends in leisure pursuits, or to simply relax, they are more likely to be embedded in the job, and to focus on ways to enhance their life after retirement (Ng & Feldman, 2007; Triandis et al., 1990).

The present study's results make significant contributions to the literature by establishing that the embeddedness of key employees in their job is influenced by their current career stage. Thus, career stage is pertinent in determining the turnover intentions of key employees, because individuals have various needs and ambitions that persuade and drive their attitudes and behaviours at every career stage. Embeddedness is not the same among employees, and it is not static for employees, because employees find themselves in different career stages, and they move from one career stage to another over time.

7.4 Perceptions of Organisational Politics and the Organisation Embeddedness–Turnover Intentions Relationship

The results of this study showed that POP, that is individuals' perceptions of others' self-interest at the expense of others in the organisation, moderates the relationship between organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions, which confirms hypothesis 4a. Also, the current study found that the negative relationship between organisation embeddedness and turnover intentions becomes weaker when managers perceive that political behaviour is flourishing in the organisation, but the relationship becomes stronger when managers' perceptions of workplace politics is low. This result supports hypothesis 4b, that the organisation embeddedness–turnover intentions inverse relationship will be weaker when

POP is high relative to when POP is low. The results of the present study indicated that managers who perceived that organisational politics were at a high level were more likely to be thinking about leaving their jobs because the level of embeddedness in their jobs and organisation is affected by possible resource threat or loss. These results are consistent with the primacy resource loss tenet, which postulates that a stronger affective and behavioural reaction is elicited when a resource is lost than when an equivalent resource is gained (Hobfoll, 1989). The self-indulgent nature of individuals stimulates them to acquire and retain resources (Feldman et al., 2012; Hobfoll, 2002), to the extent that individuals become self-centred and engage in activities that reward them with a specific resource at the expense of others (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Rosen et al., 2009). This resource loss or threat is likely to occur when organisational politics flourish, because individuals are often competitors for the allocation of scarce resources (Mehta, 2013; Rosen et al., 2014; Steers & Black, 1994). Because individuals with more benefits to sacrifice become embedded in their organisation, a perceived high threat or loss of resources will lead to them becoming less embedded in their jobs and consequently thinking about leaving because there are sacrifices associated with staying. In other words, organisational politics can reduce the number of benefits an employee will sacrifice if he or she leaves the organisation. For example, an individual's resources in an organisation would decrease when he or she is denied promotion, opportunities to learn and attend training courses, or a pay increase as a result of perceived negative organisational politics. Thus, any political tactics that deny or threaten employees' opportunities to obtain resources or increase their chances of forfeiting resources needed to achieve their personal and organisational outputs may elicit negative responses, such as turnover intentions (Feldman et al., 2012; Hobfoll, 2002; Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Further, the results are not surprising because many people in contemporary Ghana believe that career progress, job appointment, promotion and contract winning, generally, depend on the parlance of 'who knows you', or 'who you know' (Nyukorong, 2014). Influential people are usually seen as 'godfathers', who if well 'revered' and pleased, facilitate the career progress of followers. These cultural attributes contribute towards organisations being perceived as highly political settings, because individuals in a highly motivated political organisation focus on building strong connections with influential people in the organisation (Harrell-Cook et al., 1999, Treadway et al. 2005). Managerial employees in banks who are denied valuable resources (e.g., promotion, allowances and increases in salary) because they are not connected to influential people in the organisation may become resentful and less embedded in their jobs, and will eventually think about leaving the organisation. Another supportive reason for this result could be the 'pull him down' attitude of many Ghanaians (Akosah-Sarpong, 2004; Zoure, 2016). Individuals with this attitude believe that if they do not find themselves at the top or in a desirable position, then it should not be so for any other person. Individuals with a 'pull him down' attitude find ways to sabotage, discourage and frustrate others in their organisation through negative political behaviour. For example, given the importance of information for managers to work (Bruns & McKinnon, 1993), competitors for resources in the organisation might delay or deny managers access to pertinent information, which in turn might affect the output of managers.

Additionally, there is high perception of organisational politics among managers (Ferris et al., 1989; Madison et al., 1980) because an effective implementation of the decisions that managers make in the organisation depends on the collective support of colleagues, subordinates and members of higher levels of the organisation hierarchy. Managers who

attribute their inability to achieve organisational goals to perceived negative political behaviours in the organisation may think about leaving the organisation, particularly if they do not want to engage in political activities to achieve their goals. The will to engage in politics is not enough for a person to be effective in a highly political organisation because the skill necessary to perform political behaviours is also important (Mintzberg, 1983, 1985). Thus, managers who do not have the will or are not astute politicians might think about leaving their organisation in the wake of perceptions of high organisational political behaviours that might cause a threat to or loss of resources.

Although COR has been used to conceptualise JE as a state of abundant resources, which employees strive to obtain and at same the time try to avoid losing, little is known about how the natural phenomenon of politics in organisations influences employees' embeddedness level in the organisation. The results of the present study are important in two ways. First, the results clarify that the extent to which employees perceive political behaviours in the organisation can influence their embeddedness and turnover intentions when sacrifices associated with staying in the organisation may be similar to sacrifices associated with leaving the organisation. Second, the results contribute to an understanding that an individual's level of organisation embeddedness does not entirely depend upon the individual, but also depends on the actions of others. This is because an individual may fit well with the job and organisation, have many links in the organisations and have benefits that will be sacrificed if s/he leaves the organisation, but these resources may be threatened by or surrendered to other individuals with stronger connections to influential individuals in the organisation.

7.5 Relative Strengths of the Moderators

The results of the present study showed that affectivity trait (i.e., NA) had the strongest moderating effect on the relationship between JE and turnover intentions, followed by career stages and POP, respectively. This means that managerial employees' level of embeddedness in their jobs is more influenced by affectivity traits (i.e., negativity affect) than by POP and career stages. The influence of an individuals' impression of themselves and the world on their job embeddedness underscores the importance of individual differences in the embedding process, because JE is largely a subjective construct (Crossley et al., 2007; Karatepe, 2013a; Lev & Koslowsky, 2012b). Thus, impressions of job embeddedness are person-specific, because how one person perceives embeddedness may vary from another person because people differ in their traits (Watson & Clark, 1984). Also, because environmental events affect the moods of individuals (Emmons & Diener, 1985), social issues such as high unemployment because of limited job openings may influence the moods of individuals, leading to them becoming more worried, uncomfortable and disappointed in themselves and the world. Because perceived job alternative is an important antecedent of turnover intentions (Mitchell et al., 2001; Mobley, 1977), generally, low alternative job openings are more likely to influence the job embeddedness of managerial employees, thus rendering affectivity traits the strongest moderator in the JE–turnover intentions relationship. The present study's results make an important contribution to the literature by demonstrating that among affectivity traits, career stages and POP, the former was the strongest moderator variable in the JE–turnover intentions relationship, suggesting the importance of personality traits in determining the embeddedness and turnover intentions of managers. With evidence from the present study that affectivity traits is the strongest moderator in the JE–turnover

relationship, serious consideration should be given to personality traits in the embedding process.

7.6 Summary

This section presented an analysis of the results of the present study, which found that there is a significant and negative relationship between JE and turnover intentions, and that affectivity traits, career stages and POP significantly moderate the JE and turnover intentions relationship. The results of the present study were largely consistent with existing theories and previous empirical research. In addition, cultural values and social issues in Ghana were largely congruent with the results of this study. This study's results make an important contribution to the literature because they demonstrate the predicative validity of JE in Ghana and extend the JE–turnover intentions relationship by establishing the significant influence of affectivity traits, career stages and POP on the relationship.

CHAPTER 8: IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

This chapter outlines the implications of the findings and concludes the present study, confirming the contribution this thesis makes to existing knowledge in the domain. The chapter begins with a discussion of the theoretical implications of the study's findings, and based on the implications, provides suggestions for future research. Next, the chapter discusses the practical implications of the study's findings and suggests strategies that could be used to enhance the job embeddedness of managerial employees who perceive high levels of dysfunctional political activities in their organisations, are at different stages of their career, and are high or low in affectivity traits. Thereafter, the chapter provides a synopsis of the theoretical and practical contributions of the present study. Next, the chapter discusses the strengths and limitations of the study, and then makes suggestions for future research. Finally, the chapter provides an overall conclusion to the study.

8.1 Theoretical Implications and Future Research Directions

The present study extends the literature in several ways. First, the study demonstrated the predictive validity of the JE construct in a non-Western culture. Although the JE construct has been predictively validated across non-Western cultures (e.g., Ramesh & Gelfand 2010; Tanova & Holtom 2008), to the best of my knowledge the construct has not been tested in Ghana. The present study therefore responds to calls for research to test the predictive validity of JE in different culture contexts, because the predictive power of the construct may be specific to a cultural context (Hom et al., 2009; Hom et al., 2017; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). The findings of the present study indicate that JE (as a composite construct) predicted turnover intentions of managerial employees in banks located in Ghana, after controlling for

the effects of perceived job alternatives, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, gender and age. The findings of this study also indicate that organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness significantly predicted the turnover intentions of bank employees in managerial positions. Further, this study's findings show that the sub-dimensions of JE, except community fit, significantly predicted turnover intentions of managerial employees in the selected banks. It was apparent in the results that organisation sacrifice was the strongest predictor of turnover intentions. Thus, the present study extends the generalisability of the JE construct to non-Western cultures and specifically collectivistic countries.

Further, the present study highlights the importance of community embeddedness in managers' turnover process. Scant attention has been given to community embeddedness in turnover research because of its varied prediction of employee turnover (e.g., Hussain & Deery, 2018; Lee et al., 2004). However, this study's findings support previous research showing that community embeddedness significantly predicts employees' intentions to quit their jobs (e.g., Dawley & Andrews, 2012; Munyon et al., 2019). The present study therefore accentuates the continuous predictive power of non-work factors in employees' job embeddedness. Although the results of the study emphasised the significance of community embeddedness in managerial employees' intentions to leave their jobs, the measurement scale used in the study did not include broader community factors that potentially influence individuals' embeddedness. For example, the community embeddedness scale used in the study captured the quantity of relationships but not the quality of relationships (Felps et al., 2009). However, a person who has family members and friends in the community, but rarely spends time with family members (e.g., parents, grandparents, siblings) and does not value the friendships will not find it difficult to leave their community (Gonzalez et al., 2018).

Thus, future research should consider the quality of ties that managerial employees have with family members and friends. In addition, because collectivists emphasise strong ties with friends and members of the family unit, embeddedness may occur by proxy (Feldman et al., 2012). For example, the need to care for parents, and the income and job rank of a spouse's job are likely to influence a person's community embeddedness. Future research should therefore consider the effects that both breadth and depth of ties with family members and friends may have on employees' community embeddedness.

The present study also adds to the literature by establishing that the intentions of managerial employees from banks to quit their jobs are influenced by their current career stage because their needs, ambitions and goals are likely to differ across different career stages. Thus, individuals' level of embeddedness in their jobs is contingent on their current career stage, which is likely to change as their career stage changes. The findings of the present study also contribute to the literature by demonstrating that how managerial employees perceive themselves in a career stage influences their embeddedness in the job. Thus, the present study emphasises the importance of individuals' perceptions of their career stages, but not their tenure and age, because individuals can recycle back through their career stages (Super, 1957).

Mitchell and colleagues (2001) indicated that individuals become embedded in their jobs as a result of a wide constellation or web of influences, that is, links, fit and sacrifices. In other words, individuals become embedded in their jobs because of the combination of the forces of links, fit and sacrifices. Given the different needs and goals of individuals in every career stage, a specific JE dimension may significantly increase the embeddedness of individuals in a specific career stage. For example, early career, mid-career and late career employees may

be embedded in their jobs as a result of fit, sacrifices and links, respectively (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004; Ng & Feldman, 2008, 2010). Future research should assess the moderating effects of career stages (using perceptions of career stage) on the relationships between organisation embeddedness dimensions of fit, links and sacrifices, and turnover intentions. Further, because the needs of individuals vary across different career stages (Levinson et al., 1978), a valuable contribution to future research would be to examine the effects of career commitment of individuals in different career stages on JE and turnover intentions. High career committed individuals are likely to exhibit higher levels of expectations of and requirements from their current organisation, such that they may change their jobs if their current organisation is unable to meet their career needs (Chang, 1999; Goulet & Singh, 2002). For example, despite limited external labour market opportunities, late career employees are less likely to be embedded with organisations that do not meet their dominant needs, such as generous vacations, pensions and sick leave benefits. Similarly, high career committed newcomers may be embedded with organisations that offer them resources and opportunities to fulfil their career ambitions.

Another theoretical implication of the findings is established by broadening the social contextual variables that influence employee turnover intentions. The present study found that POP interacts with organisation embeddedness to predict job turnover intentions of managerial employees in banks. JE theory elucidates a facet of the social contextual influence of employee turnover through the formal and informal connections that people have in the organisation (Mitchell et al., 2001). Similarly, perceived organisation politics, a feature of the work context, has social influences through the ostensibly parochial interest of an individual to obtain resources at the expense of other individuals (Abbas et al., 2014;

Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). For instance, perceived high negative political behaviours in the organisation, such as offering promotions, remuneration and allowances to employees based on nepotism and cronyism, may damage the relationships among employees to the extent that employees who are negatively affected are likely to leave the organisation (Byrne, 2005; Rosen, Harris, & Kacmar, 2009). The formal and informal connections of individuals in the organisation may be stronger or weaker, depending on individuals' perceptions of political behaviours in the organisation. Thus, perceptions of high negative organisational politics can minimise the motivation of individuals to acquire, accumulate and protect resources to increase their embeddedness in the organisation. However, not everyone who forfeits resources as a result of POP will necessarily leave their jobs (i.e., avoidance); others may remain in their jobs but refuse to engage in politics (i.e., adjustment), or remain with the organisation and engage in politics (i.e. acceptance; Ferris et al., 1989). Future research should consider how individuals' ideals regarding perceptions of politics (i.e., avoidance, acceptance and adjustment) might influence their job embeddedness. Further, individuals may feel uncomfortable, have broken relationships, and incur material and psychological costs in a perceived highly political organisation. Thus, organisation embeddedness sub-dimensions of fit, links and sacrifices, although interrelated dimensions, can separately be influenced by perceptions of politics in the organisation, and future research should consider how POP affects these resources.

Another valuable contribution to future research would be to examine how centrality in social networks at the workplace may influence individuals' embedding and turnover processes. For example, individuals who are not approached by others for reasons such as friendship and advice (i.e., centrality in negative networks) are likely to perceive being socially

excluded and ostracised (Grosser, Sterling, Scott, & Labianca, 2010) because co-workers act offensively towards them, gossip deleteriously about them, intentionally obstruct their work, and refuse to provide assistance and access to essential information (Ellwardt, Labianca, & Wittek, 2012; Venkataramani, Labianca, & Grosser, 2013). However, individuals who are sought after by others for friendship and advice (i.e., centralised in positive networks) are likely to perceive being valued, revered and included in group activities (Kilduff & Krackhardt, 1994; Venkataramani et al., 2013), and they eventually become embedded in their jobs. Thus, individuals centralised in positive social networks are likely to acquire resources to be embedded in their jobs, while individuals centralised in negative social networks are likely to experience resource loss and eventually quit their jobs.

Finally, the present study focused on the dark aspects of perceptions of politics in organisations, and therefore assessed the POP construct with a negative politics scale. However, politics does not always obstruct organisational effectiveness, because there are functional or beneficial sides to organisational politics (Eldor, 2017; Treadway et al., 2004; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). As argued by Ferris et al. (2002), an extensive focus on the negative facets of organisational politics leads to failure to consider the aspects of the construct that may be positive to the organisations and its members. Maslyn, Farmer and Bettenhausen (2017) also suggested that instead of focusing on strategies to eradicate political behaviours in organisations, managers should focus on shaping political behaviours towards goals that are important to both the organisation and its members. Thus, Maslyn and colleagues (2017) developed a positive scale for assessing perceptions of political behaviours in organisations. Future research should include the positive aspects of POP.

Further, prior research shows the importance of personality traits in understanding why employees intend to leave their jobs and why they do not intend to do so (Allen et al., 2005; Chiu & Francesco, 2003). Following Crossley et al.'s (2007) call for research that examines individual differences that relate to impressions of being embedded in a job, personality traits such as extraversion and organisation-based self-esteem have been found to be related to job embeddedness (Sekiguchi et al., 2008; Zimmerman, 2008). The present study adds to the literature on personality traits and JE by addressing the call for research to examine the effects of affectivity traits on employees' job embeddedness (Crossley et al., 2007). The findings of the present study established that affectivity traits influence employees' embeddedness in their jobs and lower their turnover intentions. The present study therefore highlights the importance of individual differences in job embeddedness by casting light on how managerial employees' perceptions of themselves and the world empirically predicted their job embeddedness. Future studies should consider other individual differences or personality traits that might influence individuals' job embeddedness. For example, high core self-evaluation individuals are likely to be less embedded in their jobs, because they have greater self-appraisal of their competence, capability and ability to overcome challenging tasks to succeed in a different job (Bandura, 1997; Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998; Judge, Van Vianen, & De Pater, 2004). Also, individuals who are highly proactive have a proclivity for taking the initiative, manipulating the environment and achieving their goals, whereas individuals who are less proactive have a proclivity for allowing events to happen and then reacting to changes (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Thus, high-proactive individuals are more likely to be embedded in organisations that create an enabling environment and support employees' ingenuities.

The findings of the present study also contribute to the literature by adding to the variables that moderate the relationship between JE and turnover. Research has identified just a few variables (i.e., gender, risk aversion, organisation type, national culture and work group cohesion) that moderate the relationship between JE and turnover (Coetzer et al., 2017; Jiang et al., 2012; Peltokorpi et al., 2017; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). This study demonstrated that career stage, affectivity traits and POP are also significant moderator variables in the relationship between JE and turnover intentions. The findings of the present study support Jiang and colleagues' (2012) view that there are potentially several moderators in the JE–turnover relationship. Thus, further research that explores other possible moderator variables in the JE–turnover intentions relationship is needed. For example, organisation reputation may moderate the relationship between JE and turnover intentions, because organisations influence their members' self-concepts, that is, individuals' perceptions about an organisation are similar to their perceptions about members of the organisation (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994; Hogg & Terry, 2000). It is not surprising that organisations with good reputations attract more and higher quality applicants than do less reputable organisations (Turban & Cable, 2003). Organisations with good reputations as a result of factors such as good financial performance, large size and high levels of engagement in corporate social performance may influence managerial employees' job embeddedness (Cable & Graham, 2000; Fombrun, 1996). Conversely, managers may be less embedded in organisations with poor reputations or damaged reputations because they may not want non-organisational members to perceive them as part of organisations of low repute (Rhee & Valdez, 2009; Mignonac, Herrbach, & Guerrero, 2006).

Finally, the present study makes an important theoretical contribution by demonstrating that the JE–turnover relationship literature is not exhaustive and requires further research, other than extending JE to non-turnover criteria. Despite studies that show JE can be used to predict outcomes other than turnover (e.g., Lee et al., 2004), the original motive for the theory’s development was to explain employee turnover (Mitchell et al., 2001). Although Lee and colleagues (2014) encouraged the use of JE to explain non-turnover outcomes, they held some reservations that “many of the new suggestions have been made without serious attempts to integrate the theorised processes that accompany these new ideas” (p. 212). As noted by Lee et al. (2014), the JE–turnover relationship needs more replication and extension studies rather than studies in which JE is linked to non-turnover criteria. Consistent with the aims of the present study, future research should focus on replication and extension of the JE–turnover intentions relationship by determining moderator variables in the relationship.

8.2 Practical Implications

The findings of the present study delineate several implications for management practice in the banking sector from which senior managers can select and implement with a view to enhancing managerial employees’ job embeddedness and subsequently lower their turnover intentions. Research has highlighted the several direct and indirect costs that organisations incur when key employees leave (Cascio, 2006; Holtom et al., 2008). For organisations and senior managers who wish to avoid these costs, the present study’s findings have several practical implications. First, senior managers should offer quality training programs and long-term career development opportunities to employees in managerial positions to enhance their practical knowledge and skills in the organisation (Mitchell et al., 2001), because employees need to update their skills as technological advancement persists in banking

operations (Baptista & Oliveira, 2015; Harden, 2002). HR practices such as tuition reimbursement, paid recertification fees, career workshops, formal succession planning, support for educational leave and formal mentoring support from senior managers may well enhance managerial employees' embeddedness in the organisation. This might help increase employees' fit and links in the organisation to the extent that it will be hard for employees to lose them upon leaving the organisation. Senior managers should support workplace fun activities (e.g., sports events, birthday celebrations) because the more supervisors support fun at work the more employees become embedded in the organisation (Chen & Ayoun, 2019). Senior managers should increase managerial employees' work engagement through job designs that provide more autonomy, meaningfulness, variety and co-worker support (Allen et al., 2010; Karatepe, 2013a), because people who are engaged in their work have attributes such as vigour and dedication that ensure they are involved and deeply engrossed in their work (Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012; Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002). This might positively affect managerial employees' organisation fit because autonomy, and task meaningfulness, and support from co-workers are likely to increase employees' perceptions of organisation fit (Tims, Derks, & Bakker, 2016). Organisations that have these job designs are likely to increase managerial employees' sacrifices in the organisation because they may find it difficult to give up these accrued benefits when leaving. During recruitment, senior managers should offer realistic information about the work to prospective managerial employees (Kiazad et al., 2014; Kristof, 1996) and encourage employee referral, because current employees are less likely to refer prospective employees who would not fit in the organisation (Breaugh & Starke, 2000; Van Hove, 2013). Organisations should offer employees who occupy managerial positions distinct benefits that competing organisations would find difficult to imitate, such as paid annual paternity or

maternity leave, a furnished home in an attractive location, student loan debt reimbursement, more vacation hours with pay and annual travel stipends. This might increase the number of sacrifices that managerial employees have in the organisation, thereby increasing their level of embeddedness in the organisation. The more employees perceive that leaving the organisation will be costly to them, the higher they lower their intents to leave the organisation.

Senior managers might increase managerial employees' embeddedness in the community by organising informal get-togethers that promote leisure activities, such as indoor activities (e.g., sports), entertainment activities, such as local theatre (Dawley & Andrews, 2012; Crossley et al., 2007), and family gathering events, such as fund-raising dinners for community projects. Senior managers should also offer perks that affect the private lives of managerial employees (e.g., access to organisation-provided day care facilities or a vehicle provided by the company), such that managerial employees would be reluctant to leave their residential community (Mitchell et al., 2001). Further, senior managers should create family-supportive work environments through family-supportive policies. Examples of such policies include flexible scheduling, telecommuting, family leave and family-supportive supervision. The latter refers to supervisors who support work and family balance by accommodating activities, for example, flexible work scheduling, allowing employees to bring a child to work and job-sharing arrangements (Dalton & Mesch, 1990; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Although employee relocation and transfer increases organisational flexibility and employee career development (e.g., Campion, Cheraskin, & Stevens, 1994; Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Hite, 1995), senior managers should avoid employee transfers that result in community relocation, because geographic relocation often disrupts community bonds and social networks (Noe &

Barber, 1993). Senior manager should recruit managerial employees from communities close to organisation branches. In circumstances where managerial employees' relocation is imperative, organisations should provide managers with relevant information about the new residential community (e.g., weather, security, dialect), facilities (e.g., accommodation) and perks (e.g., bonuses for relocating to deprived communities) that are likely to facilitate their acclimatisation in the new neighbourhood. Because family members such as spouses, children, and elderly parents potentially influence the embeddedness of individuals in their community (Feldman et al., 2012), organisations should incorporate the interests and needs of family members of managerial employees into their transfer plans. For example, organisations could pay the transportation costs of elderly parents' routine medical check-ups with specialists who are located in the original (i.e., pre-transfer) communities.

Senior managers should recruit high NA or low PA managerial employees by using methods such as personality tests and WABs that predict individuals who are likely to leave their jobs (Allen et al., 2010; Morgeson, Reider, & Campion, 2007). Personality tests should include specific questions about the traits of applicants that would strengthen their embeddedness with the organisation and in the community. WAB items that assess whether a current employee referred an applicant or an applicant has friends and family members working in the organisation are important because organisations can rapidly enquire about applicants' behaviours from contacts in the organisation, who are less likely to refer applicants who would not fit in the job (Barrick & Zimmerman, 2005; Breugh & Starke, 2000). Also, WAB items like "tenure in a previous job" are a predictor of turnover, because employees who quickly change jobs are more likely to replicate such behaviour in future jobs (Barrick & Zimmerman, 2005; Cascio, 1976). Regarding current managerial employees with high PA

and low NA, organisations should recruit experienced career counsellors to identify the different emotions of managerial employees and offer training programs to regulate these emotions. Totterdell and Parkinson (1999) noted that individuals could learn to utilise effective emotional regulation tactics.

Senior managers should use formal (e.g., orientation programs), serial (e.g., mentors or role models) and collective (e.g., training associates) socialisation tactics to increase their newcomer managers' embeddedness (Ashforth et al., 2007; Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005; Sonnentag, Niessen, & Ohly, 2004). Senior managers should also facilitate newcomer managerial employees' access to home buying counselling, particularly for those who geographically change residential community to be close to the organisation branch (Ampofo, Coetzer, et al., 2017). Regarding mid-career managerial employees, senior managers should encourage tactics such as flexible scheduling and telecommuting to augment the work–non-work balance, because mid-career employees perform more leadership and boundary-spanning roles that affect their non-work roles, which are important to them (Ashforth et al., 2007; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Senior managers should offer late career managerial employees more non-portable benefits (e.g., stock options and defined pension benefits) and valued perks such as vacations, retirement benefits and sick leave.

Senior managers might reduce managerial employees' POP by clearly defining performance appraisal guidelines to minimise ambiguity (Poon, 2004) and ensuring that appraisers support the performance ratings of managerial employees with specific documentation of actions and actual work behaviours of managers. Senior managers should consider using 360-degree performance appraisals (i.e., appraisal systems that collect feedback from multiple sources)

because ratings from other sources reduce managers' deliberate distortion of employee performance ratings resulting from political motives such as avoiding confrontations for low ratings or gaining goodwill (DeNisi & Murphy, 2017; Fried & Tiegs, 1995). Senior managers should also formalise rules and procedures, and clarify roles and responsibilities to minimise ambiguity for managerial employees to achieve goals (Ferris et al., 1996; Parker et al., 1995). Because team members are dependent on the knowledge, skills and experience of one another to achieve success for the organisation (Cattani, Ferriani Negro, & Perretti, 2008; Hoegl & Gemuenden, 2001; Morgeson et al., 2005), senior managers should reward team efforts rather than individual efforts to minimise managerial employees' self-seeking interests of resource maximisation at the expense others. Therefore, to enhance intra-organisational connections, senior managers should design jobs that require cross-functional teams and project groups to implement. For example, branch managers in the same community can form a team to strategise methods to increase the profitability and customer base for the entire organisation in the community.

8.3 Synopsis of the Study's Contributions

The findings of the present study make seven main theoretical and four main practical contributions, which are outlined below.

8.3.1 Theoretical Contributions

Thought leaders in JE scholarship have called for more replication and extension of the main ideas in the JE–turnover relationship, rather than seeking to link JE to other outcome criteria, such as OCB and task performance (Lee et al., 2014). In a similar vein, Mallol et al. (2007) noted that examining samples from a range of national cultures helps to determine the

generalisability of the cumulative JE results. *Therefore, the study contributes to the literature by investigating the applicability of the JE construct in a Ghanaian context. Specifically, the study contributes to the turnover literature in the context of Ghana's banking sector by testing the effects of JE on the turnover intentions of bank employees in managerial positions.*

Lee et al. (2004) noted it is important to consider the separate effects of organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness. However, many studies have considered only organisation embeddedness (e.g., Harris et al., 2011; Peltokorpi et al., 2017), which deemphasises the potentially important influence of community embeddedness on employee turnover. Because excluding community embeddedness is inconsistent with Mitchell and colleagues' (2001) original theorisation of JE, this study recognises the importance of community embeddedness in individuals' turnover process by disaggregating JE into community embeddedness and organisation embeddedness and testing the predictive validity of the dimensions on turnover intentions. *The study shows that both organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness influence turnover intentions.*

Only a handful of studies examine the sub-dimensions of links, fit and sacrifice within organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness (Lee et al. 2014). Thus, this study adds to the literature by examining how each of the sub-dimensions of links, fit and sacrifice within both organisation embeddedness and community embeddedness are associated with turnover intentions. *Specifically, this study demonstrates that the sub-dimensions of links, fit and sacrifice within organisation embeddedness are associated with turnover intentions. Further, this study demonstrates empirically that within community embeddedness the sub-dimensions of links and sacrifices, but not fit, are associated with turnover intentions.*

As noted, scholars have argued that the main ideas in the JE–turnover relationship should be extended, rather than extending JE to non-turnover criteria (Lee et al., 2014). *Thus, the study contributes to knowledge on the JE–turnover intentions relationship by showing that affectivity traits, career stages and POP moderate the relationship between JE and turnover intentions.*

Only a handful of studies have examined moderator variables in the relationship between JE and turnover (e.g., Coetzer et al., 2017; Peltokorpi et al., 2017). Therefore, there is a need to examine additional moderators in the JE–turnover relationship (Jiang et al., 2012). *This study contributes to the literature by adding to the few variables that have been found to moderate the relationship between JE and turnover intentions.*

The role of career stage is an important topic for research because both the ability to become embedded and the desirability of becoming embedded are likely to change across time (Feldman et al., 2012). However, no known study has examined the role of career stage in the relationship between JE and turnover intentions. *Thus, the present study contributes to the literature by demonstrating that managers' perceptions of their current career stage, but not their age and tenure, influence their job embeddedness.*

Finally, Crossley and colleagues (2007) noted that there is a need to examine individual differences that relate to impressions of being embedded. A handful of studies have examined the role of personality traits in an individual's job embeddedness (e.g., Holtom et al., 2012; Lev & Koslowsky, 2012b). *Therefore, this study adds to the literature by demonstrating the important role of affectivity traits (i.e., PA and NA) in individuals' job embeddedness, which in turn influences their turnover intentions.*

8.3.2 Practical Contributions

Drawing on JE theory and results of the data analysis, this study contributes to employee retention practices by suggesting family-supportive work environments through family-supportive policies and family-supportive supervisors, avoidance of employee transfers that result in geographic relocation, recruitment of managerial employees from the local community, increased work engagement through job designs, better training programs and long-term career development opportunities, provision of realistic information to prospective managerial employees and employee referrals.

The study makes practical contributions by suggesting strategies for increasing the embeddedness of bank employees who occupy managerial positions, which include employing newcomer socialisation tactics, such as an orientation program and mentoring; facilitation of access to home purchasing counselling for new managerial employees; flexible scheduling and telecommuting for mid-career managerial employees; and non-portable benefits and perks, such as vacations, for late career managerial employees.

The study also contributes to retention practices in banks by proposing strategies aimed at minimising dysfunctional political activities. These strategies include implementing clearly defined performance appraisal guidelines, using 360-degree performance appraisals, clarifying roles and responsibilities, and employing cross-functional teams and project groups.

Finally, the study makes practical contributions by suggesting the use of personality tests and WABs during recruitment and selection of prospective managerial employees in order to hire high NA or low PA managerial employees who are likely to be embedded in the job.

However, it is important to consider that hiring individuals with these affectivity traits has potential implications for other work-related outcomes (Montani, Dagenais-Desmarais, Giorgi, & Grégoire, 2018; Staw & Cohen-Charash, 2005; Turban et al., 2013). For example, high NA individuals may not cope well with managing work-related stress and having difficult conversations with customers and colleagues (Kaplan et al., 2009; Vasey et al., 2013). Accordingly, the present study also suggests recruiting highly experienced career counsellors to assist current managerial employees, who are high PA or low NA, to regulate their emotions.

8.4 Strengths of the Study

The present study has several strengths. First, the study was the first of kind to test the applicability of JE in Ghana, particularly in the banking sector. Further, besides being the first study to examine the moderating effects of career stage, affectivity traits and POP on the relationship between JE and turnover intentions, the study was the first of its kind to examine multiple moderator variables simultaneously in the JE–turnover relationship. Another strength of the study is that managerial employees were sampled from different types of organisation from four regions of Ghana—that is, public and private banks; large, medium and small banks (in terms of branches and customer base); foreign-owned and locally-owned banks; and newly established and traditional banks (in terms of when they commenced operations in Ghana). Thus, the findings of this study represent the views of managerial employees from various organisational types in the banking sector.

Another strength is that this study used personal interviews to pre-test the questionnaires, and the feedback was used to amend the questionnaires before the main study. The study also

used both procedural and statistical approaches to minimise CMB. The methodological procedure involved using two different questionnaires (i.e., Time 1 and Time 2 questionnaires) to minimise socially desirable responses. Regarding statistical approaches, this study used both Harman's single factor test and CLF to control for CMB.

Finally, a key strength of this study was the use of rigorous analytical techniques, such as CFA and Hayes PROCESS macro. CFA was used to determine convergent, discriminant and construct validity, and reliabilities of the constructs. The PROCESS macro helped to determine the conditional effects of the predictor variable on the criterion variable, with 5000 bootstrapped samples at 95% bias corrected confidence intervals (i.e., the most precise confidence intervals in bootstrapping; MacKinnon et al., 2004).

8.5 Methodological Limitations and Implications for Further Research

The present study has limitations that could be addressed in future research. For instance, turnover intention, instead of actual turnover, was the criterion variable in this study. Although turnover intention is a strong and immediate predictor of actual turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008), future research should use actual turnover as the criterion variable because people's intentions are not same as their behaviours, and not all intentions are likely to result in actual events. Also, although data were collected at different time points, the findings of the present study were limited using cross-sectional data, which makes it difficult to draw any causal inferences from the findings. Longitudinal designs should therefore be employed in future research, especially when assessing actual turnover, in order to make causal conclusions.

Although the study drew samples from different types of banks in Ghana, comparative analyses were not performed between the organisation types because of the small sample sizes. Thus, future research examining the effects of job embeddedness on turnover intentions among managerial employees in different organisation types, such as private and public banks, is needed. This is because organisation type has been found to influence the embedding and turnover process of individuals (e.g., Coetzer et al., 2017; Jiang et al., 2012).

Further, the present study was methodologically limited because it used a non-random sampling procedure (i.e., purposive sampling procedure) to select participants, which limits the generalisation of findings. To minimise the limitations relating to a non-random sampling method, I used a rigorous analytical technique, that is, Hayes' PROCESS macro to bootstrap samples to 5,000 at 95% bias corrected confidence intervals to determine the conditional effects on the relationships (Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008; Zhao, Lynch Jr., & Chen, 2010). Nevertheless, to generalise the findings, future research should use random sampling procedures to recruit participants. The study was further limited by its scope and sampling frame. That is, participants were managerial employees drawn from the banking sector of Ghana, making generalisation of the findings difficult. Future research should therefore either replicate the study in other sectors of economic activity or other African countries, or expand the study by including other managerial employees (e.g., information technology engineers, internal auditors) in the banking sector.

Additionally, this study was limited by its use of closed-ended questionnaires for data collection, because this method restricts participants from providing the reasons for their choice of responses. Thus, future research should include open-ended questions that enable participants to provide details about their responses if they so desire.

Finally, limitations associated with CMB may be present in the study even though statistical analysis found no concerns relating to CMB and certain procedures to remedy CMB were adopted, such as collecting data at different time points. Nevertheless, the study used self-report data, and data were collected from single source, which may have been subject to CMB (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Therefore, future studies should adopt additional procedures that control the effects of CMB, such as collecting data from different sources and complementing self-report data with informant report data. For instance, data on employees' embeddedness in their organisation and residential community could be obtained from their co-workers, supervisors, close friends and family members.

8.6 Conclusion

JE theory was developed and tested in the US and subsequently replicated and extended in mainly Western developed countries. This raises the question of whether JE theory is applicable in a developing country such as Ghana, which has a highly collectivist national culture and a very different institutional framework compared with Western developed countries. To address this question the present study examined associations between the composite JE construct and each of its sub-dimensions and the turnover intentions of strategically valuable employees in selected banks. The results suggest that the theory and its measure are predictively valid and that the theory will be useful for further developing an understanding of factors influencing voluntary turnover and for managing retention in Ghana. This study also responds to calls by JE scholars for further theory development through research that examines moderators of the JE–turnover relationship. Three potential moderators that were suggested by JE scholars, and that were also deemed to be pertinent to banks in Ghana, were examined in the present study. These moderators are affectivity traits,

POP and career stage. The results contribute to the expansion of JE theory beyond simple linear effects and were used to generate several practical guidelines for managing the retention of key employees in Ghanaian banks.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: A summary of results of key studies that examine the relationship between JE and turnover

Title and context of study	Authors and year of publication	Results
1. Why people stay: Using job embeddedness to predict voluntary turnover (United States)	Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001	Job embeddedness predicts both intent to leave and "voluntary turnover" and explains significant incremental variance over and above job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job alternatives, and job search.
2. The effects of job embeddedness on organisational citizenship, job performance, volitional absences, and voluntary turnover.	Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004	Off-the-job embeddedness was significantly predictive of subsequent "voluntary turnover" and volitional absences, whereas on-the-job embeddedness was not.
3. Do organisational socialisation tactics influence newcomer embeddedness and turnover? (United States)	Allen, 2006	On-the-job embeddedness is negatively related to turnover and mediates relationships between some socialisation tactics and turnover.
4. Development of a global measure of job embeddedness and integration into a traditional model of voluntary turnover (United States)	Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield, 2007	Job embeddedness predicted voluntary turnover beyond job attitudes and core variables from traditional models of turnover.
5. Turnover contagion: How coworkers' job embeddedness and job search behaviours influence quitting. (United States)	Felps, Mitchell, Hekman, Lee, Holtom, & Harman, 2009	Coworkers' job embeddedness and job search behaviours explain variance in individual "voluntary turnover" over and above that explained by other individual and group-level predictors.
6. When and how is job embeddedness predictive of turnover? A meta-analytic investigation	Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, & Mitchell, 2012	On-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness negatively related to turnover intentions and actual turnover, after controlling for job satisfaction, affective commitment, and job alternatives.
7. Perceived organisational support and embeddedness as key mechanisms connecting socialisation tactics to commitment and turnover among new employees	Allen & Shanock, 2013	On-the-job embeddedness both relate to organisational commitment and voluntary turnover.

8. Thinking job embeddedness not turnover: Towards a better understanding of frontline hotel worker retention (Australia)	Robinson, Kralj, Solnet, Goh, & Callan, 2014	A negative relationship was found between organisational sacrifice and intentions to leave, while a positive relationship was found between community links and intentions to leave.
9. Organisational embeddedness, turnover intentions, and voluntary turnover: The moderating effects of employee demographic characteristics and value orientations (Japan)	Peltokorpi, Allen, & Froese, 2017	Organisational embeddedness predicts both turnover intentions and actual voluntary turnover.
10. Does job embeddedness predict turnover intentions in SMEs? (Western Australia and South Africa)	Coetzer, Inma, Poisat, Redmond, & Standing, 2019	On-the-job embeddedness and each sub-dimension were negatively related to turnover intentions.
11. The mediating role of organisational embeddedness on the relationship between quality of work life and turnover: Perspectives from healthcare professionals (Thailand)	Dechawatanapaisal, 2017	Organisational embeddedness has a negative impact on employees' intention to leave, and on actual turnover
12. Embeddedness and turnover intentions in extra roles: A mixed-methods analysis of the United States Marine Corp Reserve (United States)	DiRenzo et al. 2017	Job embeddedness is negatively related to turnover intentions.
13. Using job embeddedness factors to explain voluntary turnover in four European countries (European dataset)	Tanova & Holtom, 2008	Turnover decision is not only influenced by the individual's attitudes towards work or about the actual opportunities in the labour market, but also influenced by a number of interrelated connections both on and off the job.
14. Does job embeddedness mediate the effect of work engagement on job outcomes? A study of hotel employees in Cameroon (Cameroon)	Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012	Job embeddedness is negatively related to turnover intention
15. Exploring the interpersonal determinants of job embeddedness and voluntary turnover: A conservation of resources perspective (China)	Zhang, Fan, Deng, Lam, Hu, & Wang, 2019	Job embeddedness is related negatively to voluntary turnover.

16. Why do self-initiated expatriates quit their jobs: The role of job embeddedness and shocks in explaining turnover intentions (United Arab Emirates)	Hussain & Deery, 2018	On-the-job embeddedness and shocks played a key role in predicting turnover intentions.
17. Frontline employees' high performance work practices, trust in supervisor, job embeddedness and turnover intentions in hospitality industry (Thailand)	Afsar, Shahjehan, & Shah, 2018	Job embeddedness fully mediates the effects of high-performance work practices and trust in supervisor on turnover intentions and turnover intention positively affects the actual voluntary turnover.
18. Embeddedness across contexts: A two-country study on the additive and buffering effects of job embeddedness on employee turnover (China and Switzerland)	Sender, Rutishauser, & Staffelbach, 2018	On-the-job embeddedness reduced the likelihood of turnover more strongly in Switzerland than in China (additive effect). In China, the unsolicited job offer–turnover relationship was stronger when employees had lower levels of off-the-job embeddedness (buffering effect).
19. The job embeddedness-turnover relationship: Effects of organisation size and work group cohesion (South Africa)	Coetzer, Inma, & Poisat, 2017	Job embeddedness predicted turnover intentions in large organisations, but not in small organisations. Contrary to expectations, employees in small organisations perceived that they would sacrifice more benefits than employees in large organisations if they were to quit.
20. Job embeddedness in a culturally diverse environment (United States)	Mallol, Holtom, & Lee, 2007	Job embeddedness is a robust predictor of employee retention across diverse populations.
21. The relative roles of engagement and embeddedness in predicting job performance and intention to leave (United States)	Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008	Engagement and embeddedness each shared unique variance with in-role performance and intention to leave.
22. Perceived obsolescence, organisational embeddedness, and turnover of IT workers: An empirical study (United States)	Zhang, Ryan, Prybutok, & Kappelman, 2012	Fit and sacrifice dimensions of embeddedness mediate the relationship between perceived skill obsolescence and turnover intention, but that only the sacrifice dimension is a full mediator.
23. Conflict at work, job embeddedness, and their effects on intention to quit among women employed in travel agencies Evidence from a religious city in a developing country (Iran)	Khorakian, Nosrati, & Eslami, 2018	Job embeddedness is negatively related to employees' intention to quit.

24. Employee embeddedness as a moderator of the relationship between work and family conflict and leaving intention	Treuren, 2017	On-the-job fit embeddedness had no effect on the relationship between work and family conflict and leaving intention. As predicted, on-the-job link embeddedness weakened the effect and on-the-job sacrifice embeddedness strengthened the effect of work and life conflict on leaving intention.
(Australia)		
25. Integrating the unfolding model and job embeddedness model to better understand voluntary turnover	Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006	Job embeddedness incrementally explained the variance in turnover intentions above and beyond what was explained by gender and job satisfaction.
26. Staying put: Off-the-job embeddedness as a moderator of the relationship between on-the-job embeddedness and turnover intentions	Dawley & Andrews, 2012	On-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness were negatively and significantly associated with turnover intentions.
(United States)		
27. Will they stay or will they go? The role of job embeddedness in predicting turnover in individualistic and collectivistic cultures	Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010	Although organisation job embeddedness predicted turnover in both countries, different dimensions of job embeddedness predicted turnover in the United States and India. On the basis of individualism– collectivism theory, person–job fit was a significant predictor of lower turnover in the United States, whereas person– organisation fit, organisation links, and community links were significant predictors of lower turnover in India.
(United States and India)		

Appendix 2: Mahalanobis Distance Values

12.49887	4.18274	2.10818	1.54945	.91086	.53282	.18171
10.01539	3.91764	2.10768	1.53740	.90782	.53282	.18171
9.70529	3.84871	2.10768	1.53740	.90782	.53038	.16926
9.61368	3.77876	2.10768	1.53740	.89915	.51487	.16335
8.96559	3.74959	2.10768	1.52122	.89915	.51487	.16335
8.91991	3.68705	2.03032	1.51966	.89399	.51487	.16335
8.91991	3.68705	2.02990	1.43475	.89399	.51487	.16335
8.72367	3.57813	1.99930	1.42450	.87496	.51487	.14790
8.59335	3.57784	1.99930	1.42349	.87227	.51487	.14790
7.94543	3.57784	1.99930	1.42349	.87227	.48671	.12748
7.85087	3.47884	1.98558	1.41981	.85114	.48671	.12748
7.80648	3.47550	1.97892	1.41888	.81032	.48240	.12748
7.80648	3.47147	1.95816	1.41888	.81032	.48240	.12748
7.10753	3.36839	1.95816	1.37499	.79380	.48181	.12748
7.07293	3.36839	1.90900	1.37499	.79380	.48181	.12748
6.76145	3.36839	1.89162	1.31801	.79380	.47889	.10431
6.71689	3.23354	1.84325	1.27304	.79194	.45067	.10431
6.56337	3.21518	1.83741	1.27304	.79177	.45067	.10253
6.39732	3.18922	1.83741	1.26707	.78381	.44183	.10253
6.39732	3.16688	1.80025	1.26285	.78381	.44183	.09535
6.27149	3.00144	1.79043	1.26285	.78381	.41418	.09317
6.25143	2.99985	1.77677	1.24529	.78381	.39518	.09317
6.23939	2.98675	1.74938	1.21895	.78350	.38205	.09317
6.08032	2.90903	1.72655	1.21536	.78350	.37919	.08995
6.07882	2.88128	1.72002	1.21536	.78246	.36147	.08995
5.91935	2.88128	1.72002	1.20270	.76362	.33419	.07791
5.82661	2.88128	1.71724	1.16070	.73946	.31084	.05537
5.80355	2.85563	1.70913	1.16070	.72963	.31011	.04973
5.68815	2.84730	1.70913	1.15619	.72963	.31011	.04973
5.64324	2.74300	1.70913	1.15183	.72199	.30603	.04434
5.54692	2.72066	1.70913	1.14763	.71481	.30603	.04434
5.31621	2.59941	1.70616	1.14763	.71481	.30477	.04434
5.14871	2.49867	1.67340	1.13438	.69064	.26357	.04434
5.14871	2.40990	1.67340	1.10098	.68878	.26357	.04239
5.14158	2.37723	1.66634	1.08310	.63764	.26357	.04239
5.12758	2.37476	1.66634	1.06542	.62790	.25147	.04239
5.02000	2.37476	1.66063	1.06542	.62790	.24889	.02523
4.98286	2.33546	1.61827	1.06542	.62790	.24275	.02523
4.93993	2.33546	1.61250	1.04467	.62790	.24113	.01360
4.91561	2.29107	1.57637	1.02931	.60430	.24113	.00831
4.91561	2.24345	1.57637	1.00698	.60300	.24113	
4.80457	2.24228	1.57637	1.00698	.60300	.23691	
4.71740	2.23315	1.57637	.98101	.60300	.23691	
4.54207	2.22701	1.57189	.97789	.58137	.23691	
4.52505	2.17998	1.55721	.97789	.57334	.22242	
4.48925	2.16717	1.54945	.96289	.57281	.22242	
4.46292	2.15169	1.54135	.96136	.56986	.21354	
4.28810	2.15127	1.54985	.96136	.56067	.21210	
4.20685	2.13421	1.54945	.91137	.53704	.21210	

Appendix 3: Collinearity Statistics for Each Hypothesis Testing

	Tolerance	VIF
Hypothesis 1a		
Gender	.477	2.097
Age	.960	1.042
Marital status	.969	1.033
Education	.930	1.075
Years of employment in the organisation	.517	1.936
Years of employment in the industry	.381	2.627
Job satisfaction	.984	1.016
Organisational commitment	.953	1.049
Alternative jobs	.978	1.022
Job embeddedness	.973	1.028
Hypothesis 1b		
Gender	.476	2.099
Age	.952	1.050
Marital status	.968	1.033
Education	.925	1.082
Years of employment in the organisation	.516	1.939
Years of employment in the industry	.381	2.627
Job satisfaction	.982	1.018
Organisational commitment	.948	1.055
Alternative jobs	.978	1.022
Organisation embeddedness	.971	1.030
Community embeddedness	.965	1.036
Hypothesis 1c		
Gender	.472	2.117
Age	.937	1.068
Marital status	.960	1.042
Education	.927	1.079
Years of employment in the organisation	.504	1.986
Years of employment in the industry	.369	2.710
Job satisfaction	.979	1.021
Organisational commitment	.923	1.083
Alternative jobs	.972	1.029
Organisation fit	.298	3.361
Organisation links	.366	2.734
Organisation sacrifice	.337	2.970
Community fit	.576	1.736
Community links	.416	2.403
Community sacrifice	.372	2.691
Hypothesis 2		
Gender	.474	2.108
Age	.958	1.044
Marital status	.963	1.038
Education	.928	1.078
Years of employment in the organisation	.514	1.945
Years of employment in the industry	.378	2.642
Job satisfaction	.952	1.050
Organisational commitment	.917	1.090
Alternative jobs	.965	1.036

Job embeddedness	.972	1.029
Negative affect	.953	1.050
Positive affect	.937	1.068
Hypothesis 3		
Gender	.391	2.556
Age	.959	1.043
Marital status	.957	1.045
Education	.926	1.079
Years of employment in the organisation	.514	1.947
Years of employment in the industry	.379	2.637
Job satisfaction	.978	1.023
Organisational commitment	.950	1.052
Alternative jobs	.974	1.027
Job embeddedness	.973	1.028
Career stage	.654	1.528
Hypothesis 4		
Gender	.477	2.095
Age	.949	1.054
Marital status	.968	1.033
Education	.913	1.095
Years of employment in the organisation	.515	1.940
Years of employment in the industry	.380	2.635
Job satisfaction	.987	1.013
Organisational commitment	.960	1.042
Alternative jobs	.979	1.022
Organisation embeddedness	.976	1.025
Perception of organisational politics	.968	1.033

Appendix 4: Results for Harman Single Factor

Component	Initial eigenvalues			Extraction sums of squared loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.911	11.821	11.821	5.911	11.821	11.821
2	5.378	10.757	22.578			
3	4.005	8.010	30.588			
4	3.592	7.184	37.771			
5	3.046	6.092	43.864			
6	2.388	4.776	48.640			
7	2.130	4.259	52.899			
8	1.900	3.800	56.700			
9	1.786	3.573	60.272			
10	1.492	2.984	63.257			
11	1.111	2.221	65.478			
12	1.028	2.057	67.535			
13	0.937	1.873	69.408			
14	0.849	1.698	71.106			
15	0.799	1.597	72.703			
16	0.789	1.579	74.282			
17	0.690	1.381	75.663			
18	0.653	1.307	76.969			
19	0.647	1.295	78.264			
20	0.602	1.204	79.468			
21	0.593	1.186	80.655			
22	0.561	1.123	81.777			
23	0.546	1.093	82.870			
24	0.513	1.027	83.896			
25	0.503	1.005	84.902			
26	0.484	0.967	85.869			
27	0.471	0.942	86.811			
28	0.456	0.913	87.723			
29	0.431	0.862	88.586			
30	0.425	0.850	89.436			
31	0.398	0.795	90.231			
32	0.367	0.734	90.965			
33	0.354	0.709	91.674			
34	0.351	0.702	92.376			
35	0.336	0.672	93.048			
36	0.331	0.662	93.709			
37	0.315	0.629	94.339			
38	0.300	0.600	94.938			
39	0.290	0.581	95.519			
40	0.272	0.543	96.063			
41	0.261	0.522	96.585			
42	0.257	0.515	97.100			
43	0.250	0.501	97.600			
44	0.226	0.452	98.053			
45	0.216	0.432	98.485			
46	0.209	0.418	98.903			
47	0.188	0.377	99.280			
48	0.147	0.294	99.574			
49	0.119	0.237	99.811			
50	0.094	0.189	100.000			

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

Appendix 5: Results for CLF Analysis

Items	SFL with no CLF	SFL with CLF	Delta
JS3	0.837	0.748	0.089
JS2_r	0.863	0.716	0.147
JS1	0.918	0.796	0.122
TI5	0.735	0.657	0.078
TI3	0.918	0.883	0.035
TI2	0.928	0.897	0.031
TI1	0.786	0.734	0.052
PJA2	1.101	1.026	0.075
PJA1	0.798	0.753	0.045
POP6	0.549	0.481	0.068
POP5	0.591	0.466	0.125
POP4	0.829	0.758	0.071
POP3	0.806	0.744	0.062
POP2	0.784	0.718	0.066
POP1	0.633	0.592	0.041
CE9	0.580	0.483	0.097
CE8	0.757	0.719	0.038
CE7	0.646	0.594	0.052
CE5	0.639	0.568	0.071
CE4	0.698	0.645	0.053
CE3	0.622	0.583	0.039
CE2	0.682	0.617	0.065
CE1	0.597	0.551	0.046
OE9	0.689	0.556	0.133
OE8	0.789	0.725	0.064
OE7	0.840	0.733	0.107
OE5	0.762	0.684	0.078
OE4	0.749	0.608	0.141
OE3	0.847	0.793	0.054
OE2	0.764	0.682	0.082
OE1	0.760	0.715	0.045
NA8	0.639	0.568	0.071
NA6	0.802	0.763	0.039
NA5	0.696	0.681	0.015
NA3	0.692	0.626	0.066
PA10	0.681	0.634	0.047
PA9	0.705	0.679	0.026
PA6	0.668	0.652	0.016
PA5	0.733	0.677	0.056
PA4	0.717	0.623	0.094
PA3	0.718	0.671	0.047
PA2	0.749	0.610	0.139
PA1	0.686	0.594	0.092
OC6_r	0.836	0.768	0.068
OC4_r	0.762	0.635	0.127
OC3_r	0.523	0.411	0.112
Community embeddedness	0.614	0.497	0.117
Organisation embeddedness	0.864	0.761	0.103

Note: JS = job satisfaction; TI = turnover intentions; OC = organisational commitment; OE = organisation embeddedness; CE = community embeddedness; PA = positive affect; NA = negative affect; POP = perception of organisational politics; CFL = common latent factor; SFL = standardised factor loading.

Appendix 6: Questionnaire I

Project Title: Job embeddedness and turnover intention: The moderating role of affectivity traits, career stages and perceptions of organisational politics

Part A Questionnaire

Consent

You are kindly invited to participate in this study because your organisation considers you to be a key employee, and thus would like to retain you. Your participation in this study is voluntary, which means that you can decide not to participate or withdraw at any time. Please note that all your responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality so do not indicate your name or address on the questionnaire. The study results will be used for academic purposes and to inform practice.

I have read and understood the survey purpose and desire of my own free will to participate in this study. Please tick either yes or no.

Yes No

These questions gather some demographic details about you.

1. What is your age group?
Under 30 30-40 41-50 51-60 61 +
2. What is your gender?
Male Female
3. Are you currently married/living with a partner?
Yes No
4. How long have you been employed in this organisation?
Less than 2 years 2-7 years 8-13 years 14-19 years More than 19 years
5. How long have you worked in this industry?
Less than 5 years 5-10 years 11-16 years 17-22 years More than 22 years
6. What is the highest level of education you have attained?
Diploma Bachelor's degree Masters PhD Professional certificate

These passages describe the activities and psychological adjustments of three career stages in which a person finds him or herself, regardless of the occupational background.

7. Please tick (✓) the career stage you currently find yourself in.

1

You are most concerned with finding an occupation in which you can succeed and grow as an individual. You are concerned with gaining stability within your occupation, and securing a place in the working world. Achieving professional success is of utmost importance to you. You strongly desire promotion at work.

2

You are most concerned with retaining your current position, status, and performance level of your career. You are less concerned with future promotion opportunities, and more concerned with keeping current with new developments in your field.

3

You are most concerned with reducing your workload. You are looking to cut down your working hours and are more concerned with hobbies to replace work interests. You are planning towards your retirement which is close.

These questions ask about your satisfaction with your job and workplace. Please indicate how much you agree with the following:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
7. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	1	2	3	4	5
8. In general, I <i>don't</i> like my job.	1	2	3	4	5
9. In general, I like working here.	1	2	3	4	5

These questions ask about your feelings and emotions. Please indicate to what extent you have felt this way in general.

	Very slightly or not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
10. Generally I feel interested	1	2	3	4	5
11. Generally I feel alert	1	2	3	4	5
12. Generally I feel excited	1	2	3	4	5
13. Generally I feel inspired	1	2	3	4	5
14. Generally I feel strong	1	2	3	4	5
15. Generally I feel active	1	2	3	4	5
16. Generally I feel attentive	1	2	3	4	5
17. Generally I feel determined	1	2	3	4	5
18. Generally I feel enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
19. Generally I feel proud	1	2	3	4	5
20. Generally I feel irritable	1	2	3	4	5
21. Generally I feel distressed	1	2	3	4	5
22. Generally I feel ashamed	1	2	3	4	5
23. Generally I feel upset	1	2	3	4	5
24. Generally I feel nervous	1	2	3	4	5
25. Generally I feel hostile	1	2	3	4	5
26. Generally I feel scared	1	2	3	4	5
27. Generally I feel jittery	1	2	3	4	5
28. Generally I feel guilty	1	2	3	4	5
29. Generally I feel afraid	1	2	3	4	5

These questions deal with how much you fit into this organisation, the links you have to others at work and what you would sacrifice if you had to leave. Please indicate how much you agree with the following:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
30. My job utilises my skills and talents well.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I feel like I am a good match for my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
32. If I stay with my organisation, I will be able to achieve most of my goals.	1	2	3	4	5
33. I am a member of an effective work group.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I work closely with my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5
35. On the job, I interact frequently with my work group members.	1	2	3	4	5
36. I have a lot of freedom on this job to pursue my goals.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job.	1	2	3	4	5
38. The prospects for continuing employment with this organisation are excellent.	1	2	3	4	5

These questions focus on your fit with the community where you live, the links you have to others there and what you would sacrifice if you had to leave your residential community. Please indicate how much you agree with the following:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
39. I really love the place where I live.	1	2	3	4	5
40. The place where I live is a good match for me.	1	2	3	4	5
41. The area where I live offers the leisure activities that I like (sports, outdoor activities, cultural events).	1	2	3	4	5
42. My family roots are in this community.	1	2	3	4	5
43. I am active in one or more community organisations (e.g., churches, sports teams, schools).	1	2	3	4	5
44. I participate in cultural and recreational activities in my local area.	1	2	3	4	5
45. Leaving the community where I live would be very hard.	1	2	3	4	5
46. If I were to leave the community, I would miss my non-work friends.	1	2	3	4	5
47. If I were to leave the area where I live, I would miss my neighbourhood.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 7: Questionnaire II

Project Title: Job embeddedness and turnover intention: The moderating role of affectivity traits, career stages and perceptions of organisational politics

Part B Questionnaire

Consent

You are kindly invited to participate in this study because your organisation considers you to be a key employee, and thus would like to retain you. Your participation in this study is voluntary, which means that you can decide not to participate or withdraw at any time. Please note that all your responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality so do not indicate your name or address on the questionnaire. The study results will be used for academic purposes and to inform practice.

I have read and understood the survey purpose and desire of my own free will to participate in this study. Please tick either yes or no.

Yes No

These questions ask about your commitment to your job and to working in this organisation. Please indicate how much you agree with the following:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
a. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
b. I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5
c. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
d. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
e. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5
f. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5

The questions ask about your perceptions of the extent to which your job setting is political in nature. Please indicate how much you agree with the following:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
g. One group always gets their way in the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
h. No one challenges the influential group(s) or people in the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
i. Policy changes help only a few.	1	2	3	4	5
j. People build themselves up by tearing others down.	1	2	3	4	5
k. People get ahead in the organisation because of favouritism not merit.	1	2	3	4	5
l. Individuals <i>do not</i> speak their minds because of fear of retaliation.	1	2	3	4	5
m. Promotions in the organisation go to top performers.	1	2	3	4	5
n. Individuals are rewarded for hard work.	1	2	3	4	5
o. There <i>is no</i> place for individuals who stick to their words.	1	2	3	4	5
p. Pay and promotion policies <i>are not</i> politically applied.	1	2	3	4	5
q. Pay and promotion decisions are consistent with policies.	1	2	3	4	5
r. People speak out frankly even when they are critical of well-established ideas	1	2	3	4	5

These questions ask about your chances of getting an alternative job in another organisation. Please read each statement below and indicate the likelihood of each outcome.

	Very unlikely	Unlikely	Neither unlikely nor likely	Likely	Very likely
s. What is the probability that you can find an acceptable alternative to your job?	1	2	3	4	5
t. If you search for an alternative job within a year, what are the chances that you can find an acceptable job?	1	2	3	4	5

These questions ask about your future intentions. Please indicate how much you agree with the following:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
u. I intend to leave this organisation soon.	1	2	3	4	5
v. I plan to leave this organisation in the next six months.	1	2	3	4	5
w. I will quit this organisation as soon as possible.	1	2	3	4	5
x. I <i>do not</i> plan on leaving this organisation soon.	1	2	3	4	5
y. I may leave this organisation before too long.	1	2	3	4	5