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CULTURAL INFLUENCE ON EMPLOYEE TURNOVER: A MULTI-LEVEL META-ANALYTIC
INVESTIGATION

by

Qing Ma

A Dissertation

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Abstract

The present study meta-analytically analyzed the role of national culture in moderating relationships between turnover criterion (turnover behavior and turnover rates) and its correlates at the individual and collective level, and tested the relative strength of such relationships and cultural effects between levels. Results based on 175 independent samples (N=93113) from 26 countries indicate that relationship(s) of turnover criterion with a) job satisfaction and continuance commitment are stronger in individualistic countries, b) affective commitment is stronger in feminine countries, c) normative commitment is stronger in collectivistic countries, d) shared job attitudes is stronger in egalitarian countries, and e) job embeddedness (signals) are stronger in collectivistic countries; and that such relationships and the moderating effects of culture are stronger at the collective level than at the individual level. These findings provided valuable theoretical and practical implications.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

A critical human capital challenge facing organizations around the world is that of employee turnover, as there are extensive costs associated with the loss of human and social capital and the operational disruptions associated with turnover (Allen, Vardaman, & Bryant, 2010). Over decades, substantial research has been conducted on employee turnover at the individual, group, unit, and the organizational levels (e.g., Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003; Heavey, Holwerda, & Hausknecht, 2013; Park & Shaw, 2013). However, a recent review of the way employee turnover is studied in management journals found that 84% of studies were conducted on U.S. samples (Allen, Hancock, Vardaman, & McKee, 2014). From a theoretical perspective, the bulk of the research that has examined turnover in non-U.S. contexts has tended to simply adopt theories, models, and framework developed in U.S. contexts and assume these perspectives generalize to other contexts (Allen & Vardaman, 2016).

I believe there are good reasons to expect turnover models to vary across cultural and national contexts. Cultural values can impact how people understand their world and their emotional, attitudinal, and behavioral responses to the events in their world (Lytle, Brett, Barsness, Tinsley, & Janssens, 1995). More specifically, there is a growing body of literature suggesting that cultural values play a significant role in extant turnover theory. For example, Fischer and Mansell (2009) meta-analytically showed that affective, continuance, and normative commitment differed based on country-level cultural values of individualism and power distance, and that there were differences in relationships between commitment and turnover intentions as well. Also, Ramesh and Gelfand (2010) suggested that individualism-collectivism is a pivotal national cultural characteristic that moderates the links between job embeddedness and turnover criteria. There is also a growing body of research that studies turnover-related process in samples

around the world, although often without explicitly focusing on the potential role of cross-cultural differences (e.g., Aguiar do Monte, 2012; Bernhard-Oettel, De Cuyper, Schreurs, & De Witte, 2011; Thanacoody, Newman, & Fuchs, 2014).

However, a systematic investigation on how cultural values affect employee turnover across levels of analysis is yet to be done. To date, research that examined the impact of cultural values on employee turnover has focused heavily on individual turnover, which refers to an employee's stay-leave decision, with little to no regards to collective turnover, which refers to the aggregate level of employee departures that occur within groups, work units, or organizations (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011; Heavey, Holwerda, & Hausknecht, 2013). In addition, the individual-level studies have mainly examined the effect of individualism-collectivism on antecedents-turnover relationships (e.g., Jiang et al., 2012; Ramamoorthy & Flood, 2002; Ramesh, & Gelfand, 2010). The effect of other cultural values, such as uncertainty avoidance, femininity-masculinity, and long-term/short term orientation remains unexplored (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberly, 2008). Moreover, the majority of research on collective turnover approaches it by generalizing individual-level theory and findings to the unit level (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011; Nyberg & Ployhart, 2013). Yet collective turnover is more than a simple aggregation of individual turnover; instead, individual and collective turnover are distinct both conceptually and empirically. As Nyberg and Ployhart (2013, p. 111) stated, "Collective turnover is an emergent phenomenon that is only partially isomorphic with individual turnover. Researchers should examine the cross-level antecedents of individual turnover to see how they relate to the emergence of collective turnover."

Therefore, heeding several calls (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberly, 2008; Nyberg & Ployhart, 2013; Shaw, 2011), I develop a meta-analytic framework articulating how cultural

values affect cross-level antecedents at both the individual and collective level, and compare the effects of these antecedents as well as cultural values across levels of analysis. Cross-level antecedents refer to the antecedents of both individual and collective turnover (Nyberg and Ployhart, 2013). A meta-analytic approach allows for an accurate assessment of the research questions because of its ability to statistically aggregate empirical findings to discern whether relationships exist and provide estimates of their size while controlling for statistical artifacts (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004).

I rely on Hofstede's framework of national culture (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede & Bond, 1988) to explore how cultural dimensions (individualism/collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, power distance, masculinity/femininity, and long-term/short-term orientation) moderate the relationship between three cross-level antecedents (job attitudes, job alternatives, and job embeddedness) and turnover criterion at both the individual and collective level, and relative significance of the impact of these cross-level antecedents and cultural values across levels of the analysis. Although there are multiple theoretical perspectives on cultural differences, Hofstede's cultural framework (1980, 2011) has formed the basis of the majority of the prevailing theories and taxonomies present in the cross-cultural literature (e.g., Giacobbe-Miller & Miller, 1995; House et al., 2004; Hui & Au, 2001; Lam, Schaubroeck, & Aryee, 2002; Schwartz, 2004, 2008; Triandis, 1994, 1995), and is also the foundation of the bulk of the existing empirical literature that begins to address culture and turnover-related processes. It enables a comprehensive yet parsimonious examination of the impact of cultural values on individual- and collective-level employee turnover.

In proposing and testing a multi-level framework of employee turnover across cultures, I intend to answer several research questions. First, how do cultural values moderate the

relationship between cross-level antecedents (job attitudes, job alternatives, job embeddedness) and turnover criterion (actual turnover) at the individual level? Although previous research has demonstrated that the antecedents-turnover criterion relationship varies from individualistic countries to collectivistic countries (e.g., Chen, & Francesco, 2000; Fischer & Mansell, 2009; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001; Ramesh, & Gelfand, 2010), it remains unclear how different cultural dimensions moderate each antecedent-turnover criterion link, which cultural dimension has a stronger effect, and for which link. This lack of a systematic examination is problematic given each cultural dimension has distinct impact moderating different links (e.g., Fischer & Mansell, 2009). It's quite possible that the variance caused by other cultural dimensions has been attributed to the individualism-collectivism dimension in previous studies.

Second, how do cultural values moderate the relationship between cross-level antecedents (shared attitudes, alternative signals, embeddedness signals) and turnover rates at the collective level? The moderating effects of cultural dimensions on established antecedent-turnover links remain unexplored. This void has significant negative consequences. Collective turnover has been directly linked to group productivity and firm performance (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011; Heavey, Holwerda, & Hausknecht, 2013; Park, & Shaw, 2013). As a result, research on factors that drive collective-level turnover rates has formed the basis of higher-level firm strategies (Shaw, Duffy, Johnson, & Lockhart, 2005). The application of turnover models based on U.S. samples across multinational enterprises or firms in other countries without accounting for the cultural variations is likely to misguide higher-level strategic decision making and cause serious strategic errors. I seek to fill this void by assessing meta-analytically the moderating effects of cultural dimensions on antecedent-turnover relationships at the collective level.

Third, do (shared) job attitudes, embeddedness (signals), alternative (signals) have a stronger effect on collective turnover than on individual turnover? It's assumed that individual-level turnover theory and models generalize to the collective level (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011; Nyberg & Ployhart, 2013). For example, research on collective turnover has used the aggregated form of several individual-level turnover antecedents (e.g., aggregated job satisfaction) as if they exert an equal influence on turnover rates at the unit, group, or organizational level. Although it's plausible, researchers have challenged this assumption and argued that collective turnover have distinct antecedents and consequences than individual turnover (Dess & Shaw, 2001; Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011; Nyberg & Ployhart, 2013). Most recently, Nyberg and Ployhart (2013) calls for a rigorous investigation of the influence of cross-level antecedents of employee turnover across levels of analysis. Heeding their call, I provide a comprehensive meta-analysis of the relative importance (in the form of effect sizes) of three cross-level antecedents of employee turnover (job attitudes, job alternatives, and job embeddedness) at the individual versus collective level.

Fourth, do cultural values have stronger moderating effects at the collective level than at the individual level? Although it's argued that conceptualization and operationalization of cultural values should be used only for the country level of analysis, the application of national cultural values to individual-level studies are not uncommon (e.g., Kirkman, & Shapiro, 2001; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). It remains a topic of debate in the international business literature whether studies should use national cultural dimensions to explain individual-level process. Contributing to the dialogue, I intend to empirically test whether the moderating effects of national cultural values are stronger on collective than individual turnover. In doing so, I provide accurate assessment of the evidence regarding the applicability of national cultural values to individual processes in the turnover context and offer implication for future research on how

cultural values moderate important turnover links.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Cross-level Antecedents of Employee Turnover

Individual-Level Antecedents. Voluntary turnover at the individual level is defined as “voluntary cessation of membership in an organization by an individual who receives monetary compensation for participating in that organization” (Mobley, 1982, p. 68). Employees constitutes the key resource contributing to an organization’s competitive advantage (Becker, 1993; Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011). The loss of employees can incur extensive costs associated with the loss of human and social capital and the operational disruptions associated with turnover (Allen, Vardaman, & Bryant, 2010). To unravel the causes and correlates of turnover, numerous studies have examined the factors that contribute to an employee’s decision to leave an organization. Three categories of the factors have received a great deal of attention as predictors of employee turnover: Job attitudes, job alternatives, and job embeddedness.

Job attitudes, such as job satisfaction (e.g., Mobley 1977) and organizational commitment (e.g., Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Steers & Mowday, 1979) has developed a predominant presence in the turnover literature. Originally introduced by March and Simon (1958) as “desirability of movement”, job attitudes have been one of the central constructs in a considerable number of models (e.g., Mobley 1977; Mobley et al., 1979; Price and Mueller, 1981, 1986; Steers & Mowday, 1979; Hom & Griffeth, 1991, 2000; Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Job attitudes are considered antecedents of employee turnover, which promote job search or withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism and tardiness, turnover intention, and the actual turnover behavior. Researchers have found that organizational commitment is a better predictor of turnover criterion than job satisfaction (Griffeth et al., 2000). Researchers have further extended the domain of job attitudes to include constructs such as stress (Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986), well-being,

uncertainty (Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989), and “overall job attitudes” (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006).

Job alternatives focus on the information of the labor market and signal the “ease of movement” in the turnover process (March and Simon, 1958). Researchers have tapped this concept by examining perceptions of mobility, available alternatives (Mobley, 1977; Mobley, Hand, Griffeth & Meglino, 1979), labor market conditions (Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980; Hulin et al., 1985), and job search processes (Blau, 1993; Blau, 1994; Bretz, Boudreau and Judge, 1994; Hom & Griffeth, 1991). Griffeth, Steel, Allen and Bryan (2005) developed a five-dimensional scale for job market cognitions, the Employment Opportunity Index, which explained turnover variance over and beyond satisfaction. Steel (2002) offered a comprehensive explanation of the job search processes by amalgamating job attitudes, dynamic job-search processes, and job-search gateways (resource substitutability and spontaneous job offers) into a complex model. He proposed that employees engage in dynamic learning through three distinct job search phases (passive scanning, focused search, and contacting prospective employers). Along with job attitudes, the long-held conventional wisdom is that dissatisfied employees with viable alternatives are more likely to voluntarily quit.

Breaking away from the traditional approach to explaining individual turnover, Lee and Mitchell (1994) proposed an unfolding model to explain why employees quit without engaging in a job search. This model identified five exit paths and proposed the concept of shock-jarring event that initiates the psychological analyses involved in quitting. Building on and extending the unfolding model, Mitchell et al. (2001) developed a new construct, job embeddedness, which is defined as the “totality of forces that keep people in their current employment situations (Feldman & Ng, 2007, p. 352).” It is positively associated with employee retention and

negatively associated with turnover criterion (Mitchell et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2004). There are two types of job embeddedness: on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness (Zhang, Fried, Griffeth, 2012). The central aspects of job embeddedness are links (the links an employee has to other people or the community), fit (how he or she fits in the organization or community), and sacrifice (what the employee would sacrifice upon leaving the organization). It has been proved to be a better predictor of turnover than job attitudes and job alternatives (Mitchell et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2004; Mallol, Holtom & Lee, 2007; Allen, 2006; Mallol, Holtom & Lee, 2007; Zatzick & Iverson, 2006).

Collective-Level Antecedents. Due to a growing attention to the strategic implications of employee turnover, research interest in turnover research at the group, unit, and organizational level has intensified significantly over the last decade (e.g., Hausknecht & Holwerda, 2013; McElroy, Morrow, & Rude, 2001; Shaw, Delery, Jenkins, & Gupta, 1998; Shaw, Gupta, & Delery, 2005; Takeuchi, Marinova, Lepak, & Liu, 2005). Collective turnover is defined as “the aggregate levels of employee departures that occur within groups, work units, or organizations” (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011, p. 353). It is primarily measured using separation rates (the total number of members who leave at any point during the period/the number of members at the beginning, middle, or end of the period or the average of beginning and ending values) or instability rates (the number of beginning members who leave at any point during the period/the total number of beginning members) (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011; Shaw, 2011). Here I briefly review research on the collective-level counterparts of individual job attitudes, job alternatives, and job embeddedness.

Like individual-level job attitudes, collective-level employee attitudes and perception, such as aggregated satisfaction or commitment, are considered to be the unit-level indicators of

collective favor or disfavor with the organization and are negatively correlated with collective-level criterion, including turnover rates (Whitman, Van Rooy, & Viswesvaran, 2010). The logic mirrors that of its individual counterpart: negative shared attitudes and perceptions among members of the unit or organization signal a collective-level “desirability of movement”, which leads to higher turnover rates (e.g., Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Hurley & Estelami, 2007; Ryan et al., 1996; Sellgren et al., 2007; Felps et al., 2009; Whitman et al., 2010). In contrast, positive shared attitudes and perception among members reinforces each other’s sense of “fit” and belongingness with the organization and thus prevent them from leaving (Felps et al., 2009). Similarly to its individual-level counterpart, collective-level commitment (vs. satisfaction) is a stronger predictor of turnover rates (Angle & Perry, 1981; McNulty et al., 2007; Riordan et al., 2005; Trevor & Nyberg, 2008).

Researchers often address collective-level job alternatives by including labor market information, such as unemployment rates (Alexander et al., 1995; Bennett et al., 1993; Gray & Phillips, 1996; Hausknecht et al., 2009; Pfeffer & O’Reilly, 1987; Siebert & Zubanov, 2009; Spencer, 1986; Sun et al., 2007; Terborg & Lee, 1984; Ton & Huckman, 2008). Such information signals the employees’ ability to find a sufficient quantity of extra-organizational alternatives, or the collective-level “ease of movement”. However, researchers have recently argued to include not only the quantity, but also the quality of the alternative in the function. For example, Griffeth and colleagues (2005) proposed to include the quantity as well as the attractiveness of job alternatives in considering the job market cognitions. Heavey and Hausknecht (2013) categorized several factors in their recent meta-analysis as job alternative signals that cover both the quantity and quality of job alternatives. They included unemployment rate, which signals the quantity of potential alternatives, and characteristics of current employers

(e.g., average employee education, site size and quality, and establishment age), which signals the quality of potential job alternatives relative to the current employment.

Job embeddedness, a relatively new concept at the individual level, has gained attention with respect to collective-level turnover research as well. Collective-level job embeddedness is negatively related to turnover rates and positively related to retention. For example, Hom and colleagues (2009) examined job embeddedness at the firm level and found that it has similar effects on quit propensity as its individual counterpart. Other researchers have examined proxies of job embeddedness (e.g., Heavy & Hausknecht, 2013). Trevor and Nyberg (2008) examined HR practices that embedded employees in the organization, which mitigated the positive effects of downsizing on voluntary turnover. Mitchell et al. (2001) noted that tenured employees tend to be more embedded in the organization. For a relative comprehensive summary of such proxies, Heavey and Hausknecht (2013) identified five job embeddedness signals in their meta-analysis: average employee age, average employee tenure, experience concentration, unionization, and proportion female.

National Culture and Cross-level Turnover Antecedents

Most turnover research has been conducted in the USA (Allen, Vardaman, 2016; Allen, Hancock, Vardaman, & McKee, 2014). In a recent review, Allen and Vardaman (2016) noted that 84% of studies were conducted on U.S. samples. As Miller and colleagues (2001; p. 592) noted, “extant compensation and turnover theories, all of which reflect strong Anglo-American biases, must be refined to incorporate contextual factors, including local cultural norms and labor force characteristics.” The bulk of the research that examined turnover in non-U.S. context are based on the assumption that these perspectives generalize to other contexts and tend to adopt theories, models, and frameworks developed in US context. However, a growing number of

studies have started to challenge this assumption. For example, Maertz, Stevens, and Campion (2003) discovered that US-based turnover models are not readily generalizable to Mexican samples. Significant cultural differences have been found with respect to job embeddedness (e.g., Fischer & Mansell, 2009; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010), job satisfaction and withdrawal behaviors (Mallol et al., 2007), and organizational commitment (Thomas & Au, 2002).

To date, research on the cultural effects on employee turnover has mainly focused on individual turnover, with little regard to collective turnover. One exception is bear to mention. In their study across 21 countries, Peretz and Fried (2012) explored how the interaction between societal cultural values and performance appraisal (PA) practices affects organizational turnover rates. According to their findings, individualism/collectivism moderated the relationship between individual-purpose/organizational-purpose PA practices and organizational turnover rates; uncertainty avoidance negatively moderated the relationship between formal PA practices and organizational turnover rates.

At the individual level, research has examined the effect of cultural/national differences on various antecedents-turnover relationship, for example, OCB (Coyne & Ong, 2007), organizational commitment (Thomas & Au, 2002; Wasti, 2003; Yao & Wang, 2006), job satisfaction (Golparvar & Nadi, 2010; Yao & Wang, 2006), organizational justice (Golparvar & Nadi, 2010), job embeddedness (Allen, & Froese, 2015; Fischer & Mansell, 2009; Harman, Blum, Stefani, & Taho, 2009), ease of movement (Posthuma, Joplin, & Maertz, 2005), psychological contract (Arshad, 2016), organizational support (Lobburi, 2012), and job performance (Sturman, Shao, & Katz, 2012).

Despite the growing effort, there has yet to be a systematic attempt to examine the validity of essential antecedents of individual turnover across cultures. Most of the studies

selectively focus on one antecedent of individual turnover; studies that concern multiple antecedents remain rare. Moreover, cross-cultural comparisons are mostly made between two countries, focus of which lies on the distinctness of the countries of choice. For instance, Chen and Francesco (2000) contrasted the effect of organizational commitment on turnover intention among Chinese workers with that among the US workers, attributing the differences to the unique cultural variables of traditional Chinese culture: personalism and guanxi. Posthuma and colleagues (2005) compared the relative validity of job satisfaction, ease of movement, and work-family conflict in predicting turnover intentions using samples from the US and Mexico.

Although several studies investigated the effects of various cultural values on the antecedent-turnover relationship, they have utilized a wide range of different cultural perspectives, concepts, and measures. Arshad (2016) tested the moderating effects of two cultural dimensions from Maznevski et al. (2002)'s framework-subjugation and mastery-on the relationship between perceived contract violation and turnover intention. Yao and Wang (2006) in their study used measures of idiocentrism and allocentrism adapted from Triandis and Gelfand (1998)'s research. Sturman and colleagues (2012) used four cultural dimensions developed by Hofstede (1980) and refined by House et al. (2004): in-group collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and performance orientation.

As a consequence, it remains very difficult to compare, aggregate, and generalize about findings across studies on the cultural effects on the vital antecedent-individual turnover relationships. Turnover scholars cannot directly assess explanations suggested the observed cultural differences at the individual level. Cross-cultural literature on individual turnover lacks conceptual and theoretical integration of its findings.

In 2008, Holtom and colleagues called for a comprehensive analysis on how antecedents

and correlates of employee turnover vary across cultures. Almost a decade has passed and the void remains unfilled. Most recently, Allen and Vardaman (2017) called for a meta-analysis on the role of culture in turnover decisions. In their review, Allen and Vardaman (2017) systematically analyzed studies on employee recruitment and retention in various cultural contexts and identified several directions for future research on employee turnover across cultures. This paper responds to these calls by meta-analytically examining how culture influences cross-level antecedents and turnover criterion within a coherent analytical framework. Specifically, the paper seeks to answer two main questions.

First, how do cultural values moderate the effects of cross-level antecedents (job attitudes, embeddedness, and alternatives) at the individual/collective level? Allen and Vardaman (2017) proposed that culture influences employees' expectations about their role vis-à-vis others, such as social dynamics and relationships with others. Following this logic, employees in different cultural contexts are likely to attach different values to social networks at work. Therefore, the relationship between job embeddedness, which emphasizes the influence of social connections, and employee turnover is likely to vary across cultures. In addition, job attitudes, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment, appear to be more individualistic in nature and are likely to have a stronger influence on turnover decisions in individualistic cultures than in collectivistic cultures (Allen & Vardaman, 2017).

Second, do (shared) job attitudes, embeddedness (signals), alternative (signals), and cultural values have a stronger effect at the collective level than at the individual level? Liu and colleagues (2012) found that when an employee's job attitudes differ from the prevailing unit-level attitudes, the unit-level attitudes predict his or her turnover propensity, making his or her individual job satisfaction trajectory irrelevant. One explanation is the social contagion theory

(Christakis & Fowler, 2013), which suggests that in groups, individuals' attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors tend to become alike due to interpersonal influence. Thus, it stands to reason that (shared) job attitudes, embeddedness (signals), alternative (signals), and cultural values will likely to get "contagious" in a(n) group, unit, or organization (Christakis & Fowler, 2013) and thus have a stronger effect at the collective level than at the individual level. In the section to follow, I will break these questions into four sub-questions and develop hypotheses accordingly.

Chapter 3: Theory Development

The Analytic Framework-Hofstede's Five Cultural Dimensions' Theory

Although there's no commonly accepted definition of culture, most definitions of culture used in the study of organizational behavior embody a value component (e.g., Hofstede, 1980; Schwartz, 1999). A number of theoretical frameworks exist for investigation of cultural values, which presumably govern human behavior (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; Maznevski, DiStefano, Gomez, Noorderhaven, & Wu, 2002; Schwartz, 1994; Trompenaars, 1993). For decades, there has been an ongoing debate as to the best culture model for cross-cultural studies (e.g., Hofstede, 2006; Javidan, House, Dorfman, Hanges, & Sully de Luque, 2006). Despite the overlap in dimensions from different frameworks of cultural values, for example, the individualism-collectivism dimension composes the essence of almost every framework, there are differences in the types of values and attitudes that are emphasized by each framework. For example, Hofstede (1980)'s framework was mainly concerned with work-related values. House and colleagues (2004) called attention to cross-cultural differences that are relevant to societal, organizational, and leadership effectiveness. Inglehart et al. (2004) focused on attitudinal differences on social and political issues across cultures.

This paper has chosen Hofstede's five cultural dimensions' framework (1980, 2011) because it was developed in the work context and with survey questions that focused on the characteristics of work. In addition, it is widely used by both individual- and collective-level studies and thus best suited this paper's need to examine the effect of cultural values on antecedent-turnover links at both the individual and collective level. Moreover, Hofstede's framework (1980, 2011) remains the mostly frequently used in theoretical tests of management theories in other cultures (e.g., Atwater, Wang, Smither, & Fleenor, 2009; Chiang, 2005; Chiang

& Birtch, 2007; Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007; Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou, 2007; Ng, Sorensen, & Yim, 2009). Its proved validity allows for a parsimonious examination without compromising the comprehensiveness of the scope of inquiry.

Hofstede (2011, p. 9) defined culture as “the collective programming of the mind that distinguished the members of one group or category of people from another”. According to him, individuals acquire national cultural values- “broad tendencies to prefer certain states of affairs over others”- from their earliest youth onwards (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2001, p. 5). Such values are deeply rooted in individuals’ mind and largely affect their subsequent behaviors. Based on this premise, he consolidated data from about 116,000 morale surveys completed by 88,000 IBM employees living in 72 countries and regions in the late 1960s and early 1970s and proposed a framework of cultural values which includes five cultural dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, and long-term versus short-term orientations (Hofstede, 1994; Hofstede, 2003; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2001). To date, this framework has been the most widely used framework to examine the influence of national culture on individual and collective behaviors (Taras, Roney, & Steel, 2009; Taras & Steel, 2009).

Individualism-collectivism is defined as “the degree to which people in a country prefer to act as individuals rather than as members of groups” (Hofstede, 1994, p. 6). Specifically, individualism is “a loosely knit social framework in which people are supposed to take care of themselves and of their immediate families only,” while collectivism “is characterized by a tight social framework in which people distinguish between in-groups and out-groups and expect their in-group to look after them in exchange for that they feel they owe absolute loyalty to it” (Hofstede, 1980, p. 45). In individualistic societies, individuals perceive themselves as

independent from other individuals, while in collective societies, individuals perceive themselves as interdependent with their collective group, where they prioritize interests of their group over their own (Chen, Peng, & Saparito, 2002).

Power distance is defined as “the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally” (Hofstede, 1980, p. 45). In societies with high power distance, the less powerful members of organizations and institutions are not expected to express disagreement with more powerful members and both parties endorse the level of inequality (Hofstede, 2011). In contrast, in societies with low power distance, individuals value systems that promote equalitarian and perceive themselves as counterparts with whom they can communicate equally (Adler, 1997).

Uncertainty avoidance is defined as “the extent to which a society feels threatened by uncertain and ambiguous situations and tries to avoid these situations by providing greater career stability, establishing more formal rules, not tolerating deviant ideas and behaviors, and believing in absolute truths and the attainment of expertise” (1980, p. 45). Uncertainty avoiding societies have low tolerance for ambiguity and try to minimize unstructured situations by imposing strict behavioral codes, clear guidance, and laws and rules (Hofstede, 2011). While societies with low uncertainty avoidance value novelty, the unknown, and challenges.

Masculinity-femininity refers to “the extent to which the dominant values in society are masculine”, “that is assertiveness and the acquisition of money and things” (Hofstede, 1980, p. 46). In masculine societies, individuals value assertiveness, ambition, achievement, dominance, and competition, and the distribution of values between gender roles are not equal (Hofstede, 2011). In feminine societies, relational considerations, harmony, quality of life, and care for the weak are valued and gender roles are equal. The women in feminine countries have the same

modest, caring values as the men; in the masculine countries they are assertive and competitive, but not as much as the men (Hofstede, 2011).

Long- versus short-term orientation, or the Confucian dynamism, refers to whether the society is future-oriented or past- and present-oriented (Hofstede & Bond, 1988; Hofstede, 2011). In long-term valued cultures, such as China, individuals value persistence and thrift and are willing to sacrifice present benefits for future well-being (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 1991). In contrast, in short-term valued cultures, such as the U.S., individuals value tradition and current achievement and focus more on their present possessions and benefits than on future plans (Hofstede, 1993).

Question 1: How do cultural values moderate the effects of cross-level antecedents at the individual level?

Job Attitudes. *Individualism-collectivism.* I expect that the negative relationship between job attitudes that focus on the self (e.g., job satisfaction, affective commitment, and continuance commitment), and turnover criterion (e.g., turnover behavior) to be stronger in individualistic countries than in collectivistic countries and the relationship between job attitudes that focus on the group (e.g., normative commitment) and turnover criterion to be stronger in collectivistic countries than in individualistic countries.

Job attitudes that focus on the self, such as job satisfaction (whether or not an employee likes his or her job), affective commitment (an employee's positive emotional attachment to the organization), and continuance commitment (the gains verses losses of working in an organization), are about an employee's personal evaluations of their job at organization that constitute his or her emotional or instrumental attachment to his or her job (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Whereas job attitudes that focus on the group, such as normative commitment,

focus on an employee's feelings of obligation to stay in an organization, dependent upon the collective perception of whether the employee "ought to" stay in the organization (Marsh & Mannari, 1977; Wiener, 1982; Wright, & Bonett, 2002).

Employees in individualistic countries tend to think and act as individuals rather than members of groups (Hofstede, 2011). And in individualistic countries, personal attitudes are stronger predictors of behavioral intentions or behaviors than collective norms (Bontempo & Rivero, 1992). As Triandis (1995, p. 158) stated, "individualists are much more likely to do something because it is fun than because they have an obligation to do it". Following this logic, job attitudes that focus on the self, such as job satisfaction are likely to play a more important role their turnover decisions than those that focus on the group, e.g., normative commitment.

On the contrary, in collective countries, job attitudes that focus on the group, e.g., normative commitment, are likely to have a stronger effect on employee turnover. For example, Abrams and colleagues (1998) found that normative pressures are better predictors than affective commitment of turnover intentions in Japanese organizations (high in collectivism) than in UK organizations (high in individualism). A meta-analysis by Fischer and Mansell (2009) found that stronger individualism is associated with weaker links between normative commitment and turnover intention. Accordingly, I propose the following:

H1a: *The negative relationship between job attitudes that focus on the self (e.g., job satisfaction, affective commitment, and continuance commitment) and turnover criterion (e.g., turnover behavior) will be stronger in countries scoring higher on individualism.*

H1b: *The relationship between job attitudes that focus on the group (e.g., normative commitment) and turnover criterion (e.g., turnover behavior) will be stronger in countries scoring higher on collectiv*

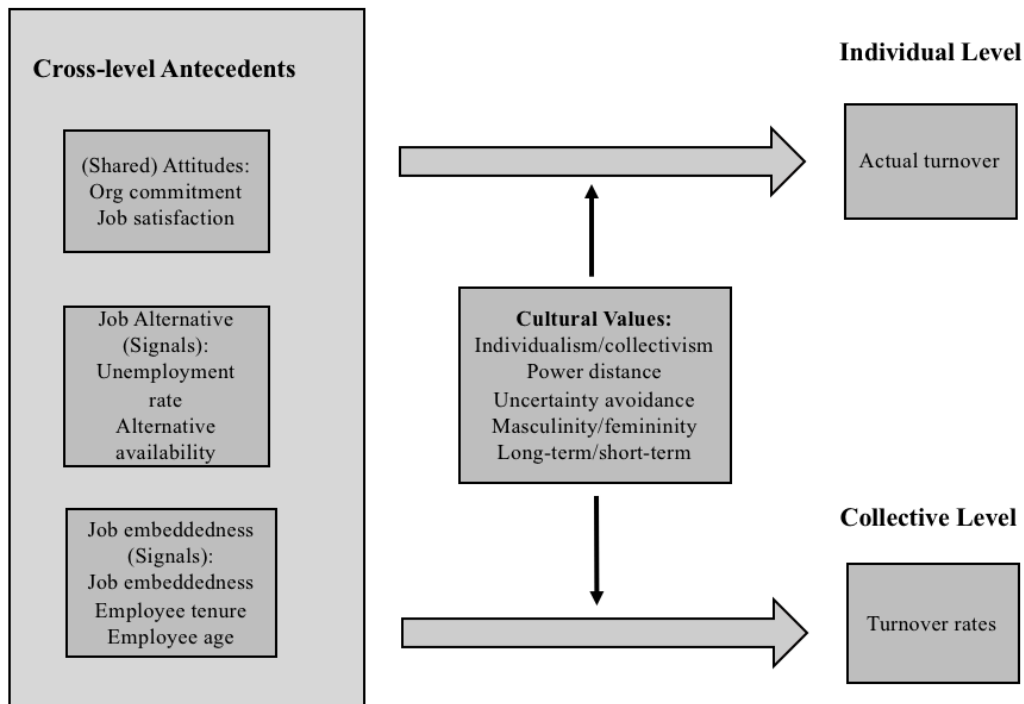


Figure 1. A Multi-level Framework of How Cultural Values Affect Employee Turnover

Power distance. I expect that the negative relationship between job attitudes that focus on obedience and loyalty (e.g., normative commitment) and turnover criterion (e.g., turnover behavior) to be stronger in power distant countries than in egalitarian countries and the negative relationship between job attitudes that focus on discretion and personal preferences (e.g., job satisfaction, affective commitment, continuance commitment) to be stronger in egalitarian countries than in power distant countries.

Job attitudes such as job satisfaction, affective commitment, and continuance commitment influence an employee's judgment about their affective or instrumental attachment to the organization and thus his or her personal decision to leave or stay, for example, an employee with low continuance commitment is more likely to leave the organization due to perceived high personal costs or low personal gains of staying (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Whereas normative commitment refers to a "totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way

which meets organizational goals and interests” (Wiener, 1982, p. 471). It emphasizes obedience and loyalty to the organization, undermining the importance of personal agenda to turnover decisions. For example, in a measurement of normative commitment (Wiener & Vardi, 1980), individuals are asked the extent to which they feel that a person should be loyal to its organization, make sacrifices on its behalf, and not criticize it.

Power distance focuses on whether hierarchy and unequal distribution of power are generally accepted (Hofstede, 1980, 2011). Individuals in power distant countries endorse the level of inequity of the power hierarchy in the organization and have a high respect for obedience and loyalty (Hofstede, 2001). Individuals in the inferior roles are expected to be obedient and loyal, while the superior individuals are supposed to be kind and benevolent (Hofstede, 2011; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 1991). Hence, it stands to reason that employees in power distant countries are more likely to attach a greater value to normative commitment, which emphasizes obedience and loyalty to the organization and its authorities, in deciding to leave the organization. For example, research has shown that in high-power-distance societies, employees tend to feel a greater attachment and loyalty to authority figures, which prevent them from leaving the organization (Cohen, 2006; Fischer & Mansell, 2009). In Japan, a country with high power distance, thinking of quitting based on weighting of personal gains is thought of as inappropriate or rude, while employees are not expected to switch jobs once hired (Moriguchi & Ono, 2004; Near, 1989).

By contrast, in egalitarian countries, individuals are supposed to have lower degree of subordination to hierarchy. Unlike power distant societies where obedience and loyalty dominate their social norms, egalitarian societies value autonomy and freedom of choice (Hofstede, 2001). Consequently, in egalitarian societies, the normative pressures from the organization and

its authorities, e.g., normative commitment, are less likely to greatly influence employees' turnover decisions. Instead, employees are more likely to have more rigorous assessment of their personal experience with current employer, which will in turn drive their turnover behavior. As noted by Fischer and Mansell (2009; p. 1342), "Lower power distance is associated with a more rigorous evaluation of authorities, and an assessment of which benefits are associated with continuing attachment to these authorities." As such, in egalitarian societies, job attitudes that focus on discretion and personal preferences, such as job attitudes, affective commitment, and continuance commitment, will be more likely to play an important role employees' decisions to leave an organization. Accordingly, I propose the following:

H2a: *The negative relationship between job attitudes that focus on discretion and personal preferences (e.g., job satisfaction, affective commitment, and continuance commitment) and turnover criterion (e.g., turnover behavior) will be stronger in countries scoring lower on power distance.*

H2b: *The relationship between job attitudes that focus obedience and loyalty (e.g., normative commitment) and turnover criterion (e.g., turnover behavior) will be stronger in countries scoring higher on power distance.*

Masculinity-femininity. I expect that the negative relationship between job attitudes that relate to affective attachment to the organization (e.g., job satisfaction, affective commitment) and turnover criterion (e.g., turnover behavior) to be stronger in feminine countries and the negative relationship between job attitudes that relate to instrumental attachment to the organization (e.g., continuance commitment) to be stronger in masculine countries.

Job satisfaction is thought of as an emotional or affective state resulting from the evaluation or appraisal of one's job experiences (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Schleicher, Watt, &

Greguras, 2004). Along with job satisfaction, affective commitment focuses on the employee's emotional attachment to the organization (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, & Allen, 1991). Unlike job satisfaction and affective attachment, which focuses on the employee's emotional or affective attachment, continuance commitment focuses on the instrumental gains versus losses of working in an organization (Meyer, & Allen, 1991).

Hofstede (1980; 2011) states that masculine countries value assertiveness, ambition, and achievement while feminine countries value harmony, quality of life, and relationships with people. In other words, individuals in feminine countries prioritize nonmaterial rewards over material rewards. They will value their positive feelings about the organization more than momentary gains. Thus, job satisfaction and affective commitment are more likely to affect their turnover decisions. For example, in Finland, a country with high femininity, turnover intention was not related to the structure of pay (Böckerman & Ilmakunnas, 2009). While in countries with high masculinity, employees are more likely to base their turnover decisions on calculative considerations of gains and losses of working in an organization. Consistent with this argument, Clugston, Howell, and Dorfman (2000) found that masculinity is positively related to continuance commitment. Accordingly, I propose the following:

H3a: *The negative relationship between job attitudes that relate to affective attachment to the organization (e.g., job satisfaction, affective commitment) and turnover criterion (e.g., turnover behavior) is stronger in countries scoring higher on femininity.*

H3b: *The negative relationship between job attitudes that relate to instrumental attachment to the organization (e.g., continuance commitment) is stronger in countries scoring higher on masculinity.*

Alternatives. *Uncertainty avoidance.* I expect that the negative relationship between job alternatives (e.g., perceived alternatives), and turnover criterion (e.g., turnover behavior) to be stronger in uncertainty-avoiding countries than in uncertainty-accepting countries.

Uncertainty avoidance focuses on the extent to which individuals in a country tolerate uncertainty, ambiguity, and the unknown (Hofstede, 1980). Alternatives refer to the labor market information that signals the quantity and quality of job alternatives if the employee quit his or her job (March and Simon, 1958; Griffeth, Steel, Allen and Bryan, 2005). Turnover decisions inherently involve uncertainty-such as for job search (Bretz, Boudreau, & Judge, 1994), the new work environment (Bauer et al., 2007) and advancement opportunities (Allen, Scotter, & Otondo, 2004; Allen, Weeks, & Moffitt, 2005). Having plenty of desirable alternatives help reduce such uncertainty (Hulin, Roznowski & Hachiya, 1985; March & Simon, 1959; Steel, 2002). Thus, in countries with high uncertainty avoidance, employees who feel threatened by such uncertainty are less likely to quit unless they perceive viable desirable job alternatives.

As well, people with high uncertainty avoidance are more likely to rely on “strict norms, rules and procedures to alleviate the unpredictability of future events” to alleviate such uncertainty (Gerras, Wong, & Allen, 2008, p.8). With a specific alternative offer at hand, turnover decision becomes a standardized procedure where the current job is pitted against the alternative job (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Taking together, employees in risk averse countries are more likely to rely on alternatives when making turnover decisions. Accordingly, I propose the following:

H4: *The negative relationship between job alternatives (e.g., perceived alternatives), and turnover criterion (e.g., turnover behavior) will be stronger in countries scoring higher on uncertainty avoidance.*

Job Embeddedness. *Individualism-collectivism.* I expect the negative relationship between on- and off-the-job embeddedness and turnover criterion to be stronger in collectivistic countries than in individualistic countries.

Job embeddedness involves a broad collection of psychological, social, and financial forces that keep employees in their current job (Feldman & Ng, 2007; Mitchell et al., 2001; Yao, Lee, Mitchell, Burton, & Sablinski, 2004). These forces are present both on- (e.g., person-organization fit, links to organization, organization-related sacrifice) as well as off- the job (e.g., person-community fit, links to community, community-related sacrifice), which form “a net or a web in which an individual can become stuck”. (Mitchell et al., 2001, p. 1104).

Individualism-collectivism refers to the extent to which people tend to act as individuals than members of groups (Hofstede, 1994). In collectivistic countries, individuals form closer relationships with and are more interdependent with members of social groups; while in individualistic countries, individuals tend to have looser relationships with others and exhibit higher levels of independence (Hofstede, 1980; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Oyserman, Coon, & Kimmelmeier, 2002). Thus, employees in collectivistic countries are more likely to actively form close relationships with the people at work and in the community and become interdependent with each other (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Thus, the established relationship with others in the organization/community (links) are likely to play a more important role in their turnover decisions and they would be more likely to stay in the organization due to perceived high cost with forfeiting these connections (sacrifice). For example, Dette and Dalbert (2005) found that students with a collectivistic attitude were less likely to make a geographic move for a new job than those with an individualistic attitude.

Moreover, individuals in collectivistic countries are more inclined to align their personal goals with group goals (Hofstede, 1980). For example, employees in China (collectivistic country) are found to be more willing to sacrifice their ethical standards for organizational goals compared to employees in Peru (individualistic country) (Robertson, Olson, Gilley, & Bao, 2008). Following this logic, employees in collectivistic countries will be more likely to adjust their personal goals toward organizational/community goals and perceive higher compatibility with the organization/community (fit). Accordingly, I propose the following:

H5: *The negative relationship between a) on-the-job embeddedness and b) off-the-job embeddedness and turnover criterion will be stronger in countries scoring higher on collectivism.*

Power distance. I expect the negative relationship between on-the-job embeddedness and turnover criterion to be stronger in egalitarian countries than in power distant countries. Stated above, power distance refers to the extent to which people in a society accept that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2001).

Employees in power distant countries respect and appreciate status hierarchy and have a higher degree of subordination to the more powerful parties within the organization (Hofstede, 2011). This wide acceptance of hierarchy and relative positions of members in the organization refrain employees from developing strong affective ties to others in the organization (Fisher & Mansell, 2009). According to social exchange theory, human relationships are largely formed by the reciprocal exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, and more or less rewarding or costly, between at least two persons (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). However, such reciprocity norms are not readily applicable to employees with high power distance values due to their sensitivity to hierarchical status and strong deterrence to authorities and the powerful parties in the

organization (e.g., Brockner et al., 2001; Lam et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2000). Instead, these employees tend to spend less effort building connections with people at work and make decisions exempt from social influences (Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997; Pellegrini, & Scandura, 2006). For example, Mulki, Caemmerer and Heggde (2015) found that employees' relationship with supervisors are not associated with their turnover intentions when employees have high power distance values.

Moreover, in power distant countries, employees tend to give less regard to the compatibility between the organizational goals and their goals (person-organization fit). They prefer to work in a centralized environment where they are not informed but are given direct instructions as to what to do (Hofstede, 1980, 1993; Morris & Pavett, 1992). Employees tend to see the identification between organizational goals and personal goals as irrelevant and job as a duty or responsibility. For instance, top Chinese managers rarely disclose organizational goals to subordinates or involve subordinates in strategic decision making while employees are expected to have just enough information to complete assigned tasks (Hui, 1991; Reading & Wong, 1986). Employees from high power distance cultures are more satisfied with jobs high in standardization and low in empowerment (Brockner, et al., 2001; Eylon, & Au, 1999; Robert, et al., 2000).

Therefore, in making turnover decisions, employees with high power distant values will be less likely to attach high importance to the links they have on the job, the fit between organizational and personal goals, and the sacrifice they have to make forfeiting these links and benefits from high person-organizational fit. Accordingly, I propose the following:

H6: *The negative relationship between on-the-job embeddedness and turnover criterion will be stronger in countries scoring lower on power distance.*

Masculinity-femininity. I expect the negative relationship between off-the-job embeddedness and turnover criterion to be stronger in feminine countries and the relationship between on-the-job embeddedness and turnover criterion to be stronger in masculine countries.

As stated, masculine societies give greater weight to assertiveness, ambition, achievement and competition while feminine societies values harmony, quality of life, relationships, and care for others (Hofstede, 1980; 2011). Driven by a striving for achievement, employees in masculine countries are encouraged to devote more time and effort to work and are more likely to respond positively to on-the-job embeddedness cues. Specifically, they are more likely to give priority to work over family and thus have more interactions with people at work than in the community (Yang, Chen, Choi, & Zou, 2000). For example, Yang and colleagues (2000) suggested that Chinese workers are willing to sacrifice family time for work, which is consistent with the mainstream values in the society. In addition, research suggested that the greater fit between individual characteristics and organizational requirements, the more successful they will be (Markman, & Baron, 2003). Thus, the compatibility of personal goals with organizational goals is likely to be more important for employees in masculine countries than feminine countries due to their greater concern for success.

On the contrary, employees in feminine countries are more likely to respond positively to off-the-job embeddedness cues. In particular, they are more likely to prefer a balanced life and building nurturing relationships with people off-the-work. The person-community fit is likely to be more vital to them. Hence, they are more likely to base their decisions to stay or leave an organization on how much sacrifice they need to make leaving the community. For example, Mignonac (2008) found that in France, a feminine country, off-the-job embeddedness and

spouse's unwillingness to move were confirmed as strong deterrents to relocation for new job.

Accordingly, I propose the following:

H7a: *The negative relationship between off-the-job embeddedness and turnover criterion will be stronger in countries scoring higher on femininity.*

H7b: *The negative relationship between on-the-job embeddedness and turnover criterion will be stronger in countries scoring higher on masculinity.*

Long- versus short-term orientation. I expect the negative relationship between both off-the-job embeddedness and on-the job embeddedness and turnover criterion to be stronger in long-term-orientated countries than in short-term-orientated countries.

Long-versus short-term orientation focuses on the extent to which a society values the future more than the past or the present (Hofstede, 1980, 2011). In long-term oriented countries, people are willing to sacrifice present welfare for future paybacks; in short-term oriented countries, people value tradition and focus more on maximizing the present benefits with little to no regards for the future.

Job embeddedness inherently involves concern for the future. Both on- and off-the job embeddedness have three central elements: fit, links, and sacrifice (Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth, 2012). Fit focuses on the compatibility between an employee's career and life goals and plans for the future, and the corporate culture and the surrounding community (Mitchell et al., 2001). Links and sacrifice are concerned with the discernable connections an employee has both within the organization and in the community and what negative impact breaking such connections have on the employee's future (Mitchell et al., 2001).

It has been demonstrated that individuals with a long-term orientation are likely to be more susceptible to future-related concerns and base their decisions on these concerns. For

example, Newman and Nollen (1996) found that management practices that focus on long-term employment and solving problems for the long-term rather than “quick fixes” works better in long-term-oriented countries. Howlett, Kees, and Kemp, (2008) suggested that consumers with a future orientation is more likely to make financial decisions that will be most beneficial in the long run. Yang and colleagues (2000) noted that driven by a long-term orientation, Chinese employees are inclined to make job-related decisions based on how much future gains the decision has for their family.

Following the same reasoning, employees in long-term-oriented countries will be likely to attach more importance to future-related concerns for on- and off-the job fit, links, and sacrifice and make decisions to stay or leave the organization based on such concerns.

Accordingly, I propose the following:

H8: *The negative relationship between both (a) on-the-job embeddedness and (b) off-the job embeddedness and turnover criterion will be stronger in countries scoring higher on long-term orientation.*

Question 2: How do cultural values moderate the effects of cross-level antecedents at the collective level?

Shared Attitudes. *Individualism-collectivism.* I expect the negative relationship between shared attitudes and turnover rates to be stronger in collectivistic countries than in individualistic countries.

Collective-level attitudes refer to the aggregate attitudes or perception of the organization (e.g., unit-level job satisfaction) and have been linked to unit-, group-, or organizational-level turnover rates (e.g., Liu, Mitchell, Lee, Holtom, & Hinkin, 2012; McNulty, Oser, Johnson, Knudsen, & Roman, 2007; Riordan, Vandenberg, & Richardson, 2005; Ryan, Schmit, &

Johnson, 1996). Unlike its individual counterpart, it's regarded as a shared positive or negative view of the organization (Felps et al., 2009; Ryan et al., 1996; Whitman et al., 2010). It's regarded that coworkers' positive or negative affect with the organization get "contagious" within the work group or across the organization and the shared by a group of employees (Felps et al., 2009). Such shared affect signals a collective-level ease of movement and lead to increased or decreased unit-, group-, or organizational-level turnover rates (March & Simon, 1958).

As hypothesized for how individualism-collectivism moderate the relationship between individual job attitudes and turnover criterion (p.15), job attitudes that focus on the group have a stronger effect on turnover criterion in collectivistic countries than in individualistic countries. This is because that employees in collectivistic countries are more likely to internalize and act upon collective values. Following the same reasoning, employees in collectivistic countries will be more likely to internalize the collective-level attitudes and base their turnover decision on such shared attitudes. In other words, collective-level attitudes will be likely to have a stronger effect in collectivistic countries than individualistic countries. Accordingly, I propose the following:

H9: *The negative relationship between shared attitudes and turnover rates will be stronger in countries scoring higher on collectivism.*

Power distance. I expect the negative relationship between shared attitudes and turnover rates to be stronger in egalitarian countries than in power distant countries.

Power distance deals with people's acceptance of power and status hierarchy and unequal distribution of personal rights (Hofstede, 1980, 2001). Employees in power distant countries have a higher respect for hierarchy and authority and are more obedient to authority in organizations; whereas employees in egalitarian countries endorse equal distribution of power

and personal rights. As stated, employees refrain from developing strong emotional ties with each other due to the wide acceptance of hierarchy and relative positions of members in the organization (Fisher & Mansell, 2009). Whereas, employees in egalitarian countries are more likely to develop meaningful relationships with each other (Lam et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2000).

Stated above, attitudes are normally shared through “social contagion” among members in the organization (Felps et al., 2009). An underlying mechanism of the process lies in their need for social comparison (Festinger, 1954; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Since employees in power distant countries take the unequal status of members as given, they are less likely to compare themselves with others (Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997; Fischer & Smith, 2006; Fischer, 2008). While employees in egalitarian countries are more likely to engage in social comparison to increase their in-group status (e.g., Hogg & Terry, 2000; Krackhardt & Porter, 1985). Therefore, members’ attitudes are more readily shared and reinforced in egalitarian countries and are likely to have a stronger effect on turnover rates than in power distant countries.

Accordingly, I propose the following:

H10: *The negative relationship between shared attitudes and turnover rates will be stronger in countries scoring lower on power distance.*

Job Alternative Signals. Uncertainty Avoidance. I expect the negative relationship between alternative signals and turnover rates to be stronger in uncertainty-avoiding countries than in uncertainty-accepting countries.

Uncertainty avoidance is concerned with the society’s level of tolerance for uncertain, ambiguous, or risky situations (Hofstede, 1980). People in high uncertainty-avoiding countries are threatened by unstructured situations and are inclined to reduce risks by following strict rules, norms and procedures; people in uncertainty-accepting countries are comfortable facing

the unknown and are more tolerant of risks (Gerras, Wong, & Allen, 2008). As the counterpart of individual job alternatives, collective-level alternative signals are proposed by Heavey and Hausknecht (2013) and involve both the quality (i.e., average employee education, organizational size, site quality, and establishment age) and quantity (i.e., unemployment rate) of collective-level alternatives. Like individual alternatives, collective-level alternative signals reflect both the quantity and quality of alternatives. It is positively related to unit- or organizational turnover rates due to its ability to reduce risks associated with having no jobs as well as less desirable jobs (Heavey, Holwerda, & Hausknecht, 2013).

As hypothesized for how uncertainty moderate the relationship between individual job alternatives and turnover criterion (p.19), employees in uncertainty-avoiding countries are more likely to rely on alternatives to minimize the risk of leaving the organization than those in uncertainty-accepting countries. Following the same logic, collective-level alternative signals are likely to have a stronger effect on turnover rates in uncertainty-avoiding countries. Accordingly, I propose the following:

H11: *The negative relationship between alternative signals and turnover rates will be stronger in countries scoring higher on uncertainty avoidance.*

Job embeddedness Signals. *Individualism-collectivism.* I expect the negative relationship between job embeddedness signals and turnover rates to be stronger in collectivistic countries than in individualistic countries.

Job embeddedness signals are a collection of proxies that reflect the collective-level job embeddedness of employees in a work unit, group, or organization (Heavey & Hausknecht, 2013). In the most comprehensive summary of such proxies, Heavey and Hausknecht (2013) identified five job embeddedness signals: average employee age, average employee tenure,

experience concentration, unionization, and proportion of female. They noted that high average employee age and tenure, experience concentration, unionization, and proportion of female in the organization reflects a high degree of collective-level embeddedness, which has been found to be negatively related to turnover rates.

As stated, individualism-collectivism deals with the extent to which people tend to think act as individuals than members of groups (Hofstede, 1994). Employees in collectivistic countries are more likely to develop strong relationship ties with each other and become interdependent within the organization (Hofstede, 1980; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Oyserman, Coon, & Kimmelmeier, 2002). As hypothesized for how individualism-collectivism moderates the relationship between individual-level job embeddedness and turnover criterion (p.21), individual-level job embeddedness has a stronger effect on turnover criterion in collectivistic countries than in individualistic countries because employees in collectivistic countries are more likely to experience high compatibility with the organization/community, have more ties in the organization/community, and thus perceive high sacrifice leaving the organization/community. Following this reasoning, job embeddedness signals are likely to have a stronger effect in collectivistic countries than individualistic countries. Accordingly, I propose the following:

H12: *The negative relationship between job embeddedness signals and turnover rates will be stronger in countries scoring higher on collectivism.*

Question 3: Do (shared) job attitudes, embeddedness signals, alternative signals have a stronger effect on individual turnover than on collective turnover?

I expect the negative relationships between job attitudes, job embeddedness signals, and alternative signals and turnover criterion to be stronger at the collective level than at the individual level. According to social contagion theory (Christakis & Fowler, 2013), affect,

attitudes, beliefs and behavior can spread through populations as if they were somehow infectious. The explaining mechanisms include social learning under uncertainty (Bandura, 1977; DeGoeij, 2000), social-normative pressures (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004), and social comparison (Festinger 1954; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). In the turnover context, Felps and colleagues (2009) have used this theory to explain the effect of coworkers' job embeddedness and job search behavior on voluntary turnover.

Shared attitudes, alternative signals, and embeddedness signals influence collective-level turnover rates because they reflect an aggregated-level desirability of movement, ease of movement, and embeddedness (Heavey, Holwerda, & Hausknecht, 2013). I argue that the effects will get intensified at the collective level by social contagion processes. Take shared attitudes as an example. When the average attitudes about the organization are positive and high, it's possible that an employee with neutral or negative attitudes be surrounded by more people with positive job attitudes. The employee will feel higher normative pressures and change his or her attitudes to conform to the collective attitudes, which gets spread out across the social group (social contagion) (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). Hence, shared attitudes get intensified by the social contagion process and the effect of the shared attitudes on collective-level turnover rates become higher than that of individual-level attitudes on individual-level turnover criterion.

Liu and colleagues (2012)'s recent findings supported this convention: when an employee's being out of step with prevailing unit-level attitudes, the relationship between his or her job satisfaction trajectory and turnover propensity become insignificant and the unit-level attitudes determines his or her turnover propensity. The same logic applies to collective-level alternatives and embeddedness. Collective-level ease of movement and sense of embeddedness get spread throughout the work unit, group, and organization due to social comparison, social

learning, or normative pressures. Employees scoring below the average on alternatives and embeddedness tend to adjust their perceptions toward the average and the effect of collective-level alternatives and embeddedness on average turnover rates will get intensified. However, the effect of individual-level attitudes, alternatives, and embeddedness remain unaffected.

Accordingly, I propose the following:

H13: *The negative relationships between (shared) job attitudes, alternative (signals), and job embeddedness (signals) and turnover criterion will be stronger at the collective level than at the individual level.*

Question 4: Do cultural values have a stronger effect at the collective level than at the individual level?

I expect the cultural values to have a stronger effect at the collective level than at the individual level. Hofstede's (1980) cultural values dimensions have been empirically linked to both individual level and collective level phenomena. Although Hofstede (2001) stated that his conceptualization and operationalization of cultural values was intended only for the country level of analysis, individual-level studies that use national cultural values are in abundance (e.g., Kirkman, & Shapiro, 2001; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). However, there's no empirical evidence of whether the moderating effects of national cultural values have a stronger effect on individual- or collective-level processes.

Taras, Kirkman, and Steel (2010) made an initial effort to examine the differences in the predictive power of the cultural value dimensions across the different levels of analysis and found that the effect sizes increased as the level of analysis increased. In other words, cultural values have stronger main effects on collective-level variables than on individual-level variables. Tara and colleagues (2010) attributed such findings to the "ecological inference" (i.e.,

relationships among aggregate data tend to be higher than corresponding relationships among individual data elements; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). By the same token, I believe that the moderating effects of cultural values on collective-level antecedent-turnover relationships will be stronger than on individual-level relationships due to possible ecological inference errors.

However, I believe that, theoretically, the moderating effects of cultural values will be stronger at the collective level than at the individual level. Put differently, cultural values have a stronger moderating effect on collective-level antecedent-turnover criterion links assuming that cultural values generalize to the individual level. As stated above, shared attitudes or ideas spread through unit, department, or organizations through normative pressures, social learning, or social comparison (social contagion). By the same token, at the collective level, shared national values get contagious because of the high normative pressure to conform to these values (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). Thus, employees that have different values than the average will be more likely to adjust their values toward the average. Consequently, the moderating effects of cultural values get intensified and will be stronger at the collective level than individual level due to the social contagion process. Accordingly, I propose the following:

H14: *The cultural values will have a stronger moderating effect at the collective level than at the individual level.*

Chapter 4: Methods

Literature Search

I conducted a full, extensive literature search to identify both published and unpublished studies that examined the correlates and consequences of employee turnover in non-U.S. contexts. First, I identified articles through multiple electronic databases and methods, including electronic searches of all major international databases, such as PsycINFO, Web of Science, Business Source Complete, ProQuest Dissertation and Theses, Google Scholar with the search terms of “turnover,” “retention,” or “quits,” along with “international,” “expatriate,” “repatriate,” and “cross-cultural” as keywords and search for them in abstracts. Second, I supplemented the electronic search with a manual search of reference lists of key meta-analyses (e.g. Griffeth et al., 2000; Rubenstein, et al., 2017) and major books on employee turnover (e.g, Hom & Griffeth, 1995). Third, using the cited by function of Web of Science and Google Scholar databases, I identified publications citing articles used for coding and include those containing relevant data. Fourth, I sent out requests for more studies through mailing list servers of the Human Resources, Organizational Behavior, and International Business Divisions of the Academy of Management. Finally, scholars who were authors or coauthors of more than three articles in the database were contacted with a request for more published and unpublished studies. This search has yielded a relatively comprehensive pool of studies on employee turnover using non-U.S. samples.

As the majority of research on employee turnover has been conducted using U.S. samples, inclusion of all U.S.-based studies along with studies using non-U.S. samples can create uneven distribution of U.S. and non-U.S. studies and thus skew the results (Fischer & Mansell, 2009). Therefore, as recommended by Fischer & Mansell (2009), I randomly selected 100 studies from the Heavey and Hausknecht (2013) and Rubenstein et al. (2017) meta-analyses. For

each meta-analysis, I obtained the alphabetical list of studies included, assigned a consecutive number, from 1 to N, to each of the study, and selected 50 studies based on a list of 50 randomly generated numbers. I then added any additional study that compared U.S. samples with Non-U.S. samples.

For inclusion in the analysis, each study has to meet the following criteria. First, a study has to be an empirical investigation of cross-level antecedents (job attitudes, job alternatives, and job embeddedness) and turnover criterion (turnover behavior and turnover rates). Second, a study had to report at least one correlation coefficient between cross-level antecedents and turnover criterion. Third, a study had to report sample size for calculation of the sample size-weighted effect size. Finally, when the same sample was used in two or more articles, the one that provided greater information was included.

Coding Procedures

The coding process involved two phases. First, after developing coding instructions, a second coder and I independently coded a random selection of 15 articles to assess the level of agreement regarding sample sizes, effect sizes, reliabilities, and characteristics of samples. After both coders checked for coder drift and resolved disagreements, I completed the coding for the remaining articles and discussed any ambiguities with the second coder to achieve consensus.

Studies have been classified as individual and collective level depending on the level of the data in their corresponding datasets. For example, studies that examined individual turnover behavior and its antecedents were classified as individual-level studies. Two studies reported both individual and collective data and thus were used for both individual- and collective-level coding. At the individual level, job satisfaction was coded as individuals' overall satisfaction with their jobs, work, and organizations. The commitment variable was coded as affective

commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Studies that didn't separately commitment measure into affective, continuance, and normative commitment were excluded. Job alternatives include employees' perceived job alternatives and measures of the unemployment levels. Job embeddedness was coded as on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness using the scale developed by Mitchell and Lee (Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). Studies that didn't separate job embeddedness measure into on- and off-the job embeddedness were excluded. The turnover criterion variable was coded as the actual turnover behavior (a dichotomous variable reported in the study).

At the collective level, coded variables included shared attitudes (aggregated level job satisfaction or commitment), job alternative signals, job embeddedness signals, and turnover rates (unit- or organizational-level). Based on Heavey and Hausknecht (2013)'s framework, I initially coded job alternative signals as alternative availability (e.g., Ployhart, Weekley, & Ramsey, 2009), unemployment rate, average employee education, establishment age (the length of existence of the physical property in which the organization or unit operates), size (indicator reflecting how large or small a given organization or unit is, such as firm size), and site quality (the relative consumer desirability of a given establishment with regard to service quality and location, such as star rating). However, analysis results showed that the average weighted corrected correlation between size and turnover rates was not significant. Therefore, size was excluded from the final job alternative signals data. Job embeddedness signals included average employee age, average employee tenure, experience concentration (the extent to which tenured hires comprise a work unit, such as newcomer concentration), percentage of females, and percentage unionized, and union presence (dichotomous variable indicating whether a union is

present). Correlations with retention rates have been inversed to make them consistent with turnover rates.

The country in which the study was conducted was used for coding of the five cultural dimensions (individualism/collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, power distance, masculinity/femininity, and long-term/short-term orientation). Studies that didn't specify the country in which the study was conducted and that didn't separately report samples from multiple countries were excluded. The cultural mean scores provided by Hofstede (2001) were used. Missing country information were substituted by using the regional scores from the GLOBE study (House et al, 2004). Table 1 lists the cultural scores of the countries in which the studies were conducted. The final sample includes 153 studies conducted in 26 countries. These studies reported relationships from 175 distinct samples with a total sample size of 93113. Across the studies coded, the mean response rate was 57.8% (SD=18.8%), mean employee age was 34.2 (SD=6.8), mean gender ratio was 55.6% female (SD=28.0%), and mean organizational tenure was 5.6 years (SD=3.6).

Table 1. Cultural Scores for Each Dimension per Country

Country	Individualism	Power Distance	Uncertainty Avoidance	Long-term Orientation	Masculinity
Australia	90	36	51	21	61
Belgium	75	65	94	82	54
Canada	80	39	48	36	52
China	20	80	30	87	66
Denmark	74	18	23	35	16
Eritrea	20	70	55	N/A	65
Finland	63	33	59	38	26
France	71	68	86	63	43
Germany	67	35	65	83	66
Hong Kong	25	68	29	61	57
India	48	77	40	51	56
Indonesia	14	78	48	62	46
Ireland	70	28	35	24	68
Israel	54	13	81	38	47
Japan	46	54	92	88	95
Netherlands	80	38	53	67	14
New Zealand	79	22	49	33	58
Pakistan	14	55	70	50	50
Philippines	32	94	44	27	64
South Africa	65	49	49	34	63
South Korea	18	60	85	100	39
Sweden	71	31	29	53	5
Taiwan	17	58	69	93	45
Turkey	37	66	85	46	45
UK	89	35	35	51	66
US	91	40	46	26	61

Meta-analytic Calculations

Random effects meta-analyses were conducted according to the procedure outlined by Hunter and Schmidt (2004). Cronbach's alpha coefficients were used to correct job satisfaction, affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment, and job alternatives for unreliability. For studies that failed to report reliabilities, I used the average weighted value from other identified studies (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). I then corrected for sampling error to calculate average weighted correlations and average weighted corrected correlations among variables. For individual-level studies, the point-biserial correlations between antecedents and turnover behavior were corrected to reflect a standard 50-50 split in the distribution of actual turnover (Kemery, Dunlap, & Griffeth, 1998). The Q homogeneity statistic at both the individual level ($Q=1673.06$, $df=135$, $p<0.01$) and the collective level ($Q=3080.18$, $df=198$, $p<0.01$) indicated potential moderating effects (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). Table 2 summarizes the average weighted correlations, standard deviation, 95% confidence interval and other descriptive characteristics for each country.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Sample Size Weighted Means per Country

Correlation with Turnover (TO) Criterion	Job Satisfaction (JS)			Affective Commitment (AC)			Normative Commitment (NC)			Continuance Commitment (CC)						
	k	N	r	r _e	k	N	r	r _e	k	N	r	r _e				
Australia	1	415	-0.03	-0.04	8	3229	-0.06	-0.08	5	2180	-0.11	-0.14	1	330	-0.12	-0.16
Belgium					3	977	-0.24	-0.31	1	488	-0.09	-0.12	7	2606	-0.13	-0.18
Canada	2	1489	-0.25	-0.32	2	1271	-0.13	-0.17					1	488	-0.23	-0.31
China	2	986	-0.05	-0.07	1	5865	-0.13	-0.18								
Denmark																
Eritrea																
Finland																
France					2	375	-0.24	-0.3	1	151	-0.11	-0.15				
Germany																
Hong Kong																
India	1	440	-0.16	-0.22												
Indonesia																
Ireland																
Israel																
Japan																
Netherlands	2	506	-0.19	-0.25												
New Zealand																
Pakistan	1	270	-0.11	-0.15	1	270	-0.4	-0.51								
Philippines	2	310	-0.27	-0.35	1	154	-0.14	-0.18								
South Africa	1	98	0.1	0.13												
South Korea					1	234	-0.16	-0.21	1	234	-0.23	-0.3				
Sweden																
Taiwan																
Turkey	1	244	-0.06	-0.08												
UK	1	357	-0.04	-0.05	1	149	-0.09	0.12					1	150	-0.27	-0.36
US	30	32706	-0.15	-0.19	6	2031	-0.15	-0.2					1	306	-0.07	-0.09

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Sample Size Weighted Means per Country (Continued)

Correlation with TO Criterion	Alternatives			On-the-job Embeddedness			Off-the-job Embeddedness			Shared Attitudes			
	k	N	r	r	Fe	r	Fe	r	Fe	k	N	r	Fe
Australia	2	830	0.05										
Belgium	2	1176	0.01										
Canada	1	654	0.1										
China	1	205	0.03										
Denmark													
Eritrea													
Finland													
France	1	151	0.22										
Germany													
Hong Kong				4	792	-0.1	-0.13						
India	1	440	0.24	1	440	-0.14	-0.18	1	440	0	0		
Indonesia				1	471	-0.11	-0.15	1	471	-0.03	-0.04		
Ireland													
Israel	4	1908	0.01										
Japan	1	643	0.11	1	643	-0.27	-0.36						
Netherlands	1	210	0.21	6	960	-0.08	-0.11						
New Zealand													
Pakistan													
Philippines													
South Africa													
South Korea													
Sweden													
Taiwan													
Turkey	1	244	0.09										
UK													
US	8	25597	0.1	7	1577	-0.06	-0.08	2	565	-0.04	-0.06	13	3488

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Sample Size Weighted Means per Country (Continued)

	Alternative Signals				Embeddedness Signals			
	k	N	r	r _c	k	N	r	r _c
Australia								
Belgium	1	416	0.17	0.17				
Canada	3	4590	0.05	0.05	8	5637	-0.12	-0.12
China	5	990	0.01	0.01	1	296	-0.16	-0.16
Denmark								
Eritrea	1	82	0.15	0.15				
Finland								
France								
Germany					3	133	-0.17	-0.17
Hong Kong								
India								
Indonesia								
Ireland	1	132	0.24	0.24	1	132	-0.37	-0.37
Israel								
Japan					10	2949	-0.23	-0.23
Netherlands	2	220	0.2	0.2	2	264	-0.18	-0.18
New Zealand	2	317	0.01	0.01	2	317	-0.23	-0.23
Pakistan								
Philippines								
South Africa								
South Korea	2	310	0.11	0.11	5	1398	-0.32	-0.32
Sweden					1	47	0.28	-0.28
Taiwan	1	5169	0.1	0.1	2	10338	-0.3	-0.3
Turkey								
UK	11	4568	0.1	0.1	11	9630	-0.06	-0.06
US	52	12601	0.11	0.11	56	15819	-0.19	-0.19

To test the moderating effects of culture, I classified studies into “high” and “low” on individualism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, long-term orientation, and masculinity by comparing the mean score of the country in which the data were collected with the median of Hofstede’s (2001) country-level scores. I then conducted separate meta-analyses for each cultural category. I computed the average weighted corrected correlations, the standard deviation and 95% confidence interval for the corrected correlations for each subgroup. Q_b statistic was calculated to examine whether the between subgroup differences were significant (Hedges & Olkin, 1985). Moreover, I conducted meta-analytic regressions to further examine the moderating effects of different cultural dimensions on the weighted corrected correlations between cross-level antecedents and turnover criterion.

For cross-level comparison of main effects of antecedents on turnover criteria, the average corrected correlation between cross-level antecedents-individual/shared job attitudes, job alternative (signals), and job embeddedness (signals)-and turnover criterion-turnover behavior and turnover rates-were calculated. I examined whether the difference between the correlations of the two subsets of each moderator was significant with the Z statistic (Quinones, Ford, & Teachout, 1995). Similarly, the relative strength of the moderating effects of cultural values were tested by comparing the weighted average product-moment correlations between the cultural value variable and the absolute weighted correlation between turnover antecedents and turnover criterion. In other words, the dependent variable in the moderator analysis is the degree of correlation between cross-level antecedents and turnover criterion. Z statistic was used to test the significance of the difference between correlations.

Chapter 5: Analyses and Results

Testing the Moderating Effects of Cultural Values

Table 3 summarizes hypotheses testing results. Table 4 and Table 5 presents the results of moderator analysis of cultural dimensions on antecedents-turnover relationships. In H1-H8, I hypothesized that the relationships between individual-level job attitudes, job alternatives, and job embeddedness, and actual turnover are moderated by individualism, power distance, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation. In terms of H1a, the relationships between actual turnover and job satisfaction ($Q_b=4.99$, $p<0.05$, $r_c^{low}=-.14$, $r_c^{high}=-.2$) and continuance commitment ($Q_b=2.93$, $p<0.1$, $r_c^{low}=-.18$, $r_c^{high}=-.27$) are stronger in high-individualism subgroup than in low-individualism subgroup. Similarly, the meta-analytic regression results showed that individualism has a significant positive effect on the relationship between job satisfaction ($\beta=.004$, $p<0.05$), affective commitment ($\beta=.003$, $p<0.1$), and continuance commitment ($\beta=.03$, $p<0.1$), and actual turnover. However, the relationship between affective commitment is stronger in low-individualism subgroup than in high-individualism subgroup ($Q_b=3.68$, $p<.1$, $r_c^{low}=-.23$, $r_c^{high}=-.17$). Hence, H1a is partially supported. As hypothesized by H1b, the relationship between normative commitment and actual turnover is stronger in low-individualism subgroup ($Q_b=3.24$, $p<0.1$, $r_c^{low}=-.3$, $r_c^{high}=-.14$). Likewise, individualism has a significant positive effect on the relationship between normative commitment ($\beta=.002$, $p<0.1$) and actual turnover, supporting H1b.

Table 3. Hypotheses Testing Results

Statistics			Moderators /Subgroups	Hypotheses	Results
Subgroup Meta-analyses	Meta-regressions	Cross-level Comparisons			
<p>JS-TO ($Q_b=4.99$, $p<0.05$, $r_c^{low}=-0.14$, $r_c^{high}=0.2$) AC-TO ($Q_b=3.68$, $p<0.1$, $r_c^{low}=-0.23$, $r_c^{high}=0.17$) CC-TO ($Q_b=2.93$, $p<0.1$, $r_c^{low}=-0.18$, $r_c^{high}=0.27$)</p>	<p>JS-TO ($\beta=.004$, $p<0.05$) AC-TO ($\beta=.003$, $p<0.1$) CC-TO ($\beta=0.03$, $p<0.1$)</p>		Individualism	H1a	Partially Supported
<p>NC-TO ($Q_b=3.24$, $p<0.1$, $r_c^{low}=-0.3$, $r_c^{high}=0.14$)</p>	<p>NC-TO ($\beta=.002$, $p<0.1$)</p>		Individualism	H1b	Supported
<p>JS-TO ($Q_b=4.99$, $p<0.05$, $r_c^{low}=-0.2$, $r_c^{high}=0.14$) AC-TO ($Q_b=10.97$, $p<0.05$, $r_c^{low}=-0.21$, $r_c^{high}=0.13$) CC-TO ($Q_b=2.93$, $p<0.1$, $r_c^{low}=-0.27$, $r_c^{high}=0.18$)</p>	<p>JS-TO ($\beta=-.005$, $p<0.1$) AC-TO (Non-significant) CC-TO ($\beta=0.01$, $p<0.1$)</p>		Power Distance	H2a	Partially Supported
<p>NC-TO ($Q_b=0.32$, $p<0.1$, $r_c^{low}=-0.18$, $r_c^{high}=0.14$)</p>	<p>NC-TO (Non-significant)</p>		Power Distance	H2b	Not Supported
<p>JS-TO ($Q_b=7.71$, $p<0.05$, $r_c^{low}=-0.26$, $r_c^{high}=0.19$) AC-TO ($Q_b=12.80$, $p<0.05$, $r_c^{low}=-0.22$, $r_c^{high}=0.14$)</p>	<p>JS-TO (Non-significant) AC-TO (Non-significant)</p>		Masculinity	H3a	Partially Supported

Table 3. Hypotheses Testing Results (Continued)

Statistics			Cross-level Comparisons	Moderators /Subgroups	Hypotheses	Results
Subgroup Meta-analyses	Meta-regressions	CC-TO (Non-significant)				
CC-TO (Non-significant)	CC-TO (Non-significant)			Masculinity	H3b	Not Supported
AI-TO ($Q_b=7.92$, $p<0.05$, $r_c^{low}=-0.13$, $r_c^{high}=0.07$)	AI-TO (Non-significant)			Uncertainty Avoidance	H4	Not Supported
OnEmb-TO ($Q_b=8.86$, $p<0.05$, $r_c^{low}=-0.21$, $r_c^{high}=-0.09$)	OnEmb-TO (Non-significant)			Individualism	H5	Partially Supported
OffEmb-TO (Non-significant)	OffEmb-TO (Non-significant)					
OnEmb-TO ($Q_b=8.86$, $p<0.05$, $r_c^{low}=-0.09$, $r_c^{high}=-0.21$)	OnEmb-TO (Non-significant)			Power Distance	H6	Not Supported
OnEmb-TO (Non-significant)	OnEmb-TO (Non-significant)			Masculinity	H7	Not Supported
OffEmb-TO (Non-significant)	OffEmb-TO (Non-significant)					
OnEmb-TO ($Q_b=3.43$, $p<0.1$, $r_c^{low}=-0.1$, $r_c^{high}=-0.18$)	OnEmb-TO ($\beta=-0.004$, $p<0.1$)			Long-term Orientation	H8	Partially Supported
OffEmb-TO (Non-significant)	OffEmb-TO (Non-significant)					
SharedAttitude-TR ($Q_b=2.5$, $p<0.1$, $r_c^{low}=-0.09$, $r_c^{high}=-0.15$)	SharedAttitude-TR (Non-significant)			Individualism	H9	Not Supported

Table 4. Meta-analytic Estimates for Cultural Moderator Subgroups

Correlation with TO Criterion	k	N	r	r _e	SD _c	95% CI	Q _b ^b
JC							
Individualism-L	8	2348	-0.1	-0.14	0.14	[-.19, .02]	
Individualism-H	36	35464	-0.15	-0.2	0.08	[-.17, -.13]	4.99**
Power Distance-L	36	35464	-0.15	-0.2	0.08	[-.17, -.13]	
Power Distance-H	8	2348	-0.1	-0.14	0.14	[-.19, -.02]	4.99**
Masculinity-L	7	2940	-0.19	-0.26	0.05	[-.24, -.15]	
Masculinity-H	37	34872	-0.14	-0.19	0.09	[-.17, -.12]	7.71**
AC							
Individualism-L	5	1929	-0.17	-0.23	0.1	[-.26, -.09]	
Individualism-H	21	12624	-0.13	-0.17	0.11	[-.16, -.09]	3.68*
Power Distance-L	12	9291	-0.15	-0.21	0.1	[-.20, -.11]	
Power Distance-H	14	5263	-0.1	-0.13	0.11	[-.15, -.04]	10.97**
Masculinity-L	8	7720	-0.16	-0.22	0.07	[-.20, -.12]	
Masculinity-H	18	6834	-0.1	-0.14	0.13	[-.15, -.05]	12.80**
NC							
Individualism-L	1	234	-0.23	-0.3	N/A	N/A	
Individualism-H	7	2819	-0.11	-0.14	0	[-.14, -.08]	3.24*
Power Distance-L	2	722	-0.14	-0.18	0.05	[-.23, -.04]	
Power Distance-H	6	2331	-0.11	-0.14	0	[-.14, -.08]	0.32*
CC							
Individualism-L	7	2606	-0.13	-0.18	0.08	[-.19, -.08]	
Individualism-H	3	967	-0.2	-0.27	0.03	[-.26, -.13]	2.93*
Power Distance-L	3	967	-0.2	-0.27	0.03	[-.26, -.13]	
Power Distance-H	7	2606	-0.13	-0.18	0.08	[-.19, -.08]	2.93*
Masculinity-L	8	3094	-0.15	-0.2	0.08	[-.20, -.10]	
Masculinity-H	2	480	-0.17	-0.22	0.04	[-.26, -.07]	0.13

a: Q_{indiv}=1673.06, df_{indiv}=135, p_{indiv}<0.01; Q_{coll}=3080.18, df_{coll}=198, p_{coll}<0.01; b: *significant at the 0.1 level; **significant at the 0.5 level

Table 4. Meta-analytic Estimates for Cultural Moderator Subgroups (Continued)

Correlation with TO Criterion	k	N	r	r _e	SD _c	95% CI	Q _b
Job Alternatives							
Uncertainty Avoidance-L	14	27936	0.1	0.13	0.04	[.08, .12]	7.92**
Uncertainty Avoidance-H	9	4122	0.05	0.07	0.04	[.02, .09]	
On-Embeddedness							
Individualism-L	7	2346	-0.16	-0.21	0.08	[-.22, -.1]	8.86**
Individualism-H	13	2537	-0.07	-0.09	0.13	[-.14, -.01]	
Power Distance-L	13	2537	-0.07	-0.09	0.13	[-.14, -.01]	8.86**
Power Distance-H	7	2346	-0.16	-0.21	0.08	[-.22, -.1]	
Masculinity-L	7	1431	-0.09	-0.12	0	[-.12, -.06]	0.85
Masculinity-H	13	3452	-0.12	-0.16	0.15	[-.19, -.05]	
Long Term-L	8	2017	-0.08	-0.1	0.16	[-.18, -.02]	3.43*
Long Term-H	12	2866	-0.13	-0.18	0.08	[-.18, -.09]	
Off-Embeddedness							
Individualism-L	2	911	-0.02	-0.01	0	[-.04, -.01]	0.30
Individualism-H	2	565	-0.04	-0.06	0	[-.05, -.04]	
Masculinity-L	2	911	-0.05	-0.01	0	[-.04, -.01]	0.30
Masculinity-H	2	565	-0.04	-0.06	0	[-.05, -.04]	
Long Term-L	2	565	-0.05	-0.06	0	[-.05, -.04]	0.30
Long Term-H	2	911	-0.05	-0.01	0	[-.04, -.01]	

a: $Q_{\text{indV}}=1673.06$, $df_{\text{indV}}=135$, $p_{\text{indV}}<0.01$; $Q_{\text{coll}}=3080.18$, $df_{\text{coll}}=198$, $p_{\text{coll}}<0.01$; b: *significant at the 0.1 level; **significant at the 0.5 level

Table 4. Meta-analytic Estimates for Cultural Moderator Subgroups (Continued)

Correlation with TO Criterion	k	N	r	r _c	SD _c	95% CI	Q _b
Shared Attitudes							
Individualism-L	3	993	-0.08	-0.09	0.03	[-.15, -.01]	2.5*
Individualism-H	14	3605	-0.14	-0.15	0.14	[-.22, -.06]	
Power Distance-L	15	3657	-0.14	-0.15	0.14	[-.22, -.07]	3.77*
Power Distance-H	2	941	-0.07	-0.08	0	[-.12, -.02]	
Alternative Signals							
Uncertainty Avoidance-L	17	5690	0.08	0.08	0.05	[.04, .12]	0.09
Uncertainty Avoidance-H	64	3705	0.1	0.1	0.1	[.06, .13]	
Embeddedness Signals							
Individualism-L	23	15293	-0.3	-0.3	0.08	[-.31, -.25]	222.91**
Individualism-H	79	31667	-0.14	-0.14	0.17	[-.17, -.11]	

a: Q_{indiv}=1673.06, df_{indiv}=135, p_{indiv}<0.01; Q_{coll}=3080.18, df_{coll}=198, p_{coll}<0.01; b: *significant at the 0.1 level; **significant at the 0.5 level

Table 5. Meta-Analytic Regression Results^a

Predictors	Correlations with TO Criterion									
	JC	AC	NC	CC	Job Alt	On-Emb	Off-Emb	Shared Att	Alt Signals	Emb Signals
Intercept	0.2270	0.4775**	-0.2773	2.3978*	.1542**	0.5013	-0.5986	-0.41251	0.0671	-.3088**
Individualism	0.0039**	0.0025*	.0024*	0.0345*		-0.0023	0.0027	-0.0005		0.0013
Power Distance	-0.0053*	0.0025	-0.0003	0.0125*		-0.0031		0.0056		
Uncertainty Avoidance					-0.001				0.0012	
Long-term Orientation						-.0038*	N/A	N/A		
Masculinity	0.0026	0.0004		-0.0214		-0.0020	0.013			
% of Explained Variance	6.47%	22.32%	99.99%	53.64%	13.29%	50.41%	N/A	4.42%	0.35%	8.44%
k	44	26	8	11	23	20	4	17	81	102

a: *significant at the 0.1 level; **significant at the 0.5 level

The relationships between actual turnover and job satisfaction ($Q_b=4.99$, $p<0.05$, $r_c^{low}=-.2$, $r_c^{high}=-.14$), affective commitment ($Q_b=10.97$, $p<.05$, $r_c^{low}=-.21$, $r_c^{high}=-.13$), and continuance commitment ($Q_b=2.93$, $p<.1$, $r_c^{low}=-.27$, $r_c^{high}=-.18$) are stronger in low-power-distance subgroup than in high-power-distance group. Power distance has a significant negative effect on the relationship between job satisfaction ($\beta=-.005$, $p<0.1$) and actual turnover. Nevertheless, according to the meta-analytic regression results, the effect of power distance on affective commitment-turnover relationship is not significant and that on continuance commitment-turnover relationship is positive ($\beta=.01$, $p<0.1$). Therefore, H2a is partially supported. In addition, the relationship between normative commitment and actual turnover is stronger in low-power-distance subgroup than in high-power-distance group ($Q_b=0.32$, $p<.1$, $r_c^{low}=-.18$, $r_c^{high}=-.14$). The effect of power distance on normative commitment-turnover relationship is not significant. Thus, H2b is rejected.

In terms of masculinity, the relationships between actual turnover and job satisfaction ($Q_b=7.71$, $p<0.05$, $r_c^{low}=-.26$, $r_c^{high}=-.19$) and affective commitment ($Q_b=12.80$, $p<.05$, $r_c^{low}=-.22$, $r_c^{high}=-.14$) are stronger in low-power-distance subgroup than in low-masculinity subgroup than in high-masculinity subgroup. But the effects of masculinity on job satisfaction-turnover and affective commitment-turnover relationship are not significant based on the meta-analytic regression results. Hence, H3a is partially supported. Moreover, both subgroup meta-analyses and meta-analytic regression results showed that masculinity has no significant effect on the relationship between continuance commitment and actual turnover, rejecting H3b.

Regarding job alternatives, the relationship between job alternatives and actual turnover is stronger in low-uncertainty-avoidance subgroup than in high-uncertainty-avoidance subgroup

($Q_b=7.92$, $p<.05$, $r_c^{low}=.13$, $r_c^{high}=.07$). The effect of uncertainty avoidance on alternative-turnover relationship is not significant. Therefore, H4 is not supported.

For job embeddedness, the relationship between on-the-job embeddedness and actual turnover is stronger in low-individualism subgroup than in high-individualism subgroup ($Q_b=8.86$, $p<.05$, $r_c^{low}=-.21$, $r_c^{high}=-.09$). The relationship between off-the-job embeddedness and actual turnover is not significantly different between the two subgroups. Similarly, the meta-analytic regression results showed that the effects of individualism on the relationship between on-and off-the-job embeddedness and actual turnover are not significant. Hence, H5 is partially supported. However, the relationship between on-the-job embeddedness and actual turnover is stronger in high-power-distance subgroup than in low-power-distance subgroup ($Q_b=8.86$, $p<.05$, $r_c^{low}=-.09$, $r_c^{high}=-.21$). According to the meta-analytic regression results, power distance has no significant effect on on-the-job embeddedness-turnover relationship. Thus, H6 is not supported.

The relationship between on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness is not significantly different between high- and low-masculinity subgroups, rejecting H7. The relationship between on-the-job embeddedness and actual turnover is stronger in high-long-term subgroup than in low-long-term subgroup ($Q_b=3.43$, $p<.1$, $r_c^{low}=-.1$, $r_c^{high}=-.18$). Long-term orientation has a significant negative effect on the relationship between on-the-job embeddedness ($\beta=-.004$, $p<0.1$) and actual turnover. But long-term orientation has no significant effect on the relationship between off-the-job embeddedness and actual turnover. Therefore, H8 is partially supported.

I hypothesized in H9-H12 that the relationships between shared job attitudes, job alternative signals, and job embeddedness signals and turnover rates are moderated by individualism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance. In terms of shared attitude, its

relationship with turnover rates is stronger in high-individualism subgroup than in low-individualism subgroup ($Q_b=2.5$, $p<.1$, $r_c^{low}=-.09$, $r_c^{high}=-.15$) and stronger in low-power-distance subgroup ($Q_b=3.77$, $p<.1$, $r_c^{low}=-.15$, $r_c^{high}=-.08$). The meta-analytic regression results showed no significant effect of individualism and power distance on the shared attitudes-turnover relationship. Hence, H9 is rejected and H10 is partially supported.

Regarding job alternative signals, its relationship with turnover rates is not significantly different between high- and low-uncertainty-avoidance subgroups, rejecting H11. For job embeddedness signals, its relationship with turnover rates is stronger in low-individualism subgroup than in high-individualism subgroup ($Q_b=222.91$, $p<.05$, $r_c^{low}=-.3$, $r_c^{high}=-.14$). However, the meta-analytic regression results indicated that individualism has no significant effect on the relationship between job embeddedness signals and turnover rates. Therefore, H12 is partially supported.

Comparing the Main Effects of Turnover Antecedents Across Levels

I hypothesized in H13 that the relationship between (shared) job attitudes, alternative (signals), and job embeddedness (signals) and turnover criterion is stronger at the collective level than at the individual level. Table 6 summarizes the average corrected correlations between (shared) job attitudes, job alternative (signals), and job embeddedness (signals) and turnover behavior/rates, the standard deviations, and 95% confidence intervals at the individual and collective levels. As shown, the relationship between job embeddedness (signals) and turnover criterion is stronger ($p_z<.01$) at the collective level than at the individual level ($r_c^{indv}=-.12$, $r_c^{coll}=-.18$). Whereas, the relationships between (shared) job attitudes ($r_c^{indv}=-.19$, $r_c^{coll}=-.14$) and job alternative (signals) ($r_c^{indv}=.12$, $r_c^{coll}=.1$) and turnover criterion are stronger ($p_z<.01$) at the individual level than at the collective level. Therefore, hypothesis 13 is partially supported.

Table 6. Meta-Analytic Estimates for Antecedents-Turnover Criteria Relationships

Correlation with TO Criterion	k	N	r	r _e	SD _e	95% CI
Job Attitudes						
Individual Level	115	73851	-0.14	-0.19	0.09	[-.15, .13]
Collective Level	17	4598	-0.13	-0.14	0.13	[-.19, -.07]
Alternatives						
Individual Level	23	32058	0.09	0.12	0.05	[.07, .12]
Collective Level	81	29395	0.1	0.1	0.1	[.07, .12]
Embeddedness						
Individual Level	24	6359	-0.09	-0.12	0.12	[-.13, -.05]
Collective Level	102	46960	-0.18	-0.18	0.16	[-.21, -.16]

Comparing the Moderating Effects of Cultural Values Across Levels

I hypothesized in H14 that the moderating effects of cultural values are stronger at the collective level than at the individual level. Table 7 shows the moderator coefficient of cultural values on the weighted corrected correlation between (shared) job attitudes, job alternative (signals), and job embeddedness (signals) and turnover criterion. As displayed, the moderator coefficients of individualism ($r_m^{indiv}=-.23$, $r_m^{coll}=-.56$) and power distance ($r_m^{indiv}=-.01$, $r_m^{coll}=.76$) on the weighted corrected correlation between (shared) job attitudes and turnover criterion are stronger at the collective level than at the individual level. Likewise, the moderator coefficient of uncertainty avoidance on the weighted corrected correlation between job alternative (signals) and turnover criterion is stronger at the collective level than at the individual level ($r_m^{indiv}=-.59$, $r_m^{coll}=.24$). Similarly, the moderator coefficient of individualism on the weighted corrected correlation between job embeddedness (signals) and turnover criterion is stronger at the collective level than at the individual level ($r_m^{indiv}=.36$, $r_m^{coll}=.79$). Hence, hypothesis 14 is supported.

Table 7. Moderator Coefficients of National Culture on Antecedents-Turnover Criteria Relationships

Moderator Coefficient of National Culture	Job Attitudes	Alternatives	Embeddedness
Individualism			
Individual Level	-0.23		0.36
Collective Level	-0.56		0.79
Power Distance			
Individual Level	-0.01		
Collective Level	0.76		
Uncertainty Avoidance			
Individual Level		-0.59	
Collective Level		0.24	

Chapter 6: Discussion

This study examines the moderating effects of cultural values on major antecedent-turnover relationships at both the individual and collective level and compares the relative strength of the antecedent-turnover relationships and the moderating effects of cultural values on such relationships between levels of analysis. By doing so, the paper offers valuable insights and important theoretical and practical implications.

Theoretical Implications

The study contributes to turnover literature by demonstrating that cultural values significantly moderate the established antecedents-turnover criterion relationships. Seven out of 12 hypotheses were at least partially supported. At the individual level, the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover behavior is stronger in individualistic, egalitarian, and feminine countries. As predicted, the correlation between affective commitment and actual turnover is stronger in egalitarian and feminine countries. Continuance commitment is more strongly correlated with turnover behavior in individualistic and egalitarian countries, whereas normative commitment is more strongly associated with turnover behavior in collectivistic countries. The correlation between on-the-job embeddedness and actual turnover is stronger in collectivistic countries with a long-term orientation. At the collective level, the shared attitudes are more strongly correlated with turnover rates in egalitarian countries, and embeddedness signals more strongly correlated with turnover rates in collectivistic countries.

However, some intriguing and counterintuitive findings are bear to mention. First, contrary to what was predicted, the relationship between affective commitment and turnover behavior is stronger in collectivistic countries. According to H1a, affective commitment was hypothesized to have a greater influence on one's turnover decision in individualistic countries

because affective commitment focuses more on the self rather than the collective group, consistent with the concept of individualism. A closer examination of the conceptualization of affective commitment yields a plausible explanation. Unlike job satisfaction and continuance commitment, which emphasize whether a person likes his or her job and whether the personal gains outweighs personal losses when leaving, the components of affective commitment include not only one's emotional attachment to the organization, but also one's identification with the organization and involvement in the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). People with collectivistic values are more likely to get actively involved with building relationships in the organization and are more likely to align their goals with collective goals (Hofstede, 1980; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Oyserman, Coon, & Kimmelmeier, 2002). Thus, they are more likely put a higher value on affective commitment, which emphasizes their involvement and identification with the organization, when deciding to quit.

Second, normative commitment is more strongly related to actual turnover in egalitarian countries than in hierarchical countries, at odds with what was hypothesized in H2b. One explanation can be the low statistical power of the heterogeneity test due to insufficient number of studies. For another explanation, individuals in egalitarian countries are more likely to form meaningful relationships to others in the organization (Fisher & Mansell, 2009). Therefore, they will be more likely to be integrated in collective groups and be more likely to be bound by normative pressures from the groups.

Third, the correlation between job alternatives and turnover behavior is found to be weaker in countries with higher uncertainty avoidance. This finding is counterintuitive because it is easy to assume that people with higher uncertainty avoidance are more likely to rely on job alternative when making turnover decisions. An examination of job alternative data entry shows

that about 90% of the coded studies used perceived availability of job alternatives as the measurement variable. Respondents were asked to make a prediction of the chance of their finding a suitable position in another organization (e.g., Arnold, 1982). The mean uncertainty avoidance in the high-uncertainty-avoidance subgroup is 86.11, which can be considered as very high (Hofstede, 2001). Therefore, it's possible that highly risk-averse individuals find the risk of leaving an organization based on a prediction of their employability high and be less likely to quit even with high perceived availability of job alternatives.

Fourth, on-the-job embeddedness is found to be more strongly associated with turnover behavior in hierarchical countries than in egalitarian countries. A plausible explanation can be the confounding effects of the individualism dimension. It's found that studies included in the high-power-distance subgroup were also in the low-individualism subgroup. Therefore, the stronger correlation between on-the-job embeddedness and turnover behavior may be due to the high collectivism of the countries in which these studies were conducted.

Finally, shared attitudes are more strongly correlated with turnover rates in individualistic countries than in collectivistic countries. A check of the coded variables indicates that the coded variable was mainly aggregated job satisfaction. As shown before, the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover behavior is stronger in individualistic countries. Therefore, this finding may be due to this range restriction of coded variables.

In addition to theorizing and testing the effects of cultural values, this study examines the long-standing concern that whether individual-level turnover theory generalizes to the collective level (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011; Nyberg & Ployhart, 2013) by meta-analytically testing the relative strength of cross-level antecedent-turnover relationships between individual and collective levels of analysis. The analyses have produced mixed results. As hypothesized in H13,

job embeddedness (signals) exert a greater influence on turnover criterion at the collective level. However, (shared) job attitudes and job alternatives (signals) are more strongly correlated with turnover criterion at the individual level than at the collective level. In addition, the cross-level difference of job attitudes-turnover relationship is stronger than that of job alternative-turnover relationship. Such findings supported Nyberg and Ployhart's (2013) assertion that individual turnover theory should not be used to explain collective turnover. In this study, shared job attitudes were coded as aggregated individual-level indicators, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Job alternative signals included both aggregated individual-level indicators, such as perceived availability of alternatives and unemployment rate, and collective-level indicators, such as establishment age, site quality, and mean education. Unlike the first two antecedents, job embeddedness signals included only aggregated-level indicator, such as average tenure, percentage of female, and unionization. The pattern shows that the effects of job attitudes and job alternatives weaken when the aggregated forms of individual-level indicators are used at the collective level. Whereas job embeddedness, including only aggregated-level indicators, is more strongly correlated with turnover rates, as predicted by the social contagion theory (Christakis & Fowler, 2013).

Moreover, the study investigates the relative strength of moderating effects of cultural values between levels of analysis. Consistent with hypothesis 14, the moderating effects of cultural values on the aforementioned antecedent-turnover relationships are stronger at the collective level than at the individual level.

Practical Implications

The findings have valuable implications for organizations competing in the global arena. Keeping the best talent has always been critical for an organization's survival and success

(Allen, Vardaman, & Bryant, 2010). The results of this study underscore the importance for organizations to understand the relative importance of different factors that contributes to employee turnover and/or retention. According to the results, employees with individualistic values are more likely to quit if they are not satisfied with their job and the benefits of leaving outweigh the costs, whereas those with collectivistic values more likely to retain due to normative pressures. People in feminine cultures value their affective attachment to the organization more than contextual factors. Job attitudes are more important to employees in egalitarian countries than in hierarchical countries. Job embeddedness is more effective in keeping people from leaving in collectivistic and long-term orientated cultures.

Therefore, it is important for domestic organizations to adapt employee retention strategies and practices for a multicultural workforce and for multinational corporations to adapt HR strategies for different foreign subsidiaries. In collectivistic countries, managers should put more emphasis on practices that focus on increasing employees' job embeddedness and normative commitment, such as an employee loyalty program. For employees with individualistic and egalitarian values, it's more effective for organizations to closely monitor and control their satisfaction levels.

Limitations and Future Research

One limitation of the study is that a relative small number of non-U.S. studies were available. This compromised the statistical power of the moderator tests of cultural dimensions on some antecedents, such as off-the-job embeddedness. Thus, future research should continue to examine the established antecedent-turnover relationship cross-culturally. Another limitation to the meta-analysis is its inability to separate the effects of the "ecological inference" from that of the social learning process when comparing main effects of cross-level antecedents and

moderating effects of culture between levels (Tara et al., 2010). The aggregated effects of job embeddedness and cultural values at the collective level could be attributed to the “ecological inference”, rather than the social contagion theory. Future research carefully designed to separate the “ecological inference” effects from theorized effects should be conducted to ascertain whether the results are caused by the social learning effects.

Finally, due to limited sample size, I did not examine the joint moderating effects of cultural dimensions and other moderators, such as response rate, organizational tenure, and the industry type. Therefore, I encourage future meta-analyses to examine multiple moderators simultaneously in meta-regression as more studies accumulate over time.

Conclusion

Although the past decade has witnessed a number of breakthroughs in turnover research, questions remained about the generalizability of turnover theory across cultures and across levels of analysis. This study directly addresses these questions. By doing so, the study contributes to turnover literature and offers valuable implications for scholars and practitioners alike. The paper provides the first comprehensive quantitative review of the moderating effects of culture on established antecedent-turnover relationships. Additional research is urged to further examine the effects of national culture on turnover theory and assumptions.

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