

**ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE, ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT,
SELF-EFFICACY AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS AMONG ACADEMIC
STAFF IN SELECTED UNIVERSITIES IN UGANDA**

BY

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RESOURCE MANAGEMENT OPTION)**

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DECLARATION

Declaration by the Candidate

This research thesis is an outcome of my independent inquiry and does not include any content that has been partially or entirely submitted to any university for an academic award. Unless otherwise noted, this thesis is all my creation. Without the author's and/or Moi University's permission, no part of this thesis may be reprinted.

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DEDICATION

This research thesis is dedicated to my beloved children (Ethan Grace Opolot, Eileen Opolot, and Elyon Elisha Opolot), my parents (Mr. Stephen Opolot and Mrs. Hellen and Rose Opolot), and all my family members for the moral and inspirational support they provided me during my studies. At the end of your life, you will never regret not having passed one more test, not having won one more verdict, or not having closed one more deal. You will regret time not spent with a wife, a friend, a child, or a parent.

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ABSTRACT

Turnover intentions remain a serious and persistent issue of discussion in many organisations. Turnover intention is a conscious willingness to leave the organization, which is detrimental to university performance when competent staff leave. Thus, it is becoming increasingly necessary for universities to find strategies to retain their academic staff. Existing studies linking organisational culture and Turnover intentions have produced inconclusive results. Also, few indirect and interaction effects studies have been conducted in this area, particularly in developing countries. This study investigated the interaction effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between organisational culture and Turnover intentions as mediated by organisational commitment. To determine the effect of organisational culture, organisational commitment, and self-efficacy on turnover intentions and organisational culture on organisational commitment. Additionally, organisational commitment mediates between organisational culture and turnover intentions. The interaction effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between: organisational culture and organisational commitment, organisational culture and turnover intentions, and organisational commitment and turnover intentions. Finally, self-efficacy has conditional effects on organisational culture and turnover intentions via organisational commitment. The study was grounded in the theory of planned behaviour, institutional theory, the theory of organisational commitment, and social cognitive theory. The study was informed by a positivist research paradigm, whose main tenets rely on a quantitative research approach. The study adopted an explanatory cross-sectional design. The target population included 4192 academic staff from selected Ugandan universities. A sample of 878 academic staff was obtained using a stratified simple random sampling technique. Primary data was collected using questionnaires. The data was analysed using hierarchical multiple regression and PROCESS macro models. The study revealed that organisational culture ($\beta = -.216, p < .05$), and organisational commitment ($\beta = -.185, p < .05$) significantly predict turnover intentions while self-efficacy ($\beta = -.060, p > .05$) insignificantly predicts turnover intentions. Also, organisational culture ($\beta = .630, p < .05$) significantly affects organisational commitment. Organisational commitment mediated between organisational culture and turnover intentions ($\beta = -.306, CI = -.483, -.131$). Furthermore, self-efficacy moderated between organisational culture and turnover intentions ($\beta = -.3.13, CI = -.6.247, -.020$), and organisational commitment and turnover intentions ($\beta = -.4.35, CI = -.575, -.045$). Lastly, self-efficacy moderated the indirect link between organisational culture and turnover intentions via organisational commitment ($\beta = -2.87, BootSE = .98, CI = -4.76, -.95$). Therefore, the study concludes that the indirect effect of organisational culture on turnover intentions via organisational commitment is influenced by self-efficacy. The study's findings corroborate with planned behaviour theory, institutional theory, organisational commitment theory, and social cognitive theory in predicting academic staff's intentions to quit. Drawing on the findings, policy makers and National Council for Higher Education should strengthen their oversight role under quality assurance unit to ensure universities operate within the required staff establishments. National Planning Authority and Ministry of Labour need to develop a national labour policy to keep track of all HR inventory statistics, including turnover for easy management of HR processes, timely provision of information and decision making. Internally, university managers need to revisit their HR recruitment and on-boarding programmes to enhance staff attraction and retention. Finally, since the study focused on universities, the results may not be generalized to other sectors. Hence, future studies could focus on other sectors. Future researchers may also extend the current study by taking into consideration additional variables (leadership, organisational support) in order to explain the unexplained variance in turnover intentions.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	ii
DEDICATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iv
ABSTRACT.....	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xv
ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS.....	xvi
OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS	xvii
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	8
1.3 Objectives of the Study	10
1.3.1 General objective.....	10
1.3.2 Specific objectives.....	10
1.4 Research Hypotheses	11
1.5 The Significance of the Study.....	12
1.6 Scope of the Study	13
CHAPTER TWO	14
LITERATURE REVIEW	14
2.0 Introduction.....	14
2.1 The Concept of Turnover Intention	14
2.2 The Concept of Organisational Culture	17
2.3 The Concept of Organisational Commitment	21
2.4 The Concept of Self-efficacy	24
2.5 Theoretical Review	27
2.5.1 Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)	27
2.5.2 Institutional Theory	29
2.5.3 The Organisational Commitment Theory	31
2.5.4 Social Cognitive Theory (SCT).....	32
2.6 Empirical Review.....	34

2.6.1 Organizational culture and turnover intention	35
2.6.2 Organisational culture and organisational commitment.....	41
2.6.3 Organisational commitment and turnover intention.....	49
2.6.4 Self-efficacy and turnover intention.....	55
2.6.5 The mediating role of organisational commitment on the relationship between organizational culture and turnover intention	60
2.6.6 Moderating effect of self-efficacy on the link between organisational culture and organisational commitment	63
2.6.7 Moderating effect of Self-efficacy on the link between organisational culture and turnover intentions.....	65
2.6.8 Moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention	68
2.6.9 Moderating effect of self-efficacy on the indirect relationship between organisational culture and turnover intention via organisational commitment	70
2.7 Summary of Gaps in Literature Review	73
2.8 Conceptual Framework.....	76
CHAPTER THREE.....	78
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	78
3.0 Introduction.....	78
3.1 Research Philosophy.....	78
3.2 Research Approach	79
3.3 Research Design.....	80
3.4 Study Setting.....	81
3.5 Target Population.....	81
3.6 Sampling Size and Determination	82
3.7 Sampling Design and Procedure	83
3.8 Unit of Analysis and Unit of Inquiry	84
3.9 Data Collection Method and Instrument.....	84
3.10 Data Collection Procedure	85
3.11 Measurement of Study Variables.....	87
3.11.1 Turnover intentions	87
3.11.2 Organisational culture	87
3.11.3 Organisational commitment	87

3.11.4 Self-efficacy	88
3.11.5 Covariates.....	88
3.12 Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire	89
3.12.1 Validity of the measurement instrument	89
3.12.2 Reliability of the measurement instrument	91
3.12.3 Questionnaire pre-test	92
3.13 Control for Common Methods Bias (CMB)	92
3.14 Data Preparation and Analysis	93
3.14.1 Data preparation	93
3.14.2 Data analysis	94
3.14.2.1 Descriptive analysis	94
3.14.2.2 Inferential analysis.....	95
3.15 Statistical Model	95
3.15.1 Model specification.....	96
3.16 Test for Assumption of Regression.....	100
3.17 Summary of Statistical Tools for Hypotheses Testing	102
3.18 Ethical Considerations	103
3.19 Limitations of the Study.....	105
CHAPTER FOUR.....	107
DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND	
DISCUSSION.....	107
4.0 Introduction.....	107
4.1 Response Rate.....	107
4.2 Data Processing and Screening.....	107
4.2.1 Missing data analysis	108
4.2.2 Outlier analysis.....	109
4.2.3 Common method bias analysis.....	110
4.3 The Profile of Respondents.....	111
4.4 Factor Analysis	114
4.4.1 Exploratory factor analysis.....	115
4.4.1.1 Exploratory factor analysis for turnover intention	116
4.4.1.2 Exploratory factor analysis for organisational culture	117
4.4.1.3 Exploratory factor analysis for organisational commitment	118
4.4.1.4 Exploratory factor analysis for self-efficacy	120

4.5 Construct Reliability	121
4.5.1 Reliability analysis for turnover intention scale.....	122
4.5.2 Reliability analysis for organisational culture scale.....	123
4.5.3 Reliability for organisational commitment scale	124
4.5.4 Reliability for self-efficacy scale	124
4.5.5 Summary of the construct reliability.....	125
4.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	126
4.6.1 CFA for organizational culture	127
4.6.2 CFA for organisational commitment.....	129
4.6.3 CFA for self-efficacy	132
4.6.4 CFA for turnover intention.....	135
4.7 Descriptive Statistics.....	137
4.7.1 Descriptive statistics for turnover intention	137
4.7.2 Descriptive statistics for organisational culture	138
4.7.3 Descriptive statistics for organisational commitment	140
4.7.4 Descriptive statistics for self-efficacy	142
4.7.5 Descriptive Statistics for the research constructs	143
4.8 Analysis of Variance.....	144
4.8.1 ANOVA for gender.....	144
4.8.2 ANOVA for age group.....	145
4.8.3 ANOVA by educational level	147
4.8.4 ANOVA for tenure.....	149
4.8.5 ANOVA for academic rank.....	150
4.8.6 ANOVA for university type.....	152
4.9 Testing for Regression Assumptions	152
4.9.1 Multivariate outliers	153
4.9.2 Sampling size	153
4.9.3 Testing for normality.....	153
4.9.4 Testing for linearity	155
4.9.5 Testing for multicollinearity.....	156
4.9.6 Homoscedasticity	156
4.9.7 Testing for independence of errors.....	157
4.10 Zero-Order Correlation Analysis	157
4.11 Hypotheses Testing for Direct Effects on Turnover Intention.....	158

4.11.1 Effect of covariates on turnover intention.....	159
4.11.2 Effect of organizational culture on turnover intentions (H_{01})	160
4.11.3 Effect of organizational commitment on turnover intention (H_{02}).....	161
4.11.4 Effect of self-efficacy on turnover intentions (H_{03})	161
4.12 Effect of Organisational Culture on Organisational Commitment (H_{04})	162
4.12.1 The effect of control variables on organisational commitment.....	162
4.12.2 Effect of organisational culture on organisational commitment (H_{04}).....	163
4.13 Mediating Effect of Organisational Commitment on Organisational Culture and Turnover Intentions	164
4.14 Estimating Moderating Effect of Self-Efficacy on Organisational Culture and Organisational Commitment	166
4.15 Estimating Moderating Effect of Self-Efficacy on Organisational Culture and Intent to Turnover.....	167
4.16 Estimating the Moderating Effect of Self-Efficacy on Organisational Commitment and Turnover Intention.....	169
4.17 Estimating Moderated Mediation (Model 14)	171
4.18 Final Derived Model.....	174
4.19 Discussion	175
4.19.1 Controls and turnover intention.....	175
4.19.2 Organisational culture and turnover intention.....	177
4.19.3 Organisational commitment and turnover intention.....	179
4.19.4 Self-efficacy and turnover intentions	181
4.19.5 Organisational culture and organisational commitment.....	183
4.19.6 Mediating effect of organisational commitment between organisational culture and turnover intention	185
4.19.7 Moderating effect of self-efficacy on organisational culture and organisational commitment	187
4.19.8 Moderating effect of self-efficacy on organisational culture and turnover intention.....	189
4.19.9 Moderating effect of self-efficacy on organisational commitment and turnover intention	191
4.19.10 Moderating effect of self-efficacy on the indirect relationship between organisational culture and turnover intention via organisational commitment	192

CHAPTER FIVE	195
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	195
5.0 Introduction.....	195
5.1 Summary of Findings.....	195
5.2 Conclusions of the Study	196
5.3 Implications.....	197
5.3.1 Theoretical implications.....	197
5.3.2 Managerial implications.....	199
5.3.3 Policy implications.....	201
5.4 Suggestions for Further Research	202
REFERENCES	204
APPENDICES	257
Appendix 1: Study Area Map.....	257
Appendix 2: List of Universities in Uganda.....	258
Appendix 3: Moi SBE, Research Authorisation Letter.....	262
Appendix 4: TASO-REC Letter.....	263
Appendix 5: Research Consent/Assent Form.....	264
Appendix 6: UNCST Permit	267
Appendix 7: Academic RESEARCH Questionnaire	268
Appendix 8: Summary of Pilot Construct Validity and Reliability Test	271
Appendix 9: Stem and Leaf Univariate Outlier Analysis	273
Appendix 10: Harman’s Single Factor Test for Common Method Bias.....	275
Appendix 11: Mahalanobis Distance multivariate outliers’ analysis.....	277
Appendix 12: Test of Normality	278
Appendix 12A: Histogram of the Dependent Variable against the Regression Standardized Residuals	278
Appendix 12B: P-P Plot	278
Appendix 13: Test of Linearity	279
Appendix 13A: Zero-Order Correlation Matrix.....	279
Appendix 13B: ANOVA Model Test Result	279
Appendix 13C: The P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residuals	279
Appendix 14: Test of Multicollinearity.....	280
Appendix 15: Durbin-Watson Test for independence of error terms.....	280
Appendix 16: Test Results of the Direct Effects on Turnover intention.....	281

Appendix 16A: Test results of the direct effects on organisational commitment ..	283
Appendix 17: Mediation effect of organisational commitment in the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intention	285
Appendix 18: Estimations for the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between organisational culture and commitment.....	289
Appendix 19: Estimations for the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intention ..	291
Appendix 20: Estimations for the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention	294
Appendix 21: Moderated-Mediation effect (Model 15).....	297
Appendix 22: Moderated-Mediation effect (Model 14).....	301

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Summary of Gaps	74
Table 3.1: Showing number of Academic Staff in the selected Universities	82
Table 3.2: Showing number of Academic Staff in the selected Universities	83
Table 3.3: Summary of the Measurement of the Variables	89
Table 3.4: Content Validity Results based on Expert Review	91
Table 3.5: Summary of statistical tools for hypothesis testing	103
Table 4.1: Response Rate of Academic staff	107
Table 4.2: Distribution of Number of Missing Values by Case	108
Table 4.3: Distribution of number of Missing Values by Variable	109
Table 4.4: Univariate Outliers Analysis Results	110
Table 4.5: Profile of respondents	114
Table 4.6: Results of Sample-To-Variable Ratio Analysis	115
Table 4.7: PCA Factor Loadings Results for Turnover Intention	117
Table 4.8: PCA Factor Loadings Results for Organisational Culture	118
Table 4.9: PCA Factor loadings Results for Organisational Commitment	120
Table 4.10: PCA Factor Loadings Results for Self-efficacy	121
Table 4.11: Reliability Analysis Results for Turnover Intention	123
Table 4.12: Reliability Analysis Results for Organisational Culture	123
Table 4.13: Reliability Analysis Results for Organisational Commitment	124
Table 4.14: Reliability Analysis Results for Self-efficacy	125
Table 4.15: Summary of Construct Reliability Results	126
Table 4.16: CFA Model Estimates for Organizational Culture	129
Table 4.17: Composite Reliability, AVE, and DV Test Results for Organizational Culture	129
Table 4.18: CFA Model Estimates for Organizational Commitment	131
Table 4.19: Composite Reliability, AVE, and DV Test Results for Organizational Commitment	132
Table 4.20: CFA Model Estimates for Self-efficacy	134
Table 4.21: Composite Reliability, AVE, and DV Test Results for Self-efficacy	135
Table 4.22: Composite Reliability and AVE Test Results for Turnover Intention ...	136
Table 4.23: Descriptive Statistics Results for Turnover Intention	137
Table 4.24: Descriptive Statistics Results for Organisational Culture	140

Table 4.25: Descriptive Analysis Results for Organizational Commitment.....	141
Table 4.26 Descriptive Statistics Results for Self-efficacy	143
Table 4.27: Summary of the Descriptive Statistics for the Research Variables	144
Table 4.28: Gender against the study variables	145
Table 4.29: Age against the study variables	147
Table 4.30: Education level against the study variables	149
Table 4.31: Tenure against the study variables.....	150
Table 4.32: Academic rank against the study variables.....	151
Table 4.33: Institutional Type against the study variables	152
Table 4.34: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality.....	154
Table 4.35: Normality Test for the Transformed variables	154
Table 4.36: Multicollinearity Statistical Results.....	156
Table 4.37: Levene’s Test of Homoscedasticity.....	157
Table 4.38: Data Independence.....	157
Table 4.39: Zero-Order Pearson correlation results Matrix.....	158
Table 4.40a: Results for covariates and direct effects hypotheses.....	162
Table 4.40b: Results for covariates and direct effects hypotheses (Continued)	162
Table 4.41: Results for the direct effect of Organisational Culture on Organisational Commitment	164
Table 4.42: Direct effect results between organisational culture, organisational commitment and turnover intentions	165
Table 4.43: Bootstrapping mediation results	166
Table 4.44: Moderating effect of Self-efficacy on the relationship between organisational culture and organizational commitment.....	166
Table 4.45: Moderating effect of self-efficacy on organisational culture and turnover intention	168
Table 4.46: Moderating effect of self-efficacy on organisational commitment and turnover intent.....	170
Table 4.47: Moderated-Mediation results.....	172
Table 4.48: Bootstrap conditional indirect effect(s) at different levels of the moderator	172
Table 4.49: Index of Moderated Mediation	173
Table 4.50: Summary of Hypotheses Test Results	174

ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS

EU	Egerton University
HEIs	Higher Educational Institutions
KIU	Kampala International University
KU	Kenyatta University
KYU	Kyambogo University
MOFPED	Ministry of Finance, Planning, and Economic Development
MUK	Makerere University Kampala
MUST	Mbarara University of Science and Technology
NCHE	National Council for Higher Education
NU	Ndejje University
PBC	Perceived Behaviour Control
SCT	Social Cognitive Theory
St. JU	St. John's University
TI	Turnover Intention
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
TU	Tumaini University
UCU	Uganda Christian University
UMU	Uganda Martyrs University
UoDar	University of Dar es Salaam
UoD	University of Dodoma

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

- Affective commitment** refers to the emotional connection, identification with, and involvement in an organization (Boichuk & Menguc, 2013).
- Continuance commitment** refers to an employee's organizational involvement and commitment due to the perceived costs he or she would suffer as a result of leaving the organization (Boichuk & Menguc, 2013).
- Enactive mastery** is the academic's experience that raised him/her, whether it's good or bad, that effects their current stay decision as well as future withdrawal intentions based on their past organisational experiences (Crain, 2000).
- Normative commitment** is an employee's feeling of obligation toward a specific organization (Wasti & Can, 2008).
- Organisational commitment** refers to how strongly employees are involved in and identify with the organization (McCunn & Gifford, 2014).
- Organisational culture** is described as the "way things are done around here", which implies shared norms, beliefs, and behavioral expectations that drive behavior and communicate what is valued in an organization (Lonnqvist & Kagaari, 2011).

Physiological arousal	are psychological states such as anger, anxiety, stress, depression, aches and pains (Bandura, 1977; Crain, 2000; Ziegler, 2005) that influence academic staff turnover intentions positively or negatively.
Self-efficacy	is confidence in one's ability or competence to perform a target behavior in challenging situations (Kim & Lee, 2021).
Turnover intention	refers to mental decisions intervening between an individual's attitudes regarding a job and the stay or leave decision (Sager, Griffeth & Hom, 1998).
Verbal persuasion	refers to someone convincing another person that they are capable of being successful (Crain, 2000).
Vicarious experience	is the experience that an academic gain when influenced or affected by other academics. For example, when he sees another academic succeed in terms of career advancement despite existing challenges, he convinces himself that he can succeed as well (Bandura, 1997).

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

In today's global knowledge economy, human resources (HR) are crucial for organisations to deliver services and excellence (Faeq & Ismael, 2022; Gessesse & Premanandam, 2023). Compared to other resources, HRs supply knowledge, experience, competencies, and abilities required for driving performance and long-term success (Chen et al., 2023). Despite organisations' attempts to enhance staff retention, the persistence of employee desire to leave (turnover intentions) remains a critical concern among businesses, including universities (Chen *et al.*, 2023). Due to this, organisations make efforts to retain their HR in order to maintain institutional memory, productivity and competitiveness (Dayeh & Farmanesh, 2021). Despite organisations' attempts to enhance staff retention, the persistence of employee desire to leave (turnover intentions) remains a critical concern among businesses including universities (Ju & Li, 2019; Oruh *et al.*, 2020). Higher turnover has negative consequences, such as declining productivity, loss of morale, poor service quality, training, and increased recruitment costs (Alzubi, 2018; Kaymakcı *et al.*, 2022). This notwithstanding, turnover intention is an inevitable reality that organisations face and should deal with.

In recent years, turnover intention prevalence has remained high across the globe. According to Hom *et al.* (2017), job turnover is high in several countries like the U.S. (18.6%), France (24.4%), Belgium (15%), Germany (16.5%), Italy (21%), and the Netherlands (15.4%). The International Survey on Turnover Intention also revealed high rates in Mexico (17.4%), Australia (14.3%), and the Dominican Republic (14.6%), while Slovenia (4%) and the Czech Republic had low rates (3.1%). South

Africa, the only African country surveyed, had a 12.2% turnover rate (Gyensare, 2016). Separately, Malaysia reported 13.2%, Indonesia 25.8%, and China 21.3% turnover (Nawaz & Pangil, 2016). Again, the intent by industry showed that the health and social care sectors scored the highest (18.5%); banking and insurance industries scored an average of 7.8%; while agriculture and forestry sectors scored the lowest (1.3%), out of the 12 surveyed industries (Gyensare, 2016).

In perspective of universities, the turnover of academic staff exists in both developed and developing countries. For instance, the United States had a planned turnover rate of 40%, while Australia had a higher rate of 68% (Ng'ethe, 2014). In Malaysia, universities lose approximately 19,000 academic staff annually (Nawaz & Pangil, 2016). In Jordan, the projected turnover rate was expected to increase from 20% to 60% by the year 2020 (Alzubi, 2018). In sub-Saharan Africa, university turnover is high (Adriano & Callaghan, 2023; Bisaso, 2017; Pieters *et al.*, 2020). In South Africa, the turnover rate for academic staff ranges from 5% to 18% (Ngatuni & Matoka, 2020). In Kenya, several universities lost between 88 and 124 academic staff members between 2006 and 2011 (Mugove & Mukanzi, 2018). In Tanzania, 102 academic staff left UoD between 2009 and 2013 (Nyahongo, 2015). Similarly, Mkumbo (2014) reported the turnover intention to be 34.8% at St. JU, 39.3% at TU, 39% at UoD, and 45.5% at UoDar.

These high turnover statistics (Anitha, 2016) indicate that staff retention remains a big challenge that educational managers must address (Dahlkamp *et al.*, 2017; Williams III *et al.*, 2022). Turnover intentions are used as predictors of actual turnover, following the theory that intent precedes behaviour (Lin *et al.*, 2017; Saoula *et al.*, 2019). In the face of competition, staff retention ensures institutional knowledge and memory is preserved, facilitates mentorship, and sustains academic excellence

(Yusuf, 2020). Thus, managers must develop mechanisms to reduce the risk of unplanned departures (Hamid & Earlyanti, 2023; Sun & Wang, 2017).

Reflecting on the human resource management literature, organisational culture plays a crucial role in retaining employees (Hashmi *et al.*, 2020). Culture determines the way things are done in an organisation; it regulates the behaviour and actions of employees and creates a favourable environment that values sharing, support, fairness, and cooperation (Pawirosumarto *et al.*, 2017; Soomro & Shah, 2019; Thi *et al.*, 2021). Experts in industrial and organisational psychology emphasise the importance of culture in achieving organisational goals, job satisfaction, employee engagement, commitment, and retention (Habib *et al.*, 2014; Miiro & Burhan, 2018). However, research on organisational culture in higher education institutions (HEIs) is limited compared to the industrial and commercial sectors (Akanji *et al.*, 2020; Senbeto *et al.*, 2022), with very little specific research in HEIs (Aboajela, 2015; Bosomtwe & Obeng, 2018). Universities should evaluate their institutional culture for improved staff commitment and retention (Faeq & Ismael, 2022; Miiro & Burhan, 2018).

Organisational commitment is another antecedent that may predict turnover intentions (Hussain *et al.*, 2020). Organisational commitment theory suggests that the link between organisational culture and turnover intention could be indirectly improved via commitment (Shahid & Azhar, 2013). Commitment is a psychological process where employees identify with and become engaged in their organisation (Mercurio, 2015). Specifically, committed employees share common values and beliefs and work hard to achieve the organization's goals (Mete *et al.*, 2016; Obedgiu *et al.*, 2017). In turn, employees align their behaviour, priorities, and time for the long-term survival of the organisation. However, research on the relationship between commitment and

turnover intentions in the academic sector is limited compared to industrial organisational settings (Hussain *et al.*, 2020; Ng'ethe *et al.*, 2012).

Despite extensive research, the relationship between organisational culture and commitment remains unclear (Shoaib *et al.*, 2013). For example, studies on the effects of cultural traits on commitment have shown conflicting results (Wambui & Gichanga, 2018). In particular, (Al-Shurafat & Halim, 2018) attribute these results to research methodology, countries, respondents, and observations. Shoaib *et al.* (2013) observed that certain extraneous factors contribute to these outcomes, thereby pausing the sharp contrast of years of research linking the variables. To fully understand this complex relationship, the study draws on the social cognitive theory to argue that self-efficacy could modify the culture commitment link (Çelik *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, the presence of self-efficacy has the potential to influence how staff perceive culture and commitment to stay.

Self-efficacy, described as an individual's belief in their own abilities, has been recognised as a factor that influences how people adapt to their work environment (Khalid *et al.*, 2021). The level of self-efficacy determines how people act and judge their actions in various situations (Dicke *et al.*, 2018). Research suggests that high self-efficacy leads to greater perseverance, commitment to work, and lower turnover intention (Fernandez *et al.*, 2016). Despite its importance, self-efficacy has received limited attention in academic research, and its specific role in the decision to leave an academic position remains unclear.

Arising from the above inadequacies, further research is needed to understand how self-efficacy interacts with organisational culture and commitment in relation to turnover intention, especially in the academic context (De Simone *et al.*, 2018; Lin &

Liu, 2017). Grounded in this backdrop, a novel, robust model is adapted to examine how self-efficacy interacts with organisational culture and turnover intention in the presence of organisational commitment among academic staff in Ugandan universities.

Institutional setting -Universities in Uganda

In developing economies like Uganda, the education sector is a key partner in driving development, as Uganda envisages a vibrant and globally competitive economy by 2040. Specifically, universities play a major role in the socio-economic development of the country through teaching, research, and community service (Mushemeza, 2016). With this, university education is popularised and made accessible to all citizens. This places academic staff at the centre of providing quality education.

In the 1970s and 1980s, university education in sub-Saharan Africa, including Uganda, was limited to a few on a merit basis. Makerere Technical College, founded in 1922, and became the first university in 1970 (Mugabi, 2012). Islamic University in Uganda (IUIU) was established in 1988 as the first private university, followed by Mbarara University of Science and Technology in 1989. These changes were part of Uganda's adoption of a new university philosophy under World Bank reforms. In 1992, the Government White Paper on Education introduced private university education and regulatory frameworks.

The government has implemented legal frameworks and institutions to govern university education in Uganda, including the Ministry of Education and Sports, the Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act (UOIA) 2006 as revised, the National Council for Higher Education, university councils, and human resource policies (Emong & Eron, 2016). Specifically, UOIA (2006) provides for the establishment and

governance of universities. This UOIA gives universities autonomous powers to run university affairs through the creation of university councils. The UOIA also establishes the NCHE of Uganda, which monitors, evaluates, regulates, and guides the establishment of higher education institutions (HEIs).

Today, Uganda has more than forty universities both private and public (NCHE, 2019). This significant increase in specifically private universities is driven by high demand for university education (Tamrat, 2017), limited funding, and insufficient infrastructure in public universities (Otieno, 2007). The government's efforts to create a favorable business environment have also attracted private actors, contributing to Uganda's reputation as a prominent educational hub in East Africa with several foreign students till the late 2010s. These developments highlight the stability and growth of university education in Uganda, supported by legal and regulatory measures that promote inclusivity and efficiency.

To actualise their mandate, universities must maintain adequate staff levels guided by NCHE quality assurance standards (Alemiga & Kibukamusoke, 2019). The required academic staff hierarchy includes Teaching Assistants, Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers, Senior Lecturers, Associate Professors, and Professors, each with specific qualifications and experience. Universities are also required to have clear recruitment and selection policies, with the number of staff depending on the student population. The ideal student-staff ratio is recommended to be 1:15 or 1:50 for postgraduate and undergraduate students respectively. However, some universities operate beyond this threshold (Ssentamu, 2018) due to inadequate staffing establishment and resources to remunerate them.

The issue of academic staff mobility and its impact on university in Uganda, turnover intention prevalence remains a very key issue in both private and public universities. Ddungu (2014) observed that between 2008 and 2012, 68 lecturers resigned from MUK, 26 from MUST, 19 KYU, 10 from Gulu, 15 from KIU, and 17 from NU. This came at when most universities operated below their required staffing establishment. For example, MUK was only 51% filled, with 1,262 academic staff instead of the required 2,491. In the same period, MUST was at 55%, Gulu 70%, KYU 56% and NU 85% staff establishment (Asiimwe & Steyn, 2013). In 2017, Rwendeirwe report noted that some academic units in MUK operate 40% below the staffing establishment. Further, Muyiggwa and Kiyingi (2022) indicate that 25% academic staff had quit MUK while 43 left KYU between 2014 and 2019.

The mentioned statistics have a detrimental effect on various aspects of universities, including the quality of staff, teaching, education, and overall reputation (Kakembo & Barymak, 2017). For instance, MUK, which was previously ranked among the top ten universities in Africa, has experienced a decline in its ranking, currently standing at 23rd position in 2022. The impact is further evident in the reduced quality of research output and graduates, leading to a significant decline in the number of foreign students. Consequently, the financial status of the university has been affected. Additionally, there has been an increase in the number of strikes taking place within these universities. For example at MUK and KYU, with concerns about teaching quality, staff absenteeism, late submissions of coursework and exam marks (Mugizi *et al.*, 2015). In addition, NCHE stopped KIU from graduating 66 PhDs students' due lack of quality research supervision (supervisors).

Turnover intention is a significant concern in Ugandan universities, impacting recruitment, training, productivity, and overall university programs (Alkadash, 2020).

If this trend continues, it may lead to a decline in the quality of higher education and damage the university's reputation (Ssali *et al.*, 2019). Developing countries' universities need to revise their human resource management approaches and prioritise staff retention to compete globally (Muyiggwa & Kiyingi, 2022; Mwesigwa *et al.*, 2020). This thesis aims to addressing the existing practical and knowledge gap by examining the relationship between organisational culture, organisational commitment, self-efficacy, and turnover intentions in selected universities in Uganda.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The need for organisations to keep a steady, motivated, and devoted workforce is growing (Tumwesigye *et al.*, 2020a). Universities, as knowledge creation centers, must attract and retain high-quality experienced, knowledgeable and skilled academic staff (Aguenza & Som, 2018) so as to be engaged in academic productivity (quality teaching, research, publication, and knowledge dissemination). This can be achieved through proper recruitment, doctoral and professional training that may create a well-functioning university, and contribute to the achievement of goals (Kyaligonza *et al.*, 2015; Mushemeza, 2016).

However, this is not being achieved because universities continue to experience turnover (Ngatuni & Matoka, 2020) as some units operate at 40% of required staff (Rwendeirwe, 2017). Moreover, between 2010 and 2015, MUK lost 68, KYU 38, MUST 26, Gulu, KIU 26 and NU 17 academic staff in pursuit of greener pasture (Tumwesigye *et al.*, 2020b). This departure of senior academic staff has far reaching impact on the education quality, severe drop in the international rankings, financial status and university prestige (Robyn & Du Preez, 2013). With these mass departures, the universities' input into the realisation of the national vision 2040 will

be curtailed and their reputation will most likely decline (Ssali *et al.*, 2019). This calls for universities to understand the antecedents of turnover intention to accelerate staff retention (An, 2019).

Despite, studies on turnover intention and its antecedents (Zafar *et al.*, 2022), staff turnover seems not to be addressed adequately. Though previous studies have focused on organisational culture as a predictor of turnover intent, the findings are inconclusive (Dwivedi *et al.*, 2013; Kim *et al.*, 2017; Noerchoidah, 2020). Similarly, research linking organisational culture and turnover intention in HEIs is scanty in existing literature (Yusuf, 2020). As a result, it is necessary to investigate the factors that intervene the association between organisational culture and turnover intentions in order to gain a better understanding of this phenomenon (Otori *et al.*, 2018).

Studies show that organisational culture affects organisational commitment (Wang & Wang, 2020; Yanti & Dahlan, 2017), while others show that organisational commitment influences withdrawal intention (Faloye, 2014; Zeidan, 2020). Hence, there is need to examine the indirect role of organisational culture on turnover intent via organisational commitment (Cobbinah *et al.*, 2020; Lv *et al.*, 2022). Similarly, there is a stream of literature suggesting that self-efficacy influences turnover intentions (Chao, 2019; Selamat & Irsan, 2019). Thus, studying these factors and their interrelationship will provide appropriate details for addressing the current turnover intention problem in Ugandan universities.

Interestingly, most turnover intention studies focus on mediation and moderation independently, which only provides a partial explanation (Abdullah *et al.*, 2015; Omira, 2015). Furthermore, Borau *et al* (2015) posits that limited studies in human resource management have explored moderated mediation effects. This study aims to

bridge the existing research gap by incorporating using moderated mediation to examine the interaction effects of organisational culture, organisational commitment, and self-efficacy on turnover intention among academic staff in selected Ugandan universities.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General objective

The general objective of the study was to examine the effect of organisational culture, organisational commitment, and self-efficacy on turnover intent among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.

1.3.2 Specific objectives

- i. To determine the effect of organisational culture on turnover intentions among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.
- ii. To examine the effect of organisational commitment on turnover intentions among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.
- iii. To establish the effect of self-efficacy on turnover intentions among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.
- iv. To assess the effect of organisational culture on organisational commitment among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.
- v. To examine the mediating effect of organisational commitment on the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.
- vi. To examine the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.

- vii. To determine the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.
- viii. To examine the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intentions among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.
- ix. To analyse the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the indirect relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions through organisational commitment among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

- Ho₁: Organisational culture has no significant effect on turnover intentions among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.
- Ho₂: Organisational commitment has no significant effect on turnover intentions among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.
- Ho₃: Self-efficacy has no significant effect on turnover intentions among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.
- Ho₄: Organisational culture has no effect on organisational commitment among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.
- Ho₅: Organisational commitment has no mediating effect on the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.
- Ho₆: Self-efficacy has no moderating effect on the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.

Ho₇: Self-efficacy has no moderating effect on the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.

Ho₈: Self-efficacy has a moderating effect on the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intentions among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.

Ho₉: Self-efficacy has no moderating effect on the indirect relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions through organisational commitment among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.

1.5 The Significance of the Study

Empirically, research is completed to expand on the body of knowledge (Bryman & Bell, 2015). This study extends academic debate on the extent to which organisational culture, organisational commitment, and self-efficacy collectively predict academic staff turnover intention. Future authors on turnover intention may be influenced by the findings derived from this debate.

The study contributes to theory by adopting a multi-theoretical approach composed of theory of planned behaviour, institutional theory, organisational commitment theory, and social cognitive theory to create a coherent and robust model, one that is better able to understand and explain turnover intentions from the university perspective (Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Nilsen, 2020).

This study offers universities an explanatory framework to comprehend the baffling turnover intention hampering their bid to provide quality education. Explanations of approaches to managing withdrawal behaviours are available for them to exploit so as to achieve individual university goals and the national mandate. As a result, this study

serves as a resource for university administrators interested in reducing turnover intention in developing countries, particularly Uganda.

According to the study's findings, the Ministry of Education and Sports, NCHE, University Councils, and Boards can improve university employee retention. This would be done by developing retention policy frameworks based on factors that this study finds relevant and closely related to turnover intention as a means to avert costs and losses associated with it and improve quality standards of higher education. Specifically, relevant appointing organs in universities could gain insights on the role played by personal resource (self-efficacy) in driving staff retention. Universities could amend their onboarding programs so as to attract staff with self-efficacy, not just commitment prior to joining.

1.6 Scope of the Study

Scope provides boundaries within which research is undertaken. Conceptually, the study hopes to generate new knowledge in the field of human resource management on moderated mediation between organisational culture, organisational commitment, self-efficacy, and turnover intention in selected universities in Uganda, where the phenomenon has been prevalent.

Geographically, universities in Uganda operate in all the regions (East, Central, North and West). However due to resource constraints, this study was limited to: MUK, KYU, MUST and Gulu as public universities and UCU, KIU, UMU, and NU as private universities. Use of these universities is expected to generate knowledge that gives a general view of the turnover intent situation in the Ugandan education sector (Tumwesigye *et al.*, 2020b).

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter provides an introduction to the thesis topic and establishes the study context by reviewing relevant literature on the hypothesised relationship between the variables. It discusses the theoretical and conceptual foundations of organisational culture, organisational commitment, self-efficacy, and turnover intention. The chapter identifies gaps and inconsistencies in the existing literature, leading to the development of the study's conceptual framework. It also includes an explanation of key concepts.

2.1 The Concept of Turnover Intention

Historically, turnover intention received much interest from academics, practitioners, and professionals because of its harmful influence on organisations (Abid & Butt, 2017; Kaymakçı *et al.*, 2022). To avert it, researchers are seeking to understand factors likely to contribute to sustained employee commitment (Fasih *et al.*, 2021; Khalid *et al.*, 2018) for long-term academic staff retention, institutional memory preservation and success. In today's knowledge economy, retention of staff is vital as organisations respond to market competition while maintaining competitive advantage (Ahtisham-ul-Haq *et al.*, 2021). Hence, turnover intention remains a serious obstacle threatening organisational economic growth (Samuel & Chipunza, 2013).

Important to note, turnover intention is commonly used interchangeably with other terminologies like intention to leave and intention to stay both in literature and management practice. This thesis adopts turnover intention to mean an employee's desire to leave their organisation in the nearby future (Haque & Jahid, 2016). Scholars

regard it as a choice by an individual to separate from their current employer (Wong *et al.*, 2015). In this context, turnover intentions reflect the most authentic and immediate cognitive antecedents of overt turnover behavior (Lin *et al.*, 2017). This implies that intentions are the best single predictor of an employee's behaviour and a measure of their desire to quit the job (Cruise & McLeary, 2018), justifying turnover intention as a proxy of actual turnover (Jeswani & Dave, 2012).

Employees' turnover-intent is an early signal of turnover. However, turnover intention and actual turnover are not the same. Turnover (actual behaviour) denotes employees' permanent movement beyond the organisational boundary (Rahman & Nas, 2013), while turnover intention is considered to be the final stage in the decision-making process before resignation. Typically, before resignation, employees harbor the intent to leave (Milovanovic, 2017), which involves thoughts of exiting, launching a job search, and ultimately resigning (Kartika & Purba, 2018). Empirical studies have proved that turnover intention affects actual turnover (Bothma & Roodt, 2013; Lee *et al.*, 2019b) and is a real-time predictor of actual turnover (Barkhuizen & Gumede, 2021). As such, many studies have focused on turnover intention rather than actual turnover because turnover decisions are something employees carefully consider (Kartika & Purba, 2018). Logically, it is more feasible to collect data from current working employees about their intent to leave as opposed to tracking them down once they have actually quit their jobs (Uğural *et al.*, 2020).

Today, turnover intention poses a silent danger in organisations, regardless of the status or business that has not spared universities either, as academic staff desire to quit teaching (Ddungu, 2014). Whereas not all turnover intentions led to eventual exit from the organisation, employees who previously harbored the desire to leave tend to

engage in counterproductive behaviors like tardiness, pilferage, frequent sick leave (Su, 2021) low engagement with more time and energy spent searching for other jobs (Kaufmann *et al.*, 2022). As such, employees with high turnover intention have low morale, offer poor services, and erode service recovery efforts, leading to negative effects on organisational performance (Karatepe & Shahriari, 2014). Similarly, when employees turnover, organisations incur costs on recruitment, selection, training, loss of institutional memory and image (Ali, 2018; Cho & Lewis, 2012).

Although, turnover intention has been over researched in mainstream human resource management literature (Bothma & Roodt, 2013), there is confusion surrounding the operationalisation and measurement of turnover intention. The conceptualization of what turnover intention is or what it should be has been variedly explained from different domains (Sager *et al.*, 1998; Su, 2021). For instance, Su (2021) studied intent based on the cognitive or affective and behavioral domains. The cognitive turnover- intent are conscious decisions intervening between an individual's attitudes whether to leave or stay (Sager *et al.*, 1998). Behavioral intention is the final decision-making stage before employees separate themselves from the organization (Robbins *et al.*, 2015). In another study, Takase (2010) observed turnover intention as three multi-stage process consisting of psychological, cognitive, and behavioural aspects. Recent literature supports the use of the behavioural aspect in the operationalization of turnover intention (Bothma & Roodt, 2013; Su, 2021).

On the other hand, there is no standardized turnover intention measurement scale. Literature shows that turnover intention has been measured with a single item Guimaraes (1997), three items (Fox & Fallon, 2003), six items (Bothma & Roodt, 2013) and 14 items (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008). This study adopts the 14 item scale

because its associated with good Cronbach's alphas (Griffeth *et al.*, 2000; Jacobs & Roodt, 2011). Further, the tool has been found appropriate in the South African university context (Mashile *et al.*, 2021). In addition, Su (2021) encourages researchers to validate the scale in varied contexts, especially Uganda where the 14-item scale has been limitedly used.

2.2 The Concept of Organisational Culture

Organisational culture (OC) emerged in the late 1960s and early 1970s as a significant factor in shaping behaviour and guiding the direction of organisations (Alvesson, 2016; Chatman & O'Reilly, 2016). It gained momentum with the empirical works of Pettigrew (1979), resurfaced in the 1980s and 1990s when researchers sought to understand the success of Japanese firms compared to those in the U.S. (Chatman & O'Reilly, 2016; Fang *et al.*, 2023). OC influences organisations by framing their destiny (Kwakye, 2018) and is recognised as an intangible resource with a direct impact on various organisational processes and outcomes. These include turnover intention (Rehman *et al.*, 2018a), performance (Arifin *et al.*, 2019), and effectiveness (Lapiņa *et al.*, 2015), particularly as organisations strive for competitive advantage (Dwivedi *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, organisations need to cultivate a strong and enduring culture that is closely tied to employee retention (Aryani & Widodo, 2020).

Culture plays a vital role in driving organisational success in today's business environment (Tichy, 1982). It is essential for organisations to cultivate a cohesive culture that aligns behaviour with performance and embraces adaptability for a sustainable workplace (Adebayo *et al.*, 2020). A well-defined culture supports the business operations of an organisation and promotes acceptable behaviour among its members (Warrick *et al.*, 2016). In HEIs, culture is a crucial element of effective

management practises that guides their success and helps them achieve their objectives (Beytekin *et al.*, 2010).

While the concept of culture has appeared widely in existing literature for over two decades (Hartnell *et al.*, 2011), it has remained broad and elusive (Chatman & O'Reilly, 2016; Samur & Üsküplü, 2021). Different authors have provided varying definitions and understandings of culture, which has led to a lack of consensus on its meaning, types, measurement, and typologies. This discrepancy can be attributed to the interdisciplinary nature of culture studies, with academics from various disciplines approaching it from different perspectives (Samur & Üsküplü, 2021; Sarhan *et al.*, 2020).

Earlier scholars such as Hofstede (2001); Peters and Waterman (1984); Schein (1990); Wallach (1983), and Ouchi (1981) have laid the foundation for the study of OC and influenced current research in this area. On this basis, OC is seen as a shared phenomenon among organisational members (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000), reflecting how the organisation interacts with the external environment and shaping its functions and procedures (Van Rooij & Fine, 2018). Consistent with this definition, Schein (1985) stated that OC provides the basic norms and problem-solving approaches that help the organisation adapt to the external environment while maintaining internal integration (Sarhan *et al.*, 2020).

In simple terms, organisational culture (OC) refers to the unique qualities and style of an organisation, encompassing the way things are done and the behaviours of its members (Adebayo *et al.*, 2020). It influences employee commitment and retention by reflecting the organisation's personality and creating a positive relationship with

stakeholders. OC comprises norms, values, beliefs, and behaviours that define how groups within the organisation accomplish their tasks (Levering, 2016).

To understand the complex nature of OC, scholars have developed various theoretical frameworks and models to understand and predict different types of organisational cultures (Cobbinah *et al.*, 2020). These models provide comprehensive explanations regarding the deviations that exist between organisational cultures. Particularly, Deal and Kennedy, Hofstede, Harrison and Stokes, Schein, and the Competing Values Framework (CVF) have offered epistemological views in espousing OC.

The study utilises the Cameron and Quinn Competing Values Framework (CVF) to measure organisational culture in universities (Asaah *et al.*, 2020; Cobbinah *et al.*, 2020). The CVF is a widely used framework that consists of two pairs of opposite values: agility vs. stability and inward vs. outward focus (Belias *et al.*, 2015). These values create four dimensions of organisational culture: clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy (Asaah *et al.*, 2020).

Clan culture emphasises collaboration and nurturing (Fang *et al.*, 2023). Members of the organisation see themselves as part of one big family. Within this culture, leadership takes a light touch with a large emphasis on coaching, mentorship, support, and guidance (Pinho *et al.*, 2014). Clan organisations are value driven with strong traditions like loyalty, commitment, teamwork, support, and consensus decision making being espoused (Givens, 2012). Clan organisations also emphasise long-term development and cohesion. This culture places premium on doing things together.

Adhocracy culture is a flexible, energetic, creative, entrepreneurial, and dynamic work environment (Pathirana, 2019). Employees in adhocracy cultures are encouraged to take risks, and leaders are visionary and innovative (Veiseh *et al.*,

2014). The organisation values experimentation, freedom to innovate, and embraces change (Fiordelisi & Ricci, 2014). Market organisations focus on being at the forefront of new knowledge, products, and services (Veiseh *et al.*, 2014). Flexible organisations that can adapt to changing circumstances are believed to be more successful. According to Cameron and Quinn (2011) market organisations have a long-term orientation towards rapid growth and acquiring the resources needed to produce unique and original offerings (Sok *et al.*, 2014).

Hierarchical organisations have a strong structure and tend to exert a high degree of control over their members and the things they do. The work environment tends to be formal, with strict procedures, processes, and policies (Hartnell *et al.*, 2011). The success of standards is dependent on the degree of compliance with the established protocols. Leaders coordinate the work activities and monitor performance. This type of culture espouses the values of efficiency, predictability, consistency, and uniformity (Hartnell *et al.*, 2011). This is typical of government and bureaucratic institutions, which often result in slow change. Hierarchical organisations aim at doing things right.

Market culture is a results-oriented and competitive workplace (Oh & Han, 2020). This culture holds that the external environment is hostile to well-informed clients interested in value (Seidu *et al.*, 2022). Leaders are tough and focused on driving productivity and profits (Eaton & Kilby, 2015). The major role of management is to drive the organisation towards productivity, results, and profits (Oh & Han, 2020). The organisation comes together around a common goal winning and outwitting its rivals (Khan *et al.*, 2020). This culture is framed by the new psychological and goal contracts between the two parties (Pinho *et al.*, 2014). Market organisations are driven

by the need for market share, penetration, and profitability (Hartnell *et al.*, 2011). This culture emphasises just getting things done (let's do it). Market organisations aim to be market leaders.

Reflecting on the above literature, CVF is considered suitable for integrating different values and has received validation in various contexts, making it applicable in the university setting (Belias *et al.*, 2015). However, Ostroff and Schulte (2014) argue that there is insufficient evidence to support the construct validity of the CVF. The model has been criticised for including multiple constructs in the assessment of cultural typologies, such as organisational structure, practises, leadership, and strategy. In response to this criticism, Chatman and O'Reilly (2016) suggest that every model has its weaknesses and encourage testing in new contexts for validation. Additionally, there is a lack of studies that have applied the CVF in developing countries (Aldhuwaihi & Shee, 2015; Nwibere, 2013). Nevertheless, the CVF suggests that organisations can accommodate different subcultures and utilise them based on specific needs (Hartnell *et al.*, 2011). The strength of the CVF lies in its ability to integrate differentiation, enabling organisations to pursue goals and address challenges by balancing different sets of values.

2.3 The Concept of Organisational Commitment

Since the early 20th century, organisations have faced increasing pressure to improve profitability and productivity (Benkarim & Imbeau, 2021). This led scholars and practitioners to focus on work attitudes and behaviours, with the concept of organisational commitment emerging as a driver of productivity (Govender & Grobler, 2017). Consequently, human resource policies were developed to maximise commitment and differentiate companies from competitors (Suliman & Iles, 2000),

particularly in the 1970s when the USA faced low employee commitment and increased competition from Japan (Lincoln & Kalleberg, 2003).

Organisational commitment is correlated with several organisational outcomes such as motivation, absenteeism, turnover-intent, tenure, and organisational goals (Meyer & Allen, 1991). In HEIs, committed academicians are imperative for their success (Gopinath, 2020) in terms of better teaching, extensive research, and community service. Thus, academics' commitment to the university is a crucial issue in today's health system, which is characterised by diverse work teams and environments (Suliman & Iles, 2000).

The concept of organisational commitment has gained popularity, leading researchers to conceptualise and measure it (Cohen, 2007). However, there is still a lack of a unified definition, making it elusive among researchers and practitioners (Suryani, 2018). Different researchers have approached commitment from various perspectives, resulting in inconsistent results (Bakotić, 2022). The dilemma also arises from categorising commitment into attitudinal and behavioural dimensions, focusing on aspects such as identification, involvement, loyalty, and perceived costs of leaving the organisation (Becker, 1960).

By embracing organizational commitment mechanisms, organisations are striving to retain employees (Jena, 2015). The academic staff's attachment to their institution plays a crucial role in distinguishing it from other employers (Anttila, 2015). Committed employees are essential for company success in today's competitive business environment (Jena, 2015). In the study of organisational commitment, three dimensions have been developed and accepted to address the conceptual variability and confusion surrounding the construct: affective, continuance, and normative

commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). These dimensions reflect the bond, loyalty, and identification between an employee and the organization (Johnson, 2015).

Affective commitment is a psychological bond where employees remain dedicated, have a high sense of job involvement, and take responsibility towards the organisation (Hamid & Earlyanti, 2023). It is helpful in reducing turnover as employees want to renew their membership due to the alignment of their individual and organisational goals (Balassiano & Salles, 2012; Suryani, 2018). Highly affective employees go above and beyond contractual expectations, exhibiting OCB necessary for the smooth running of the organisation (Danish *et al.*, 2015).

Normative commitment also referred to as moral commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997), reflects the individuals' mind-set of a perceived obligation to remain in the organisation because it is the right thing to do (Gopinath, 2020). This is shaped by the employees' beliefs that have been internalised during the socialization (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012). Normative can be viewed in tandem with compensation received for not working for the organization. Normative is like a debt an individual owes an organisation for a favour or perceived organisational support (Meyer & Allen, 1991) previously rendered to them, and as such, they feel staying is the way of repaying that debt.

Continuance commitment is characterised by the perceived costs associated with leaving an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Employees with continuance commitment choose to stay due to the investments they have made in the organisation and the limited alternative employment opportunities available to them (Na-Nan *et al.*, 2021). They remain committed because they believe the benefits they receive outweigh the potential risks of leaving (Cakı *et al.*, 2015). Thus, employees remain

committed because they need to in order to keep enjoying the benefits offered by the organisation.

To this end, Meyer and Allen's three-component model of organizational commitment is widely accepted and effectively captures the various elements of employee commitment, including in the context of academia (Kipkebut, 2013). This model has been tested and found to be applicable in different settings, highlighting the importance of commitment in driving university success (Hanaysha, 2016; Hussain *et al.*, 2020). From this discussion, committed academic staff play a crucial role in university success (Ayari & AlHamaqi, 2021) through teaching, community engagement, knowledge creation, and dissemination by committed staff (Pucciarelli & Kaplan, 2016).

2.4 The Concept of Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is a concept that has gained a lot of attention from researchers and practitioners in human resource management (Sarı, 2016). It was first introduced by Albert Bandura in 1977 and has since been used to understand and predict human behavior (Haddad & Taleb, 2016). Self-efficacy enables actors to perform responsible behaviour and execute work effectively with confidence (Carter *et al.*, 2018). Self-efficacy is considered an important factor in various areas such as health, politics, sports, and business (Pajares, 1996). The concept has been viewed and studied differently by scholars in varied contexts. However, the concept of self-efficacy lacks a clear definition, consistent measurement, and strong scientific rigor (Marsh *et al.*, 2017), which has posed challenges to its understanding (Marsh *et al.*, 2019).

Self-efficacy entails the self-perceptions of an individual's firm belief in their ability to overcome hurdles in a given condition. This reflects one's internal conviction that

"I think I can". Adewale *et al.* (2017) define self-efficacy as a person's capability to carry out a specific task successfully. Fall and Roussel (2014) regarded self-efficacy as situationally specific self-confidence that leverages academic staff's work success, personal growth, and individual happiness. Self-efficacy is the belief in one's capability to meet challenges and accomplish certain goals. For example, people who desire to accomplish certain goals in their lives, especially in health, fitness, business, or relationships, and self-efficacy could help them succeed in those areas.

Academic staff with high efficacy are innovative, don't complain about difficult tasks, have a positive work ethic, and can work with minimal supervision. This leads to better performance in universities because they are committed to their work (Almutairi, 2020). Academics' behaviour is influenced by their commitment to their career, and those who are committed make efforts to improve their skills and motivate themselves to perform well (Njagi *et al.*, 2019). They spend time developing their skills and show a strong belief in their own abilities, which increases their job involvement. (Ok & Vandenberghe, 2016) and promoting their self-efficacy by showing greater job involvement (Njagi *et al.*, 2019). Consistent with social cognitive literature, this study examines the concept of efficacy and how such efficacy beliefs interact with culture and commitment to cause variations in withdrawal intention (Bandura, 2012).

To develop a strong sense of self-efficacy, academics rely on various sources of belief (Bandura, 1977). Enactive mastery is the most persuasive source of self-efficacy, based on prior successes or failures (McKim & Velez, 2017) by self-monitoring of one's performance. One's recollection of past experiences could build or gash down efficacious feelings (Arcelay-Rojas, 2018). Reflecting upon mastered experiences,

academicians could overcome harder challenges in the future based on past experience (Morris *et al.*, 2017). Academics with some form of field experience understand the dynamics of work and are likely to apply knowledge gained in making decisions to stay or quit.

Academics also boost their efficacy beliefs by observing the successes and failures of others (vicarious experiences). When they see their peers succeeding in certain tasks, it helps them believe that they too have the ability to succeed. This is similar to comparing oneself to others in school, work, or sports (Capa-Aydin *et al.*, 2018). By witnessing others' achievements, academics can visualise themselves achieving similar success through their own perseverance and effort (Saine & West, 2017). In reference to Bandura (1997), vicarious experiences can be gained by observing models who demonstrate flawless task completion or by learning from others' trial and error experiences, which helps build self-efficacy.

Thirdly, self-efficacy is built through verbal persuasion. Essentially, one's confidence grows when references express faith in their ability to meet job demands (Bandura, 1977). In particular, academic staff obtain feedback from mentors, supervisors, peers, practitioners, family, and students. Constructive feedback and support from a mentor enable an academic to cope with tough situations, leading to positive self-efficacy (Schuldt, 2019). To create an impact, the person offering feedback must be perceived as sincere and credible (Bandura, 1997).

Physiological arousal refers to the physical and emotional reactions that can influence a person's self-efficacy during tasks that involve physical activity (Morris *et al.*, 2017). According to Saine and West (2017), these reactions can be either negative or positive and depend on the situation and the meaning attached to them. For example,

sweating during a public speech can be seen as a sign of stage fright or simply due to the room temperature. Unfortunately, negative arousals can increase anxiety levels beyond what is necessary for the situation. Overall, self-efficacy is built through a combination of these four sources, but the importance of each source may vary depending on the situation.

2.5 Theoretical Review

Lenses of the Theory of Planned Behavior, Institutional theory, Theory of Organisational Commitment and Social Cognitive Theory are used to predict intentional turnover. In all, each theory is anchored on a specific study variable, providing a scientific and rational justification, ensued by a description of the integrated framework within which the phenomena of organizational culture, organizational commitment, self-efficacy and turnover intention are explained.

2.5.1 Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)

The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) is a validated intention model used to examine turnover intentions among academic staff. TPB was proposed by Ajzen (1991). It builds on the theory of reasoned action and considers factors beyond individual control. TPB recognizes that perfect control over behavior is unrealistic and emphasizes the importance of knowledge, skills, cooperation, and resource availability. It is adopted as the main theory for explaining turnover intentions. Academic staff require knowledge, skills, abilities, and resources to avoid being trapped in the separation process and manage their behavior effectively. These perspectives enhance our understanding of turnover intention management. As such, it assumes people are rational decision-makers. The TPB components are linked to intentions as follows:

Behaviour intentions: The likelihood of performing a behavior is predicted by the strength of one's intention, which is influenced by personal willingness and determination. Attitude toward behavior: Attitude refers to an individual's overall evaluation of a behavior, considering its expected outcomes and consequences. Positive attitudes toward a behavior increase the likelihood of intention to engage in that behavior. Subjective norms: Subjective norms involve the perceived social pressures and expectations from significant others regarding a behavior. They influence one's decision to engage in a behavior based on the approval or disapproval of important people in their life.

Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC): PBC reflects a person's beliefs about the factors that facilitate or hinder their ability to perform a specific behavior. It includes knowledge, resources, and perceived ability to carry out the behavior. Higher PBC increases the likelihood of intention to engage in a behavior. TPB is a versatile theory applied in various fields such as health, education, psychology, and marketing. It has been used to study behaviors like eating, physical activity, drug use, and technology adoption (Tommasetti *et al.*, 2018, Andrews *et al.*, 2010, Wasserkampf *et al.*, 2014)).

The above empirical studies are evidence that indicates that the intentions are the projections of actual turnover (Rahimah, Khalil, Cheng, Tran, & Panwar, 2018). With this current wave of optimism, it is vital to explore how TPB can be further advanced to better address the turnover intention impediment in the Ugandan context (Nilsen, 2015), thereby contributing to bridging the research-practice gap. This study adopted TPB as the main theory in establishing the interaction effect of organisational culture, organisational commitment, and self-efficacy on TI among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda.

Although TPB has received substantial empirical support, its opponents have criticised it on the basis that it was designed to predict and explain only rational behaviours that occur in predictable situations, ignoring spontaneous behaviours that overpower one's consciousness (Kan & Fabrigar, 2017). Secondly, intentions are not a guarantee of actual behaviour, implying that other contextual factors or unforeseen events may intervene and alter an individual's intended behaviour. Lastly, cultural and contextual factors may influence the applicability and relevance of the TPB in different settings. Therefore, the subject of intentions is complex, and no single theory fully explains every aspect of what motivates individuals to engage in behavioural intention, paving the way for other theories.

2.5.2 Institutional Theory

The institutional theory derives its roots from socio-psychology and was pioneered by DiMaggio and Powell (1983). Institutional theory underscores the essence of adopting certain strategies for the purpose of gaining legitimacy or survival in an environment (Miska *et al.*, 2018; Scott, 2008). As such, the internal social structures within which organisations operate may facilitate or constrain organisational activities (Scott, 2001). Institutional influences may affect the behaviour of academic staff in the form of rules, laws, and sanctions, but also in the form of shared conceptions of social reality (McGuinness & Demirbag, 2012).

Institutional theory is inspired by the observation that organisations that operate in a particular sector resemble each other to a surprising degree. By adapting this theory, organisations can increase their ability to survive in a competitive environment while satisfying their stakeholders, both internal and external. According to the theory, institutions create pressures and restrictions and set boundaries for what is or is not

accepted (Kitsis & Chen, 2021). In the context of turnover intentions, institutional theory helps us understand how organisational culture, as an institutionalised practice, influences individuals' intentions to stay or leave. The theory highlights three key mechanisms of institutional influence: coercive, normative, and mimetic pressures.

Coercive pressures refer to the influence exerted by external forces, such as laws, regulations, and formal authority, which organisations must comply with to avoid penalties or negative consequences (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). In the case of this study, academic staff are expected to conform to the cultural expectations of their universities, which could either discourage or encourage turnover intentions. This explains why public universities adopt clan and hierarchy cultures that limit employee involvement in decision-making, observing policies, and opportunities for growth, while private ones are more market-oriented, emphasising performance.

Normative pressures involve conformity to social norms, values, and expectations that are considered appropriate or desirable within a given context (Scott, 2008). In line with this study, academic staff may feel compelled to stay or leave an organisation based on the expectations and norms of their academic community, such as publishing requirements, advancement opportunities, or teaching workload. Mimetic pressures occur when organisations imitate the behaviours, strategies, and practices of successful or prestigious organisations in their field (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). In this context, academic staff may conform to turnover intentions by observing the behaviour and choices of their colleagues at other universities.

The institutional theory of management helps explain how organisations navigate and respond to the social and institutional pressures that shape their behavior. It emphasises the importance of understanding the external environment and the

institutional context in which organisations operate and how these factors influence organisational strategies, decision-making processes, and organisational culture.

The contribution of DiMaggio & Powell's institutional theory is limited to external forces that influence organisational culture, overlooking the internal dynamics and agency of individuals (idiosyncratic factors) that could influence turnover intentions. Secondly, it assumes that individuals are passive actors who conform to institutional pressures without considering their personal preferences and motivations. To fill this gap in theory, the organisational commitment theory is employed to explain how psychological factors can be developed and embedded into organisational culture to enhance organisational commitment while reducing turnover intention.

2.5.3 The Organisational Commitment Theory

The organisational commitment theory is based on the three-component model of commitment proposed by Meyer and Allen. The model proposes that individuals have three distinct components: affective commitment, which reflects emotional attachment to the organisation; normative commitment, which reflects a sense of obligation to remain in the organisation; and long-term commitment related to emotions motivated by fear of loss of benefit (Mercurio, 2015).

In the context of the study, this model was used to uncover how organisational commitment is framed to explain certain organisational outcomes and behaviours. By examining commitment from these three perspectives, it provides an explanation why employees stay or leave an institution from the direct and indirect (mediation) paths (Masenya *et al.*, 2020). Specifically, to understand how academic staff's affective commitment to their university influences their turnover intentions, draw insights into the emotional factors at play. Secondly, examine how normative commitment affects

turnover intentions among academic staff, drawing on the role of social norms and ethical considerations needed for employees to stay or leave. Thirdly, focusing on continuance commitment, universities need to provide benefits that increase the cost of leaving due to fear of losing benefits, relationships, or career opportunities. Thus, this theory was relevant in investigating the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intentions as well as the mediating role of organisational commitment (Simo *et al.*, 2014).

Despite the strengths of this theory, it has been criticized. Firstly, it does not consider other potential (personal or contextual) drivers of intentions beyond organisational commitment. Secondly, the theory assumes that commitment is stable over time and does not consider the potential for changes in commitment levels. Lastly, theory does not explicitly account for the role of external job market factors or individual career aspirations, which may also impact turnover intentions. To fill this theoretical gap, social cognitive theory that considers personal characteristics (self-efficacy) which influence the environment (culture) while contributing to employee behaviour (commitment and intention to stay) was integrated into the model.

2.5.4 Social Cognitive Theory (SCT)

Social cognitive theory (SCT) started as the Social Learning Theory (SLT) in the 1960s by Albert Bandura and developed into the SCT in 1989. SCT is premised on understanding and predicting the changing nature of individuals (Middleton *et al.*, 2019). SCT posits that learning occurs in a social context (observation, modelling, and imitation) with a dynamic and reciprocal interaction between personal, environmental, and behavioural factors (Langat & Lagat, 2017). SCT puts emphasis on self-efficacy as a central theme, which predicts the courses of action people take,

the amount of effort freely allocated to a given task, perseverance in the face of obstacles, positive judgements and self-talk, and the success of the undertaking (Morris *et al.*, 2017).

According to SCT, believing in one's ability to achieve desired outcomes is important for personal career change (Zhang *et al.*, 2022). When people have confidence in their abilities, it strengthens their thinking skills. This positive mindset helps them persist and feel in control during difficult situations, leading to greater success (Yough, 2019). Understanding how SCT influences turnover intention in academic fields is crucial (Usher & Pajares, 2006). Since turnover intention is infectious, SCT influences how academic staff perceive and respond to their organisational culture, shaping their commitment and turnover intentions. In addition, the principle of reciprocal determinism helps to explain how organisational culture and self-efficacy can mutually influence each other and impact turnover intentions (Chouchane *et al.*, 2023).

In this study, SCT is relevant in explaining the direct and interactional effects of self-efficacy on three different paths. Firstly, higher levels of self-efficacy may buffer the negative effects of a negative organisational culture on turnover intentions, as individuals with high self-efficacy may believe in their ability to navigate the challenges and find ways to remain committed to their organisation (Rizkiawati & Asandimitra, 2018). Secondly, self-efficacy can influence individuals' perceptions of their ability to thrive within a particular organisational culture. Academic staff with high self-efficacy may feel more empowered to adapt and align their values and behaviours with the organisational culture, leading to higher organisational commitment (Soomro *et al.*, 2023). Lastly, self-efficacy moderates the relationship

between organisational commitment and turnover intentions (Zhang *et al.*, 2022). Academic staff with high self-efficacy may be more likely to follow through with their intentions if they perceive that leaving the organisation aligns with their personal goals and values, even if they have higher levels of commitment (Otori *et al.*, 2018).

Although researchers have underscored the significant role that self-efficacy plays in overall performance and behaviour change, there is limited evidence to test the application of SCT in explaining turnover intention. Specifically, SCT does not directly address the influence of the triadic relationship between people, behavior, and environment in shaping learning. Thus, this weakness was addressed by the other theories.

From the discussion above, the study adopted a multi-theoretic slant to explain turnover intention in universities, with a few contextual modifications in a developing economy. The use of this approach in management studies has been supported (Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Nilsen, 2020), who assert that theory integration enables the researcher to leverage the strength of each theory to improve our understanding of turnover intentions. Taking these theoretical viewpoints together, universities can alleviate academic staff's turnover intentions (theory of planned behaviour) by understanding the contextual factors (institutional theory) and individual factors (organisational commitment theory) that academic staff navigate in their social and environmental spaces (social cognitive theory).

2.6 Empirical Review

This section presents an empirical review incorporating the main research problem and existing gaps resulting from past studies on organizational culture, organizational

commitment, self-efficacy, and turnover intent while showing empirical gaps that the current study seeks to fill.

2.6.1 Organizational culture and turnover intention

To manage employee career change intentions (Suryaningtyas *et al.*, 2019), organisations should study the impact of culture on withdrawal behaviour (Ali Taha *et al.*, 2016), supported by several empirical studies (Lee & Jang, 2020; Susanti & Herminingsih, 2021). For organisations to flourish in business and retain staff, organisations have to improve their internal cultural capability (Ruiz-Palomino & Martínez-Cañas, 2014). Positive perceptions of organisational culture result in elevated OCB in the form of conscientious and proactive attitudes, driving sustained staff longevity (Desselle *et al.*, 2018). Different cultural typologies have diverse effects on turnover intentions (Alvesson, 2012; Shim, 2010). Thus, organisations should develop culture as a stable resource for competitive advantage, especially in service institutions with increasing turnover.

Organizations attach significance to the culture in the workplace because the level of culture influences intentions to quit. However, empirical attempts to assess this link have proved equivocal as some studies have reported a positive relationship (Dwivedi *et al.*, 2013; Kim *et al.*, 2017), while others have stated a negative relationship. The preceding study by Bosomtwe and Obeng (2018) found an inverse linkage between organisational culture and the desire to switch teams in the Economic and Organised Crime Office (EOCO). To overcome the 3.5% turnover threat, managers at EOCO should develop a culture type that aligns the interests of both the agency and employees. While this study offered fundamental data that EOCO managers used to lower officers' desire to quit, more investigation into the casual link between

organisational culture and intent to quit is needed in the academic field contending with high job switches (Lin *et al.*, 2022) because diverse kinds of cultures are estimated on turnover intent.

A mismatch between organisational core values and employee expectations promotes intent to leave (Rawashdeh & Tamimi, 2019). To illustrate, Choi *et al.* (2014) argued that positive organisational culture is noticeably instrumental in the reduction of employee mass exodus. Indeed, Alzayed and Murshid (2017) affirm that collective managerial support as a positive organisational culture form characterised by concern, esteem, and fairness is what each employee hopes for in renewing organisational membership. Such a friendly work environment may not promote employees' intent to leave (Nandi *et al.*, 2020), as employees have a high perception of organisational culture (Elsbach & Stigliani, 2018). Extending on this, Sweeney (2018) discovered that in a non-profit organization, organisational culture was a statistically significant predictor of lower quit intentions. Yet, such findings cannot be generalized to universities due to conceptual, content, and contextual gaps, stressing the necessity to analyze the CVF cultural attributes and turnover intention in a single study, thus reiterating the focus of this study.

Empirical evidence abounds that organisational culture offers an appropriate context for employees to develop positive job attitudes and behaviours that promote low quit intentions (Meng & Berger, 2019). When employees exhibit positive attitudes and place a high value on the established culture, their desire to leave decreases. To form this organisational culture, managers should demonstrate what is apt through their actions because it shapes employee attitudes and behaviours (Krug *et al.*, 2014), as verified in earlier studies (Kumar *et al.*, 2012; Medina, 2012). According to the five-

dimensional study on job demand, innovation, communication, trust, and social cohesion cultures were linked with diminishing absenteeism and low withdrawal tendencies both at the job and organisational levels (Girma, 2019). Therefore, organisations rich in culture increase the chances of shaping employee attitudes and behaviour (Krug *et al.*, 2014). This provides some illuminative acumen on the critical role of culture in curtailing further turnover intention.

From the research literature, it can be inferred that organisational culture and quit intent are related (Nair & Sommerville, 2017). To corroborate this earlier finding, Matz *et al.* (2013) recognised organisational culture as a key job attitude that predicts turnover intent while Yeun and Han (2015) report similar results among South Korean nurses with innovative and relational as organisational culture dimensions. This verdict suggests that nurses' perceptions of work culture, branded by collaboration with one another, shape their attitudes toward their profession and influence their decision to stay (Hashmi *et al.*, 2020). However, all the above studies failed to link organisational culture to turnover intent within the education industry, a gap being addressed by the current study.

Organisational culture has a robust and profound effect on turnover intent. Research conducted within the Haggalla and Jayatilake (2017) OCAI model strongly corroborated this claim, showing that market culture and intentional turnover are related in Sri Lankan foreign-managed IT firms. Harmoniously, Khaola *et al.* (2015) found flexibility and stability as organisational culture dimensions to negatively affect turnover intent in a manufacturing company. This portentous perception of higher cultural traits corresponds with turnover intent levels (Nazneen & Bhalla, 2014).

However, these studies are limited to manufacturing settings, creating an avenue to test the same in an academic domain to shed more light on this link.

The role of organisational culture on intent to turnover still draws a lot of curiosity. In particular, Omeluzor (2018) branded organisational culture constructs of training, promotion, salary payment, and rewards as factors influencing university librarians' turnover-intent in Nigeria. The results showed that library culture affirmatively influenced the intention to leave. In this process, organisations that imbibe family-centered organisational culture in areas of welfare, promotion, and development create a belief among employees that the organisation cares for their needs (Guzeller & Celiker, 2019), abating the reasons to quit (Chan & Ao, 2019). However, this study was only limited to librarians, underscoring the need for a study covering different respondents and professions to better comprehend this affiliation.

Organizational culture provides a framework for understanding workplace turnover intent behaviour among employees. Mbah *et al.* (2018) investigated the relationship between institutional culture and turnover intentions in Nigerian SMEs, focusing on owner values, socialisation, and determination. The study found that owner values and socialisation positively influenced turnover intentions, while morale had no effect. These findings highlight the importance for SMEs to develop employee strategies that align with their values and beliefs to improve staff retention. However, the study did not directly examine the link between OCAI perspectives and job leaving, suggesting the need for further research to bridge this conceptual gap, as proposed by Ahmed and Shafiq (2014), who connect turnover intentions with the type of organisational culture adopted in specific environmental contexts.

Organisations improve the quality of their organisational culture to attract and retain talent. Habib *et al.* (2014) observed that supportive and adaptable administrative culture allows employees to work independently without feeling burdened. This finding speaks to the value of superior organisational ethos input when making stay decisions (Chatterjee *et al.*, 2018). In the health area, Khairunnisa (2021) found that strong organisational culture is associated with reduced intentions to leave and better work behaviour. Therefore, organisations should focus on effective HR onboarding to help employees understand and benefit from the organisational culture, leading to lower turnover intentions (Mbar *et al.*, 2021). Hence, a unified and sustainable cultural approach is essential for talent management, and this study serves as a reference point in the education field.

Despite empirical studies that maintain a negative correlation between organisational culture and turnover intent, there are other contrasting views on this relationship. For example, Noerchoidah (2020) research on hotel employees in Surabaya affirms that the culture does not affect turnover intent. In their empirical study among Saudi Arabian bankers, Aldhuwaihi and Shee (2015) also gave credence to the above findings. Findings indicate that clan and adhocracy, excluding market culture, significantly influenced the bankers' desire to leave. From this, it stands to reason that happier and more satisfied employees leave their jobs less frequently due to the friendlier and more dynamic work climate. Going by Haggalla and Jayatilake (2017), people make their decision to stay or leave based on their evaluation of the existing culture, justifying this study among teaching professionals.

To investigate the effect of organisational culture on turnover intent, Dwivedi *et al.* (2013) surveyed three strata consisting of 15 BPO units in India. According to the

study's findings, BPO employees were less likely to participate in withdrawal intents due to positive attachment to the industry culture, seen as open, accommodative, authentic, pro-active, autonomous, collaborative, experimental, and trusted. Further, Dwivedi *et al.* (2014) found that smaller BPOs had superior cultures compared to medium and larger BPOs when it came to invoking sustained commitment and engagement. Therefore, these results show that improved corporate culture has a real effect on commitment. The fact that these two surveys were conducted in developed economies offers a potential research direction to fill gaps in fundamental knowledge in the university setting to gauge whether the findings hold.

In another study, Kim *et al.* (2017) observed a positive association between authoritarian culture and turnover intent in South Korea. Ndife (2020) also studied the relationship between the desire to quit and organisational culture in a few private schools in Nigeria. This study concluded that there is a strong correlation between organisational culture and quitting intent. Thus, universities' management should focus on augmenting positive organizational cultures with their dimensions, mitigating intentional withdrawal.

In summary, the above extant studies demonstrate contradictions in the organisational culture and turnover-intent link, illuminating important literature and practical gaps. While current research on organisational culture has been linked to several other constructs, few studies have explicitly focused on quit intentions. More empirical research, including direct, mediation, moderation, and moderated mediation effects, is needed to better explanation for changes in turnover intention accounted for by these different effects (Saoula *et al.*, 2018) and bridge the gap between developed and developing contexts (Akanji *et al.*, 2020). Deriving from Bosomtwe and Obeng

(2018), this study seeks to quantify the culture and turnover-intention relationship in chartered universities in Uganda, with the proposed hypothesis that:

H₀₁: Organisational culture has no significant effect on turnover intention.

2.6.2 Organisational culture and organisational commitment

Of particular importance for this study are previous theoretical and extant empirical studies that laid foundation upon which organisational culture as a precursor to attaining organisational commitment can be explained (Abdullah *et al.*, 2015). Indeed, organisational culture is a vital tool in fostering and sustaining commitment in the workplace context (Adams *et al.*, 2018). An organisation can compete in the market with committed employees. To this end, organisational commitment remains a top agenda issue (Maamari & Saheb, 2018) due to the perception that employees exhibit high self-interest and little loyalty toward their employers (Nandi *et al.*, 2020), garnering significant scholarly endorsement (Sarhan *et al.*, 2020) as organisations struggle to increase employee loyalty by embracing principles and conventions that are suited for their environments and represented in their day-to-day operations (Shoaib *et al.*, 2013).

In the essence of any institution, culture embodies the deepest beliefs about work, guiding employee decisions and actions that shape organisational business and market position (Simoneaux & Stroud, 2014). Given that culture affects how people behave, commitment levels can be honed by adopting integrative and collaborative cultures that sustain human relations between the organisational members. The more employees feel connected to the organisational culture, the more inclined they are to work towards institutional intent driven by the increased commitment (Wiseman *et*

al., 2017). In this case, a positive organisational culture fosters long-term commitment and job security through employment within the organisation (Chong *et al.*, 2018).

In rigorous and competitive environment, organizational culture is a presumed to be key factor in boosting organisational commitment (Aranki *et al.*, 2019). In HEI, organisational commitment has been positively attributed to university culture (Yusuf, 2020). To form this, conducive and supportive cultures encourage the strong willingness and involvement of academic staff to participate in realising the university's goals (Yanti & Dahlan, 2017). Truly, a favourable corporate culture fosters feelings of obligation (normative commitment) while simultaneously raising the cost of quitting (continuance commitment) the entity (Pratama *et al.*, 2020). While these studies purport to link organisational culture to organisational commitment, there is little evidence to prove this claim in the Ugandan educational setting (Neelam *et al.*, 2015), paving the way for more exploration into this claim.

The foregoing explanation is consistent with past literature. Kawiana *et al.* (2018) found a positive link between bank culture and commitment. Similar conclusions were reported by Habib *et al.* (2014) after studying how corporate culture affects Pakistani employees' job satisfaction, obligation, and retention. Results indicated organisational culture as an important element impacting commitment and retention. Toward that end, operational culture and employee commitment have a solid link, yet companies with a negative culture face diminishing staff commitment and mounting interest among scholars in the educational context in developing countries (Firuzjaeyan *et al.*, 2015).

When considering organisational culture, Anttila (2015) argued that the level of organisational commitment differs based on the adopted organisational cultural

typology. Lee *et al.* (2018) opined that support cultures promoting internal integration (involvement and consistency) and external adaptation (adaptability and mission) impact on employees' affective commitment. All in all, these studies insinuate that conducive cultures fortify high levels of organisational commitment compared to those that espouse negative and weak cultures (Arifin, 2015). Therefore, given the fact that the conceptualizations of these two variables in the above studies and the current study differ, the assumed relationship and findings are baseless.

Another thorough empirical review demonstrates a connection between company culture and employee conduct (Warrick, 2017). One study applied to Jordan IT firms showed substantial and favourable correlation between IT firm culture and employee commitment (Aranki *et al.*, 2019). Ramdhani *et al.* (2017) examined previous research and developed concepts to explain how corporate culture factors affect commitment. In this regard, universities, like IT firms, should prioritise the development of welcoming and enriching cultures that influence organisational commitment (Nair & Sommerville, 2017). This study offers a valuable path in extending the study of organizational culture as a key predictor of organizational commitment in the HEIs domain in Uganda, gaining a balanced view of the effects of the unique cultural dimensions and values of this setting.

Organizational culture continues to attract extensive curiosity among scholars across different disciplines. Sarhan *et al.* (2020) identified how Jordanian hospitality culture and employees' commitment are significantly related. Additionally, the study revealed clan and hierarchical cultures as the foremost predictors of commitment compared to adhocracy culture. Keeping with this, caring and formal practices build organizational commitment, hence the need to authenticate whether the relationship Sarhan *et al.*

(2020) established is also salient in academia, clarifying the specific forms of organizational commitment that culture is likely to boost.

Organizations with conducive work cultures promote favourable work attitudes. Yamali (2018), in his explanatory survey observed that organisational culture had a favourable and considerable impact on organisational bonding. A better cultural orientation is required to increase the effects of sector attachment among construction specialists. As such, Limpanitgul *et al.* (2014) in their exploration noted that coworker support had varying impacts on organisational commitment levels of Thai flight attendants employed in different culturally oriented environments. This pattern of results suggests that once companies develop and maintain a well-accepted culture, it will influence how employees must behave in getting things done around the organization, thereby imposing employee loyalty and engagement (Nandi *et al.*, 2020).

Organisational triumph is attributed to culture (Chong *et al.*, 2018), where employees have low self-interest and high allegiance toward their employers (Nandi *et al.*, 2020). This is supported by separate findings in China (Lv *et al.*, 2022), suggesting that organisational culture wields a positive effect on industry-university cooperative behaviour built via strong professional commitment and job involvement. This was prompted by growing concerns about low organisational culture and commitment jeopardising the field's ability to produce quality and competent graduates. This indicates that when shared values and beliefs are embraced by all organisational members, that enhances their identity and attachment to the organisation (Wang & Wang, 2020). Such an analysis provides the prospect of elevating and expanding new

academic perspectives in this hypothesised connection between university culture and staff commitment in private and public educational organisations.

A reasonable body of evidence shows that much emphasis has been placed on refining organisational culture in inducing and sustaining efficacious workplace commitment (Al-Sada *et al.*, 2017; Hadian, 2017). Whereas Handoko *et al.* (2014) similarly provided the prospect of a relationship, they precisely looked at how organisational culture, work happiness, and organisational commitment affected the individual performance of professors at private university campuses in Indonesia. This study postulated that organisational culture improves performance directly or indirectly through increased commitment. It should, however, be recalled that this pattern of results points toward the possible organisational commitment mediation path, thereby providing a platform to analyse the direct link between organisational culture and organisational commitment.

The basis for corporate commitment is organisational culture. Anecdotal evidence by Carvalho *et al.* (2018) purports that favourable corporate cultures significantly and positively influence employee work attitudes. Nwibere (2013) noted that employees with a strong sense of responsibility and ownership culture exhibit relentless organisational commitment without any close supervision. Alvesson (2012) concurred that when employees are familiar with the corporate culture, they will continue to be dedicated to organisational goals. Employees who enjoy working for the company also gladly put in significant effort to achieve organisational success. Additionally, workers who enjoy their workplace's culture are more willing to put forth significant effort to achieve organizational success.

Moreover, an adverse organisational culture lowers the level of commitment (Kang *et al.*, 2015). An empirical study in the Turkish logistics industry found a positive link between all organisational cultures of Denison's model and organisational commitment to Allen and Meyer's model (Acar, 2012). Moreover, Nair and Sommerville (2017) reasoned that organisational culture had a vital role in increasing organisational commitment among Indian IT staff. In addition, Shim *et al.* (2015) disclosed that police personnel who adhered to the institutional culture had the pride to stay and play key roles in delivering the police mandate. This was attributed to the family bonding type of culture in the force (Hakim, 2015). However, the present study notes that the nature of work demands in the three sectors considered is different from the university sphere.

Organisational culture predicts organisational commitment. For example, Messner (2013), surveyed Indian IT service providers experiencing severe human capital loss in their offshore delivery factories. This study found a link between corporate culture and work commitment and recommended alteration of the firm's culture strategy design to drive high organisational commitment among service providers and reduce capital loss. In this case, attention should be paid while determining the choice of business culture, which is key to shaping values and commitment levels for the successful execution of organisational plans (Yusuf, 2020). However, this study only inferred the relationship among IT and service providers, ignoring the HEIs context, which provides a feasible path to test this interplay.

In an attempt to bolster organisational culture and commitment studies, Shurbagi (2014) found a significant correlation between organisational culture and commitment in the Libyan petroleum sector. In the field of education, Firuzjaeyan *et al.*'s (2015)

noted that organisational culture allied significantly with organisational commitment among high school teachers in Bandpey. This, in a way, implies that a conducive organisational culture hones the level of employee commitment to the organisation (Arifin, 2015). However, these case findings are limited because they could not be generalised to other contexts, stressing the role of context as a more active and dynamic element affecting cultural practises and the resultant commitment outcomes (Nilsen, 2015).

Strong cultures promote coherence, fidelity, and dedication among staff. In Egypt, El-Sayed (2021) observed a significant moral effect between organisational culture and organisational commitment. This study measured organisational culture in the areas of teamwork, communication, reward and appreciation, and training and development. The stronger the organisational culture (teamwork, communication, and appreciation) the more employees understand and support each other in the course of work (Yu *et al.*, 2022), the stronger the employee commitment will be. Yet, the affiliation emphasised by El-Sayed (2021) is a derivative based on a study that did not directly survey the link between university culture and lecturer commitment, pausing conceptual, methodological, and contextual gaps investigated in the present study.

At best, the above-extant literature purports that organisational culture and commitment are interrelated positively. Unfortunately, this is not always the case, as parallel studies on the subject say the contrary. For example, findings by Lahiry (1994) found the existence of a weak relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment, though these findings were inconclusive. Other studies have also been questioned for introducing other organisational culture aspects such as leadership styles and management strategies that are perceived as antecedents of

commitment (Mustafa *et al.*, 2016). These authors are supported by the work of Akhtar *et al.* (2013), who purport that good leadership, equipped with a good understanding of culture, can tie together high levels of organisational commitment amongst employees. Such inconsistencies may justify incorporating moderation into the model to better account for changes in turnover intention associated with self-efficacy.

Again, though it appears that there is a link between organisational culture and organisational commitment, there is still scanty comprehensive model output backing the effect that organisational culture has on organisational commitment in university settings (Nkhukhu-Orlando *et al.*, 2019), as most research on the variables has been conducted in business establishments (Lovakov, 2016). This is attributed to scholars' slow exploration of how university cultures impact staff commitment (Nkhukhu-Orlando *et al.*, 2019), making it imperative to comprehend how to remit tertiary learning environments to create a superior psychological bond between academics and universities (Lovakov, 2016) in this present empirical study.

Given this paradox, probing this link remains of considerable importance in academia and practice. In this light, (Allen & Meyer, 1996) suggested that organisational commitment is well elaborated as multi-faceted and inclusive of affective commitment, continuation commitment, and normative commitment, with specific items predicting a dissimilar and momentous portion of the variable. Still, Y. McCallum *et al.* (2014) opined that the multi-trait model is a more illustrious and inclusive measure of commitment than a single or two items. Furthermore, Allen and Meyer (1996) support studies that validate the applicability of multidimensional scales across contexts in order to gain a better understanding of each construct's

contribution to model fit. With that respect, this study evaluates how appealing culture brands can be modelled in fostering emotional attachment, with particular reference to the Ugandan academic community with low commitment (Mugizi *et al.*, 2019), hence the hypothesis that:

Ho₂: *Organisational culture has no significant effect on organisational commitment.*

2.6.3 Organisational commitment and turnover intention

Scholars have found strong evidence that organisational commitment influences intent to switch jobs (Hassan & Jagirani, 2019; Hussain *et al.*, 2020). Organisational commitment is the degree to which people are appreciated and actively involved in a certain organisation (Wang & Wang, 2020), which prevents them from looking for new job opportunities (Chordiya *et al.*, 2017). As knowledge and service-based, universities depend on the overwhelming commitment of academics to meet organisational intent (Knapp *et al.*, 2017; Nwachukwu *et al.*, 2020). In this event, it's critical for universities to ensure that staff are always psychologically attached, thus low TI (Karavardar, 2014; Nazir *et al.*, 2016). Notably, the majority of existing studies confirm the existence of a strong negative relationship between organisational commitment and TI (Ling *et al.*, 2016; Ölçer, 2015). This means that the more academic staff display organisational commitment, the less they attempt to quit their careers (Hussain *et al.*, 2020).

To date, several studies have attempted to investigate the hypothesised links between organisational commitment and turnover intentions. One such study, as highlighted by (Eskandari & Gorji, 2018), examined the link between job stress, satisfaction, and commitment of Iranian nurses. In this environment, turnover intention was negatively

correlated with organisational commitment. In another notable study, Brunetto *et al.* (2013) replicated this result in a broader comparative analysis of nurses in Australian and United States hospitals. Rubel and Kee (2015) recorded a negative relation between organisational commitment and quit intention among full-time nurses. Again, for nurses to want to stay with the facility, they must be emotionally attached to them (Zeidan, 2020). Yet, such assertions on their part provide some basis for a conclusion that the two variables are related but the relationship is inferred.

Still, low commitment promotes a high propensity to leave. Based on this, increasing an individual's organisational commitment boosts their intent to remain (Kim & Beehr, 2020). Rindu *et al.* (2020) quest to predict the affiliation between organisational commitment and turnover intention at an Indonesian hospital yielded a negative association. Labrague *et al.* (2018) also explored the echelons of the nurses' commitment and TI in the Philippines, where an inverse relationship was identified. These studies affirm that staff who develop a positive emotional bond with the organization stay longer and have better service quality (Wang *et al.*, 2022). With this, universities need to invent ways of improving staff commitment levels characterised by closer ties to the organisational vision and beliefs and, in turn, lower tendency toward TI (Wang *et al.*, 2016).

In the Ethiopian Arba Minch university, Demlie and Endris (2021) studied the impact of work-related attitudes on turnover intention among teaching professionals. The T-test and ANOVA results showed significant differences (varying effects) in the turnover intention levels based on selected sample demographics. Finally, the multiple regression results show that TI is more closely allied with AC than CC. For that, once academicians' values and goals align with those of the university, they will be

indebted to stay embodied in their dedication (Nandi *et al.*, 2020). However, Demlie and Endris' study is deceptive with regard to organisational commitment dimensions, which would add to an in-depth understanding of academics' commitment to measuring turnover intention in HEIs (Hidalgo-Peñate *et al.*, 2022).

Commitment affects turnover decisions. In a survey, (Hofhuis *et al.*, 2014) stress that organisational commitment leads to higher bonding and loyalty, confirmed by extended organisational stay. Alkadash (2020) tested a model among Palestinian academic staff and found a significant link between organisational commitment and intent to leave. In the same spirit, innovation and stability orientation cultures had significant and positive effects on staff turnover at the Technical University of Mombasa (Mutua & Simba, 2017). Similarly, Kassaw (2018)'s causal research identified factors defining turnover intent among WoliataSodo campus staff, where organisational commitment had a significant and negative impact on walk-out desire. In this way, replicating the same among academics, underscoring the impact of staff commitment on quit intent, would add to the limited research on the relationship in the Ugandan education sector (Hanaysha, 2016).

Guzeller and Celiker (2019) through a comprehensive literature review in the leisure industry, found that organisational commitment and turnover intention are moderately negatively related. Further, Kang *et al.* (2015) established that high commitment reduced the desire to leave amongst frontline staff. Also, Wong and Laschinger (2015) in a survey of frontline managers observed that job commitment and intentions to leave were negatively linked. These findings support the notion that organisational commitment forms are different, with each accounting for significant variance in turnover intent outcomes (Top *et al.*, 2015). Besides, the tourism sector, which was

studied, slightly differs from higher education, where the current study is centred using primary data.

Suárez-Albanchez *et al.* (2021) found an inverse relationship between work commitment and intent to leave among IT professionals. This was further expounded by Bachri and Solekah (2021), who observed a negative significant relationship after studying PT. BRI Syariah employees. A holistic analysis is needed to help create suitable organisational commitment for decreased turnover intention (Perreira *et al.*, 2018). To this extent, the above-specified links are simply an inference based on studies other than the one that examines how organisational commitment directly predicts the intention to leave higher education.

Although many factors contribute to employees' turnover intention, organisational commitment is the most dominant (Baskaran & Vistas, 2020). In a study focused on customer care representatives, high turnover was reported among employees with declining levels of commitment (Bonds, 2017). Relatedly, Mathieu *et al.* (2016) in their study on SMEs and large corporations found that organisational commitment predicts turnover intentions. This means that employees are highly likely to switch jobs due to declining commitment to the firm (Dias & Silva, 2016). These studies, however, focused on the antecedents of organisational commitment and turnover-intent without linking them to the academic environment.

Committed employees are highly motivated with a positive work attitude and a longer employment tenure (Rawashdeh & Tamimi, 2019). Similarly, Živković *et al.* (2021), discovered a strong significant and negative effect of affective commitment on quit decisions among Croatian logistics firms. Likewise, Yukongdi and Shrestha (2020) concurred that low emotional attachment strongly influenced the Nepal

corporate bankers' decision to depart. In essence, these findings demonstrate the potential of affective commitment to alleviate turnover intent (Chan & Ao, 2019). This, in part, contests the multi-level analysis of commitment by concentrating on a single measure and neglecting to assess the comparative efficacy of the other model elements in collectively predicting turnover intention (Hashmi *et al.*, 2020).

A study by Luz *et al.* (2018) disclosed that a high-level of commitment among employees lessens the harmful consequences of turnover-intent. For this reason, they used a case study of an IT firm in Brazil to demonstrate that desire to quit was negatively influenced by organisational commitment characterized by affective and normative domains, which is in line with Saeed *et al.* (2014), who opine that emotionally attached employees preserve their ties with the employer, finish their tasks quickly, and stay with the company for a longer time (Ibrahim & Al Falasi, 2014). Because a one-sided story only offers partial explanation, it highlights the need to replicate this experience in other contexts and segments to unmask contrasting assumptions regarding key findings, thus qualifying this research.

In their investigation of factors impacting TI among Malaysian faculty, Saraih *et al.* (2016) found academicians' desire to quit and commitment were negatively affiliated. Ahmed and Hidayat (2015) also found an inverse link between commitment and Islamia University of Bahawalpur employees' turnover. Martin and Kaufman (2013) confirmed that tridimensional commitment is negatively linked to turnover intent, implying that highly committed academic staff stay in their teaching positions (Imran *et al.*, 2017; Huber *et al.*, 2016). For this reason, academic staff possessing high commitment are willing to make sacrifices for the university to deliver its mandate, which translates into renewed institutional membership (Meyer *et al.*, 2019). Given

the situation, less is understood regarding the direct connection between the multi-scale commitment approach and TI in education, which remains essential for balanced analysis.

In extending this discourse, Widayati and Fatimah (2018) found that organisational commitment had a negative and significant effect on turnover intention among nurses. Also, Yoshikat and Sorasit (2015) in their research specified that organisational commitment had a significant negative effect on turnover intention. Analysis of these studies showed committed employees are ready to keep their employment relationship for a long period (Coffie *et al.*, 2018). To put this into perspective, this study take into cognizance that organisational commitment creates a favourable climate, facilitating one's sense of identification with an explicit line of career or organisation (Lv *et al.*, 2022), providing fruitful acumen into how one's perceptions of each individual dimension of commitment provide central frameworks that explain the decision to repudiate structured membership.

The desire to switch employer allegiance has been examined from an organisational commitment point of view. Past research by Santoso *et al.* (2018) observed that Indonesian accountants' turnover intent was negatively related to commitment. In addition, Lim *et al.* (2017) reported a negative association between organisational commitment and turnover intention among childcare centre directors in New York. Meanwhile, the current study recognised a contextual gap based on the nature of work dynamics in the two studies, presenting different roles and outcomes for academics, concurring with Zardo and Collie (2014), who observed that different contexts afford varying roles and outcomes in specific studies, hence the two scenarios must be compared.

Though most research shows that the aforementioned variables have a negative link (Gatling *et al.*, 2016), some studies report opposite results. Surprisingly, Faloye (2014) discovered positive link between organisational commitment and job switching in Nigeria. This positive correlation implies that the more committed are to their institutions, the higher their intentions are to quit. In their research, Carbery *et al.* (2003) found no link between hotel managers' commitment and intention to leave. UIndag *et al.* (2011) established no meaningful interplay between emotional commitment and the intent to leave among hotel staff. As such, the above empirical studies are inconclusive about the predictive power of organisational commitment on employees' intent to leave, setting an illuminating stage to understand this unclear path at a time when universities are rallied for national progress (Lv *et al.*, 2022).

From the extant literature above, there is a general agreement that organisational commitment is a strong determinant of individual behaviour in different corporate contexts (Nkhukhu-Orlando *et al.*, 2019), but robust research on such a relationship is still lacking in the academic sector (Hussain *et al.*, 2020), especially among African academics (Fako *et al.*, 2018). This study concentrated on universities, where academics' turnover intention has been attributed to organisational commitment reasons (Muyigwa *et al.*, 2020). Based on these arguments, the following null hypothesis was set:

H₀₃: Organisational commitment has no significant effect on turnover intention.

2.6.4 Self-efficacy and turnover intention

Turnover intentions has been connected to self-efficacy (Ozyilmaz *et al.*, 2018) in different academic domains. Employees that have high levels of self-efficacy put in a lot of effort, love what they do, and are less likely to switch institutional allegiance

because they are more dedicated, competent, and engaged in OCBs than low-self-efficacious staff (Chen & Kao, 2011; Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012). These efficacious employees are resilient and tend to stay in the organisation (Zee & Koomen, 2016), indicating that self-efficacy is negatively connected to TI (Shahpouri *et al.*, 2016; Siu *et al.*, 2015).

In the work context, Albrecht and Marty (2020) revealed that workers' self-efficacy plays a significant influence in deciding their desire to leave their current position in a variety of businesses. Furthermore, Park and Jung (2015) established that self-efficacy influenced TI through career and organisational commitment. This suggests that SE plays a role in one's commitment to his or her career and organization, thus reducing TI. Equally, a highly efficacious academic is likely to set higher goals and remain committed to them during challenging times, and such a person is less likely to quit because of the emotional attachment to the university (Zeb & Nawaz, 2016; Zee & Koomen, 2016). Low SE people, on the other hand, have less job mastery with less effort, meaning that their pleasure and dedication to organisational goals have dropped, leading them to consider leaving the company since they believe they have nothing to lose if they leave (Lewin & Sager, 2007).

To resolve the lingering TI question in the leisure sector, Soelton *et al.* (2020) determined the impact of self-efficacy, work burnout, and stress on TI among franchise restaurant waiters. Findings showed that self-efficacy negatively impacts quitters' intent to quit. This means that high self-efficacy increases the desire to stay while loss of confidence triggers symptoms of fatigue and burnout, leading to impulsive quitting and unsafe work practices among low-efficacious employees (Trew *et al.*, 2011). Self-efficacy makes employees work optimally and have a high

work ethic. This study aligned with past scholarships on self-efficacy and TI in the field of education.

Recent study (Yu *et al.*, 2020) branded self-efficacy as turnover behaviour criterion variable. With this in mind, Chami-Malaeb (2021) deliberated on the effect of two positive organisational factors: perceived supervisor support (PSS) and self-efficacy (SE) on nurses' burnout (BO), which simultaneously affect TI and the mediating role of BO among Lebanese registered nurses. His data confirmed that PSS and SE both reduce the level of BO and TI significantly. The higher the PSS and SE, the less they experienced BO. Further, nurses who are appreciative of supervisors' support displayed relatively high SE at moderate BO levels. This result opens up a possible direct link between self-efficacy and turnover intentions. Yet, such literature has not been subjected to the rigorous scrutiny applied in academic research, necessitating further studies.

To close a conspicuous gap in self-efficacy and turnover research, Khalid (2021) uncovered the impact of self-efficacy and turnover intent on perceived employability and in-role performance relationships among project managers, team leaders, and software developers working in the IT sector in Islamabad, Rawalpindi, Lahore, and Karachi. Findings affirmed that self-efficacy had a strong effect on perceived employability and TI and TI to task performance relationships. As such, highly efficacious staff alter their actions towards meeting their present performance targets and try to reduce TI by staying in the same organization. This is consistent with Chao (2019), who contends that various levels of self-efficacy significantly influence the intention to change careers in the leisure sector. Further, Khan *et al.* (2021b), and

Nnadozie *et al.* (2015) found self-efficacy resources negatively predicted quit behavior.

In a Chinese mainland setting, sources of self-efficacy among frontline employees had a negative influence on their mobility, according to Shao *et al.* (2022). As a result of the coronavirus disease in 2019, self-efficacy was investigated as a prosocial mechanism in dealing with stress and turnover-intent crippling business success (De Clercq *et al.*, 2018). Self-efficacy as a cognitive factor impacts the stay or quit decisions. Salient personal beliefs enable workers to engage in adaptive behaviours in turbulent situations, particularly high self-efficacy employees who study and understand the situations within, turning them into opportunities to be exploited, resulting in a low desire to quit (De Simone *et al.*, 2018; Şahin & Çetin, 2017). This study, based on the varied research domains, motivates the current study to extend self-efficacy casual strength in predicting turnover intentions with a parameter trend in universities.

Within SCT literature, a person's beliefs and control over situations can bolster their perceptions of quitting. To test this perspective, Mir *et al.* (2021) investigated the reasons for turnover intent among registered nurses in all Pakistan provinces with the possible impact of efficacy beliefs in the presence of burnout as a mediator in the relationship. The investigation established a negative link between self-efficacy and TI. This shows nurses who possess high self-efficacy are less likely to experience burnout and TI due to having enough confidence to cope with unforeseen work situations. Ordinarily, academics with low efficacy who cannot allocate their time appropriately to teaching, research, observing, and community service are more likely to resign as a result of stress (Albaqami, 2016). As per Stephens and Huaibing (2018),

self-efficacy is a vital tool for reducing stress and attrition among Chinese servicemen. The present study explores how academics can build individual efficacious beliefs for survival, altering their thinking and subsequent intent to quit (Bandura, 1997).

Indeed, self-efficacy has been associated with reduced turnover intent within the health milieu. In a unique case by Kim and Kang (2013), discovered that nurses' beliefs enhanced their intention to stay in the practice, though it had less predictor capacity than career plateau and embeddedness. Lee *et al.* (2012) investigated TI in South Korean hospitals among female graduate nurses. The study upheld that nurses' desire to leave was correlated with their self-efficacy at a minimal level compared to hospital set-up and pressure facets. In Italy, De Simone *et al.* (2018) observed that nurses' beliefs were key in their decision to quit nursing roles in hospitals. Similar evidence in an earlier model (Shahpouri *et al.*, 2016) showed that self-efficacy as a personal resource had a negative impact on female nurses' desire to leave nursing. More studies in other fields like education go a long way towards verifying such assertions, thereby vindicating the study.

Interestingly, Widayati and Fatimah (2018) indicate that self-efficacy had a favourable but negligible impact on the inclination to quit among nurses at Patria hospital. In keeping with this, the turnover intention will still occur despite the nurses' self-efficacy echelons. Herein, low-efficient nurses are dubious of their abilities and decide to quit, but high-self-efficacy nurses believe they can complete any assignment without difficulty anywhere. As a result, high-confidence nurses frequently consider quitting because they possess the necessary abilities and competencies to meet any job requirements (Afzal *et al.*, 2019; Şahin & Çetin, 2017). This resonates with (Chen *et*

al., 2021; Selamat & Irsan, 2019) who argue that highly efficacious people exhibit turnover behaviour more frequently compared to low-level people. All these point toward a positive link between efficacy and turnover intent from the case of casinos (Kim *et al.*, 2022) and Canadian graduate nurses (Fallatah *et al.*, 2017). This inconsistency calls for further scholarship on the direct link between self-efficacy and turnover intent in higher training institutions, allowing for universal explanations.

Although self-efficacy has been shown to predict turnover intention, how self-efficacy relates to turnover-intent in the literature is not well known. Additionally, the connection between self-efficacy beliefs and intent to quit has primarily received less research in the educational field. Besides, the present literature is neither conclusive nor exhaustive, so the contribution of new evidence will go a long way in strengthening the state of the literature regarding the affiliation and justifying the null hypothesis that:

Ho4: Self-efficacy has no significant effect on turnover intention.

2.6.5 The mediating role of organisational commitment on the relationship between organizational culture and turnover intention

The mediating effect is an essential phenomenon in hypothesised links between variables (Wang & Wang, 2020). However, many studies have a limited viewpoint and don't account for mediating effects (Islam *et al.*, 2016; Kangas *et al.*, 2018). According to MacKinnon (2012), a mediating variable transmits the effect of an independent variable to a dependent variable. Yet, inferring the true state of mediation from data remains a puzzling task for researchers (Haque & Jahid, 2016). In response to that call, organisational commitment is proposed as a mediator in the interaction between organisational culture and turnover intention. Prior studies used

organisational commitment as a mediator (Haque & Jahid, 2016) in most OB investigations because of the related qualities of an individual's identity, involvement, and connection to the organisation.

Whereas there is evidence for a direct association between organisational culture and turnover intention, there is limited evidence of any indirect relationship with mediational effects (Saoula *et al.*, 2018). The direct influence between organisational culture and turnover intention is not straightforward and may yield varying results when linked to other organisational-related outcomes (Al-Matari & Bin Omira, 2017).

Specifically, Al-Shurafat and Halim (2018) attributed variations in results to the methodology, study context, and variance in the respondents. Equally, these studies validate the concept of organisational commitment in a one-dimensional manner rather than with a multidimensional slant (Sarisik *et al.*, 2019).

Further empirical investigations on the indirect effects of organisational culture on turnover intention are needed to address the controversial results in the previous studies (Saoula *et al.*, 2018). According to Dwivedi *et al.* (2013), few studies have sought to explore organisational commitment's mediational role in the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intention. Al-dalahmeh *et al.* (2018) and Yousef (2017) add that the presence of organisational commitment provides a platform for analysing the circumstances and mechanisms of how the best organisational culture affects turnover intention.

Based on organisational commitment theory, commitment reduces turnover intention. As a result, numerous organisational commitment studies support its mediational role in varied organisational situations and study relationships. As a case in point, Sarpong *et al.* (2021) established that organisational commitment mediated the relationship

between organisational culture and employee intention to stay among staff in a Ghanaian university. Recently, Sezen-Gultekin *et al.* (2021) in Turkey found that commitment fully mediates the relationship between emotional labour and work engagement. Similarly, Tumwesigye *et al.* (2020b) in their study, reported that affective commitment is a significant mediator in the relationship between human resource management practises and the turnover intention of university employees in Uganda. In Indonesia, Adams *et al.* (2018) contend that positive organisational culture has a significant influence on work performance in the presence of organisational commitment. Akter *et al.* (2016) confirmed that job commitment perfectly mediated POS and employee performance among certified accountants.

Taken together, all the above studies provide a basis upon which organisational commitment can be used as a mediator in various contexts (Akter *et al.*, 2016). As such, organisational commitment functions as a potential mechanism in this study via which organisational culture reduces turnover intentions. However, similar studies that place a strong emphasis on the mediational role of organisational commitment in the HEI domain, on the other hand, appear to be rare and lack substantial support in the literature (Khan *et al.*, 2018). This is congruent with Saoula *et al.* (2018), who emphasised the need for broad empirical research into the function of intervening factors in studies. On this score, this study suggests that organisational culture has an indirect effect on academic staff's intention to leave via institutional commitment, thus leading to the hypothesis that:

H₀₅: Organisational commitment has no mediating effect on the link between organisational culture and turnover intention.

2.6.6 Moderating effect of self-efficacy on the link between organisational culture and organisational commitment

Self-efficacy in recent years has gained considerable attention in the organisational behaviour literature (Tierney & Farmer, 2011). Since its conception, the concept has been applied to different tasks and contexts to generate different outcomes (Bandura, 1977, 1982). In addition to the direct effect of self-efficacy on behaviour modification, literature and theory have extended its use as a moderating variable in the workplace. Extant studies (Dechawatanapaisal, 2018; Munir *et al.*, 2016) consider self-efficacy relevant in the TI studies, fulfilling a moderating role. High-efficacious people have the ability to influence and manage external circumstances based on core self-evaluations (Khalid, 2021). The moderating function of self-efficacy has also been justified by SCT. When confronted with environmental demands, people assess their ability to effectively cope with problems and, based on this assessment, develop and maintain behavioural strategies to better manage obstacles and achieve desired results (Bandura, 1997).

Although research shows that organisational culture has an effect on organisational commitment, the results are inconsistent, with strong, moderate, and weak effects. For example, Wang & Wang (2020) and Yanti and Dahlan (2017) found a positive and significant effect, while Lahiry (1994) found a weak link between organisational culture and organisational commitment. Thus, there is need to explore this link in the presence of a confounding variable. Therefore, academic staff's proactive confidence (self-efficacy) could influence their perception of organisational culture and level of commitment.

To date, little attention has been paid to examining the moderating role of self-efficacy with respect to culture and commitment in many sectors, including universities (Frazier *et al.*, 2019), as few studies justify the continued use of self-efficacy as a moderator variable in various contexts (Sar, 2016; Yu *et al.*, 2015). Organisational culture in institutions can vary and influence factors such as collaboration, autonomy, support, and recognition. When there is alignment or fit between an individual's self-efficacy and the characteristics of the organisational culture, it can impact their level of commitment to the organisation.

In particular, high self-efficacy persons, who believe in their abilities to perform well and succeed in their work, may be more resilient and adaptable in different organizational cultures. They are more likely to interpret and navigate the organizational culture in a way that aligns with their beliefs and abilities, leading to stronger organizational commitment. This implies that when there is a good match between an employee's self-efficacy and the organizational culture, the level of organizational commitment is enhanced. This aligns with Simosi (2012) who found self-efficacy to strengthen the transfer of training knowledge in achievement-oriented culture.

On the other hand, employees with low self-efficacy may struggle to cope with the demands and expectations of the organizational culture. Their lower confidence in their abilities may hinder their ability to fully engage and commit to the organization. This implies that when employees experience negative fit between their self-efficacy and the organizational culture, it undermines their confidence leading to low organizational commitment. This description fits the study of Soomro *et al.*, (2023)

who found that self-efficacy mediated between cultural factors and organizational commitment

Due to the limited research on the moderating effects of self-efficacy on the link between organisational culture and organisational commitment (Lin & Liu, 2017; Zhang *et al.*, 2017). This research intends to contribute to closing the inconsistencies found in past studies by exploring how the field of self-efficacy may influence the CVF culture facets and organisational commitment among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda. Therefore, this study hypothesises that the impact of self-efficacy moderation is expected to change the direction of the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment.

H₀₆: Self-efficacy has no significant moderating effect on the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment.

2.6.7 Moderating effect of Self-efficacy on the link between organisational culture and turnover intentions

In the organisational behaviour literature, self-efficacy is one of the most salient personality attributes (Baddou & Saraih, 2022b). As an individual attribute, self-efficacy could influence how employees respond to the work environment (culture) and their decision to stay (Otori *et al.*, 2018). Research has confirmed that individuals' perceptions of the workplace culture and their behavioural reactions to an organisation could be influenced by self-efficacy. Based on social cognitive theory (SCT), self-efficacy is expected to have an influence on turnover intention. Typically, self-efficacy may lead to different responses to organisational culture and turnover intentions arising from differences in their capabilities. In essence, highly efficacious academic staff tend to be more satisfied with their university's environment and less

likely to leave when the university offers a family-flexible culture that enables them to thrive at work compared to staff with low self-efficacy.

Empirical literature provides indirect evidence for the moderating role of self-efficacy across different contexts and conditions (Xanthopoulou *et al.*, 2007). One study (Lin & Lin, 2017) disclosed that self-efficacy lessened the impact of burnout on turnover intentions among bankers in Taiwan. The findings of this study support the idea that once employees develop a high sense of self-efficacy, especially enactive job mastery, they learn how to deal with stressful job demands and, in return, develop intentions to stay. In addition, Lin and Lin (2017) recommend future studies to explore the conditional role of self-efficacy in the formation of turnover intentions with other contextual variables (organizational culture) in the educational setting.

Reflecting on the social cognitive stance, this study opined that self-efficacy may moderate the effect of organisational culture on turnover intention, despite few studies embracing it. Most research has used self-efficacy as a predictor of organisational processes and outcomes that likely influence the outcome of the relationship (Na-Nan *et al.*, 2021). In addition, empirical studies on organisational culture, self-efficacy, and turnover intentions are in discrete form, focusing on the direct effect of self-efficacy on turnover intention (Khalid, 2021; Soelton *et al.*, 2020) and the influence of self-efficacy on organisational culture (Batubara & Wau, 2021). For instance, Albrecht and Marty (2020), De Simone *et al.* (2018) show a negative relationship, Fallatah *et al.* (2017) reported a positive link, while Caillier (2016) and Park and Jung (2015) observed a non-significant relationship between efficacy and turnover intention. In the study by Wahyono and Widodo (2021), self-efficacy played more of an indirect role than a predictive one, while Batubara and Wau (2021) reported a positive link

between self-efficacy and culture. Thus, making it difficult to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study.

Given the inconsistencies in the reviewed literature, this calls for additional research with a third variable (Otori *et al.*, 2018). This implies that the relationship between the study variables could be explained by self-efficacy. Academic staff at varied levels of self-efficacy have different perceptions of organisational culture (Lee *et al.*, 2019a) and varied competencies for survival in the environment (Amirkhanyan *et al.*, 2020). Academic staff with high self-efficacy may be less affected by existing culture since they make decisions based on their confidence (mastered experiences) and internalised social norms (Fu *et al.*, 2022). A better understanding of organisational culture enables an employee to adapt easily to the work environment and know what values and beliefs define how things are done within (Sena, 2020). Typically, organisational culture shapes an employee's behaviour, including their desire to stay (Fu *et al.*, 2022). Also, academic staff with high confidence are open to a culture of change, independent thinking, and competitiveness (Sena, 2020). Yet, staff with lower self-efficacy lack the necessary competencies to embrace the dynamics of culture that seek to alter the status quo, paving the way for their turnover intentions.

The personal efficacy of employees indirectly influences how they interpret, perceive, and approach the issue of turnover intentions. Depending on their level of self-efficacy, academic staff may either embrace or fight cultural values and beliefs aimed at improving the work environment for better retention. Habib *et al.* (2014) observed that a supportive and adaptable administrative culture creates a work atmosphere where employees function independently and without feeling unburdened. Precisely, organisational culture is expected to have a weaker impact on the turnover intention

of academic staff with high self-efficacy. Based on the above literature review, the researcher proposed that:

H₀₇: Self-efficacy has no significant moderating effect on the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intention.

2.6.8 Moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention

As aforementioned, previous research confirmed the direct relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention (Hussain *et al.*, 2020; Knapp *et al.*, 2017). This affirms that committed staff pride in organisational goals and membership creates an attachment that promotes staff retention (Wang *et al.*, 2022). Impliedly, staff who are more attached to the organisation are less inclined to turnover intention relative to their counterparts with low commitment (Nazir *et al.*, 2016; Perreira *et al.*, 2018). This finding suggests that switching jobs requires considerable time, effort, and costs to adjust to a new environment, rendering turnover intentions a risky venture (Baddou & Saraih, 2022a). However, Faloye (2014) confirmed a positive link between organisational commitment and turnover intentions in Nigeria. The contrasting results from these previous studies imply that the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention could be enhanced via a moderated effect (Baddou & Saraih, 2022a). Moderating terms may provide a better explanation of the interconnected variables that improve the direct effect. This calls for more empirical research, especially in novel cultures and circumstances, to support earlier researchers' findings (Na-Nan *et al.*, 2021).

SCT denotes that the relationship or attachment to the organization's staff can be stronger based on the degree of self-efficacy (Tuwey & Tarus, 2016). This attachment

depends on the academic staff's capacity to cope with work demands have a greater sense of pride and belonging to the university (Demir, 2020). The more academic staff display confidence, based on their degree of self-efficacy, the more they feel that they can handle work difficulties, exhibit positive attitudes (commitment), and will try to stay loyal to the organisation (Demir, 2021). So, staff's desire to quit is dependent on their self-efficacy in their institutions. Further, low self-efficacy tends to create negative emotional reactions that reduce organisational commitment and accelerate the desire to leave (Lent *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, self-efficacy is projected to influence the level of organisational commitment and turnover intention.

This assumption has been endorsed by recent studies (Obeng *et al.*, 2021) that observed a moderating role of self-efficacy in the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention among frontline employees in Ghana. Drawing on literature from the social cognitive perspective, it is proposed that self-efficacy may influence the level of organisational commitment, which in turn decreases turnover intentions (Gupta *et al.*, 2018). The efficacy of academic staff is likely to influence the kind of actions and decisions they make in the course of employment (Gupta *et al.*, 2018). Thus, the prevalence of high commitment and low intentions may be aided or hampered by the academic staff's personal efficacy ideals.

Importantly, self-efficacy plays an important role in shaping career change decision-making related to leaving or staying (Miraglia *et al.*, 2015). This suggests that in challenging situations, self-efficacious staff tend to project future success, alter their actions, and persevere in the face of obstacles (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). This personal confidence inherently enables academic staff to establish and maintain an environment where valuable relationships are likely to flourish while promoting their

commitment to their universities (Osei *et al.*, 2017). Specifically, academic staff with positive levels of efficacy accumulate greater commitment, thus reducing the risk of turnover intention (Santina *et al.*, 2020). Highly efficacious staff have a high opportunity cost due to the amount of time and effort invested, making leaving the last resort compared to low self-efficacy academic staff that could have invested relatively less time and effort in the university, which fosters a lower opportunity cost if leaving the university (Santina *et al.*, 2020). Drawing on the reviewed literature, self-efficacy is likely to moderate the effect of organisational commitment on turnover intention. Hence, hypothesising that:

H₀₈: Self-efficacy has no significant moderating effect on the link between organisational commitment and turnover intention.

2.6.9 Moderating effect of self-efficacy on the indirect relationship between organisational culture and turnover intention via organisational commitment

Although organisational culture influences work attitudes and behaviours (Kiral & Kacar, 2016; Zahed-Babelan *et al.*, 2019), such outcomes may not be effectively realised unless third factors interact with it (Edwards & Konold, 2020). Previous studies focused on direct effects between the independent and dependent variables. However, the evidence is inconclusive, as some studies failed to establish indirect effects due to the absence of confounding variables. This suggests that the direct relationship between organisational culture and turnover intention might also depend on moderating variables. As such, moderation prevails when the strength of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is contingent on a third variable (Preacher, *et al.* 2007; Hayes, 2013).

Indeed, several studies have tested moderating effects (Jyoti & Sharma, 2017; Otori *et al.*, 2018) as well as mediating effects (Mondo *et al.*, 2022; Yousef, 2017) between organisational culture and turnover intentions. However, these studies have generated varied findings (Edrees *et al.*, 2023). To address the shortcoming of simple models with indirect and interaction effects, researchers should integrate both into a moderated mediation model in order to establish a robust relationship between variables (Simiyu *et al.*, 2020; Srivastava & Agrawal, 2020).

The moderated mediation effect, as instigated by Preacher *et al.* (2007), explains how and when the given effect occurs (Patel *et al.*, 2012). In such situations, the magnitude of the mediational effect depends on the level at which the moderator projects the relationship between two latent constructs (Preacher *et al.*, 2007). Specifically, Borau *et al.* (2015); Edwards and Konold (2020) advocate that moderated mediation models holistically explain the phenomenon. Despite the benefits of moderated mediation, its application remains low as most studies are discrete, testing either indirect or contingent effects alone, casting the study findings into disrepute.

To date, there is overwhelming evidence of the continued use of conditional indirect effects in different contexts. Thus, Kozhakhmet *et al.* (2022) used a moderated mediation model to test how training and development practises improve the research productivity of academic staff in Kazakhstan universities. In Malaysia, Sharif *et al.* (2021) found that psychological ownership moderated between the indirect effect of support on intention to leave via job satisfaction. Equally, Asadullah *et al.* (2017) examined the moderated mediation outcome of equity sensitivity on interpersonal justice and organisational identification via psychological contract fulfilment among Pakistani bankers. Besides, Srivastava and Agrawal (2020) examined the mediating role of burnout and the moderating role of perceived organisational support in the

resistance to change-turnover intention relationship among managers in private organisations in India. In all these studies, the results justified the hypothesised moderated mediation effect (Patel *et al.*, 2012).

From the extensive literature on turnover intentions, there is less understanding of studies that tested conditional indirect effects, except for the Jyoti and Sharma (2017) interaction effect study in India. Thus, the indirect relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions through organisational commitment could depend on varying levels of self-efficacy (Gountas *et al.*, 2014; Rehman & Nawaz, 2018). This study hypothesises that self-efficacy is likely to influence the conditional indirect relationships between organisational culture and turnover intent via organisational commitment. Academic staff with high efficacy are likely to demonstrate acceptance of the organisational culture and feel committed to overcoming work challenges by staying. The feelings of confidence (self-efficacy) enable staff to imbibe themselves into the organisational culture, feel committed, and exhibit intentions to stay (Obeng *et al.*, 2021; Olafsen *et al.*, 2021).

In other words, the extent to which organisational commitment translates the effect of organisational culture on turnover intentions may be conditionally moderated at different levels of self-efficacy. Based on this analysis, the following null hypothesis was formulated:

H₀₉: Self-efficacy does not significantly moderate the indirect relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions via organizational commitment

2.7 Summary of Gaps in Literature Review

On the bases of various theoretical and empirical literature on organizational culture organizational commitment, self-efficacy and turnover intention, a number of knowledge gaps are identified and summarized in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Summary of Gaps

Author (s)	Hypothesis	Methodology	Context	Key Findings	Knowledge gaps identified
Bosomtwe and Obeng (2018); Haggalla and Jayatilake (2017); Mashile <i>et al.</i> (2021)	Organisational culture and turnover intention (H ₀₁)	Cross sectional Questionnaire (Harrison and Stokes) 60 responses Sample from only Office.	Ghana (Crime officers) Sri Lanka South (IT personnel) Africa (Rural university)	Organisational culture has a direct influence on turnover intention.	Inconsistent findings from strong, moderate and weak. Limited studies in the African context. Ignore the role of contextual factors in the relationship
Abouraiia and Othman (2017); Ahmad (2018); Hussain <i>et al.</i> (2020); Nandi <i>et al.</i> (2020)	Organisational commitment and turnover intention (H ₀₂)	Cross-sectional Data using SEM Proportionate stratified sampling	Saudi Arabia (Bankers) India (Hospital) Pakistan (public universities and SMEs)	Organisational commitment predicts turnover intention.	Results are inconsistent ranging from strong, moderate and weak. Limited studies in the African context
Hui <i>et al.</i> (2023); Shao <i>et al.</i> (2022); Soelton <i>et al.</i> (2020); Stephens and Huaibing (2018)	Self-efficacy and turnover intention (H ₀₃)	Data analysed using SEM Purposive sampling	South Korea (students) China (service employees) France (Franchise Restaurant)	Self-efficacy predicts turnover intention	Limited studies in the African content Contradicting findings
Aranki <i>et al.</i> (2019); Hassan and Jagirani (2019); Sarhan <i>et al.</i> (2020); Yusuf (2020)	Organisational culture and organisational commitment (H ₀₄)	Utilised Organizational Culture Index Questionnaire Applied SEM Convenience sample	Jordan (Hotel and IT firms) Indonesia (private insitutions) Pakistan (Banks)	Oganisational culture is significantly related with Organisational commitment.	-Varying results ranging from strong to moderate and weak effect -Less is known in the African context.
Eberly <i>et al.</i> (2017); Kwatampora <i>et al.</i> (2022); Xia <i>et al.</i> (2023); Yan <i>et al.</i> (2021)	Mediating role of organisational commitment (H ₀₅)	Cross-sectional Convenience sampling SEM	United States (Army) Turkey Spain Uganda (Faith institution) China (Hospital and hotels)	Commitment mediated the hypothesized relationships.	Less known of the mediating role of commitment between organisational culture and turnover intention

Dechawatanapaisal (2018); Gupta <i>et al.</i> (2018); Obeng <i>et al.</i> (2021)	Moderating effect of Self-efficacy (H ₀₆ -H ₀₈)	Questionnaire	Greece (New service employees) India (Five industries) Ghana (Hospitality) Thailand (Health)	Reinforced the moderating effect of self-efficacy in hypothesised relationships.	Little is known about the moderating effect of self-efficacy in the relationship between organisational culture, organisational commitment and turnover intention.
Kozhakhmet <i>et al.</i> (2022); Sharif <i>et al.</i> (2021)	Moderated mediation (H ₀₉)	cross-sectional Questionnaire 140 responses Purposive sampling Used SEM	Kazakhstan Iran	Supported the hypothesised moderated mediation models	Little is known about the moderated mediation effect of self-efficacy on the indirect relationship between organisational culture and turnover intention via commitment.

2.8 Conceptual Framework

The study aimed at explaining the antecedents of turnover intentions within Ugandan universities by developing a conceptual framework that identified and constructs key variables (Khan *et al.*, 2021a). The framework is based on a literature review that establishes theoretical links between variables (Tamene, 2016). A conceptual framework serves as a guide for research, bridging the gap between theory, empirical research, literature concepts, and contextual knowledge (Ngulube, 2020). To address the gaps identified, the study proposed a conceptual framework, depicted in Figure 2.1, to address the research objectives and hypotheses. Previous studies focused on direct links but ignored interactive effects such as mediation, moderation, and moderated mediation.

The holistic conceptual framework was found to be appropriate as a snap shot for testing hypotheses in addressing turnover intentions (Osanloo & Grant, 2016) by firstly examining the four (4) direct effect hypotheses (H₀₁-H₀₄), one (Rehman *et al.*) the mediating effect hypothesis (H₀₅), three (3) moderating effect hypotheses (H₀₆-H₀₈), and one (Rehman *et al.*) moderated mediation hypothesis (H₀₉). Consequently, the framework envisaged to achieve this study' general objective via combined synergetic interactions between organisational culture, organisational commitment and self-efficacy when applied jointly give a better account of turnover intention (Nilsen, 2015).

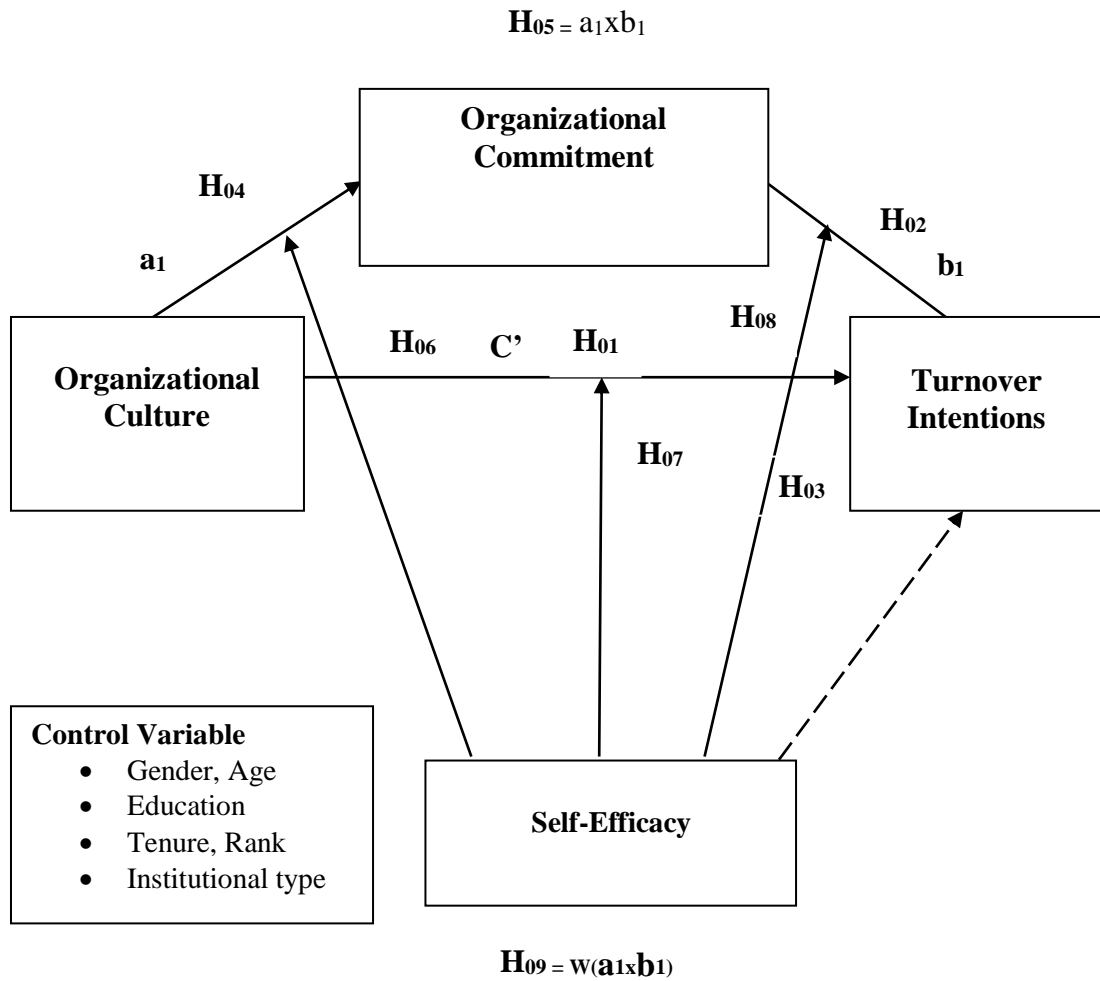


Figure 1.1: Moderated Mediation Conceptual Model 59

Source: Researcher (2022) with modification from literature view Hayes (2013, 2018); Jacobs and Roodt (2008); Cameroun and Quinn (2011); Meyer and Allen (1997); Bandura (2001)

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology used in addressing the study objectives. The chapter includes the research philosophy, design, study setting, population, sample design, procedure for collecting data, measurement of variables, reliability and validity, data processing and analysis, regression assumptions, model specification, and ethical considerations.

3.1 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy refers to how knowledge is generated and its nature (Hollister, 2020) founded on relevant epistemological and ontological beliefs (Glattfelder, 2019). Epistemology focuses on how knowledge is conceptualized, while ontology is concerned with what constitutes reality and how its existence is understood (Žukauskas *et al.*, 2018). Ideally, research is conducted with the focus of adding to knowledge (Oribhabor & Anyanwu, 2019) by providing solutions to problems or filling existing knowledge gaps (Saunders *et al.*, 2015). As a result, research advances three predominant philosophies in knowledge generation: positivism, interpretivism, and critical realism (Corry *et al.*, 2019; Creswell & Creswell, 2017), with distinct assumptions that shape the choice of the research approach, design and strategy in addressing the research problem (Mkansi & Acheampong, 2012).

This study adheres to positivism stance aligned with a hypothetical deductive model built on verifying the truth regarding the turnover-intent phenomenon (Park *et al.*, 2020). Positivism holds that there is a single reality that can be derived from participants in a dualistic and objective manner, keeping the research free from values

that could bias the findings (Žukauskas *et al.*, 2018). Because all study variables are known, positivism allows knowledge to be quantified and gained through quantitative hypothesis testing (Park *et al.*, 2020). In this regard, a deductive approach is used where general theories are identified and applied to specific situations (Saunders *et al.*, 2015). In this paradigm, inferential statistics were used to extrapolate the results to a broader population (Rittichainuwat & Rattanaphinanchai, 2015).

Referring to these reasons, this study followed a positivist approach to generate knowledge through deductive methods (Epizitone & Olugbara, 2020; Makombe, 2017) to inform the reality of organisational culture, organisational commitment, and self-efficacy on quit intentions. The research posits that positivism offers insights to yield facts and accounts for congruent with independent reality, being value-free with prioritised observation and measurement rather than subjective and instinctive explanations (Parker *et al.*, 2020). Based on logical reasoning and objectivity, review of literature and theories led to the formulation of study hypotheses so as to explain causal relationships between variables (Bahari, 2010). In this, validated measures were used to collect data from academic staff and tested to confirm the hypotheses fully or partially (Bahari, 2010).

3.2 Research Approach

Consistent with the tenets of positivism, a deductive research approach was pursued in order to address the existing social reality of turnover intentions. This is because turnover intentions can be studied objectively using a structured questionnaire with closed-ended answers, hypothesis testing, and quantitative design (Mohajan, 2020). Using quantitative procedures, organisational culture, organisational commitment, and self-efficacy were fitted into the regression model to establish their predictive strength

on turnover intention (Leedy *et al.*, 2019). Since the variables were clearly defined, quantitative data was objectively collected using a pretested questionnaire in selected Ugandan universities with the aim of establishing the relationship among variables (Disman *et al.*, 2017). The generated results were used to reject or not reject the set hypotheses (Mohajan, 2020).

3.3 Research Design

Research designs offer suitable paths and directions for gathering, analysing, and interpreting turnover-intent phenomenon data (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). In this study, an explanatory research design was applied in relation to quantitative data to test the hypotheses' correlational effects (Sujarwo *et al.*, 2018). This design explains the casual aspects of the relationship (Rahi, 2017), particularly, the effect of organisational culture, organisational commitment, and self-efficacy on turnover intention was examined. The indirect effect of organisational culture on turnover intent through organisational commitment was tested. Finally, the interactive effect of self-efficacy on the link between organisational culture, organisational commitment, and turnover intentions was analysed (Mohajan, 2020; Rahi *et al.*, 2019).

Given the study's time-bound intent, a cross-sectional design was used (Creswell & Creswell, 2017) to gather a one-time spot of data on all study variables (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016) rather than over multiple points of time (Antwi & Hamza, 2015) with scheduled follow-ups to ascertain the correlates of change over time to draw causality. This is in consonance with (Alzubi, 2018; Bajwa *et al.*, 2014), who argued that cross-sectional studies provide timely and low-cost turnover intention data from a larger sample. Also, this design allows research to draw statistical significance, which is widely applied in inferential analysis (Tarhan & Yilmaz, 2014).

3.4 Study Setting

The setting for this study was among the selected universities in Uganda. This study focused on public and private universities found in the Republic of Uganda (NCHE, 2017). The area was chosen based on the representation of major universities spread across the regions as per the government's policy on education for all, providing representative nationwide data. The selection criteria of the selected universities for the purpose of this study were guided by the study topic, focusing on those universities that have been in existence for the last 20 years since 2002. The purpose of this was to get those universities and academic staff that have been there long enough. For this, universities ought to have built a culture, are committed to service which in the 20 years is achievable. Secondly, purposive sampling was applied to select universities that had experienced turnover intention (Ndungu, 2014), which is consistent with Tumwesigye *et al.*, (2020a) who studied six universities out of 46. The list of universities in Uganda that meet the criteria are provided in Table 3.1. The public universities studied included: Makerere University, Mbarara University of Science and Technology, Kyambogo and Gulu University. In regards to private, UCU, KIU, UMU and Ndejje were studied.

3.5 Target Population

Accordingly, the target population comprised of 4,192 academics from the selected universities under Uganda's Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions (amendment) Act (2006) 8 universities. Based on the inclusion criteria in 3.4, 8 universities that were established 20 years ago and had experienced turnover intentions were considered in establishing the population of academic staff. These universities included; MUK, MUST, KYU, Gulu, UCU, KIU, UMU and Ndejje. This figure for respondents was obtained from the Ministry of Education and Sports (2020) and

employee records from selected universities and NCHE. The distribution of academic staff as per selected universities is provided in Table 3:1:

Table 3.1: Showing number of Academic Staff in the selected Universities

Name of the University	Year of establishment	University Type	No. Academic Staff
Makerere University	1922	Public	1,984
MUST	1989	Public	225
Kyambogo	2000	Public	453
Gulu	2002	Public	251
KIU	2001	Private	440
UMU	1995	Private	182
Ndejje	2000	Private	238
UCU	2000	Private	419
Total			4,192

Source: Updated HR records (2020); MoES (2020).

3.6 Sampling Size and Determination

The selection of research methodology is inextricably linked to the selection of sample size and composition (Adam, 2020). A general criterion is to have an adequate sample to create a robust study, allowing generalisation (Sarmah *et al.*, 2013). Sampling is crucial since it is impossible to survey all the academic staff at particular universities due to budgetary and time constraints (Simiyu *et al.*, 2020).

Literature suggests several ways of computing sample size, with emphasis placed on the prerequisite for adequacy that reflects the population parameters with a narrow margin of error. In this survey, Yamane's (1967) formula was used to calculate the sample size from a target population of 4,192, derived as: $n = \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2}$ Where: n = sample size, N = population size, e = margin of error

In this way, a 3% margin of error is ideal in creating sample adequacy while at the same time managing the cost of the survey due to the difficulty of obtaining the information from universities located and spread all over the country. As a rule, educational and social research provides for a 3-5% model fit acceptable margin of

error (Story & Tait, 2019). Keeping this in view, Stefanović *et al.* (2016) stated that the margin of error can be set at 0.1, 0.05, or 0.03, which are 10, 5, or 3% as a true reflection of population value. To obtain the highest degree of precision, the study adopts a 3% margin of error to compute the sample given below (Ahmad & Halim, 2017). This is consistent with Tumwesigye *et al.* (2020b) who argues that high precision safeguards against low response rate associated with studies targeting academic staff due to their busy schedules.

$$n = \frac{4,192}{1+4,192(0.03)^2} = 878$$

The calculated sample size of 878 respondents was considered large enough to support testing conditional indirect effects using process macro software (Aguirre-Urreta & Rönkkö, 2015; Uttley, 2019). The samples from each university were proportionately calculated as follows:

$$\text{Sample per university} = \frac{\text{Number of academic staff per university} \times \text{Sample size}}{\text{Total population}}$$

Table 3.2: Showing number of Academic Staff in the selected Universities

Name of the University	Year of establishment	University Type	No. Academic Staff	Sample
Makerere University	1922	Public	1,984	415
MUST	1989	Public	225	47
Kyambogo	2000	Public	453	95
Gulu	2002	Public	251	53
KIU	2001	Private	440	92
UMU	1995	Private	182	38
Ndejje	2000	Private	238	50
UCU	2000	Private	419	88
Total			4,192	878

Source: Research Data (2022).

3.7 Sampling Design and Procedure

After establishing the sample size, the study used cluster sampling method to divide the population into groups to ease data collection, management, and interpretation. Each university was taken as a cluster. The researcher selected respondents using

simple random sampling technique to select the academic staff at the university level. This method was chosen because it is the most beneficial and supportive technique in quantitative studies (Noor *et al.*, 2022) and ensures that all academic staff from different universities were equally represented in the study to minimize bias and sampling error. The selection of academic staff from each university was based on departmental staff list (where staff are housed), where staff were assigned a random number and picked using lottery method without replacement.

3.8 Unit of Analysis and Unit of Inquiry

The unit of analysis is the level at which the dependent variable was analysed. The unit of inquiry refers to the subset of the unit of analysis that provides information in any study. In this research, academic staff from the rank of professor to teaching assistant formed the unit of analysis and inquiry because turnover intention was assessed at individual level. Secondly, academic staff were well placed to explain their own actions (intention to leave) within the respective universities (Haddad & Taleb, 2016).

3.9 Data Collection Method and Instrument

For the originality of this study, primary data was collected from the target academic staff regarding their perceptions of the entire variables of interest (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013) using a structured questionnaire (Appendix 6) with definite, concrete, and pre-determined items (Gravetter & Forzano, 2018). Standardisation ensured that all respondents answered similar questions (Kothari, 2004). A questionnaire was applied as the most appropriate data collection technique that allows a large sample of data to be drawn prior to built-in quantitative analysis in a quick and timely way (Saunders *et al.*, 2012), and previous research studies (Anaam *et al.*, 2020; Mutepfa & Tapera,

2018) support the use of closed-ended scales. All the latent measures were adapted and modified to match the study setting (O'Connor, 2018).

In order to achieve comparable results and standardised measurement scales in given contexts (Anaam *et al.*, 2020), this study adapted a 7-point Likert scale for reliable results (Rahi, 2017). According to Andersson *et al.* (2020), a 7-scale has sufficient data points to provide the responses needed to perform moderated mediation. The questionnaire consists of five sections: respondents' profile, turnover intention scale, organisational culture construct, organisational commitment scale, and self-efficacy scale, following Chan and Ao's (2019) and Saunders *et al.*'s. (2012) advice.

3.10 Data Collection Procedure

As with other surveys, the study followed four distinct steps from the outset to collect robust data. Firstly, pre-piloting of questionnaire questions and structure was initiated by presenting the draft instrument to experts with experience in human resource management with the aim of making it content and context-specific. The individual experts approved the relevance of the proposed measurement items in measuring the study constructs. By doing so, layout and content were appraised to enable the respondents to interpret and complete the items easily since overly complicated instruments attract low responses (Dziuban *et al.*, 2016).

Secondly, after making some minor modifications to the draft questionnaire based on the expert feedback, a pilot test with 70 academic staff from Kabale and the Islamic University in Uganda (IUIU) was done (Johanson & Brooks, 2010) in order to improve the validity and reliability of the constructs. This pre-test confirmed that a satisfactory tool (Appendix 8) was established and ready for implementation in the current study context for more valid data (Madrigal *et al.*, 2016).

Thirdly, since human subjects (academic staff) were key respondents in this academic investigation, relevant research authorities were contacted for clearance (Segalo & Molobela, 2019). Specifically, the Moi University clearance letter (Appendix 3) was used to secure clearance from The Aids Support Organisation's Research Ethics Committee (TASO-REC-Appendix 4) and Uganda National Council of Science and Technology (UNCST-Appendix 6) permit. The UNCST permit granted the researcher permission to approach the targeted institutions. Afterwards, the researcher contacted the management of each university to receive approval of their academic staff's participation. Upon review and clearance from the responsible university officer, the researcher obtained the staff lists from the respective departments where staff are housed. With these details, the researcher contacted the respondents to fill out the questionnaire

Finally, to reach an 878-response rate from universities situated in various locations, four research assistants were recruited and trained on the general logistics and conditions connected to data collection. The team was composed of master's graduates with prior experience in research who were readily available during the survey period. Before dropping off a questionnaire, the team explained its relevance and the requirements for filling it out. To mobilise, collect, and submit filled-out questionnaires, the research team liaised with a contact person within each university. With all permission granted, data collection proceeded, with the researcher actively involved in coordinating all aspects of the research by providing guidance, making follow-ups (reminders), and facilitating the research team.

3.11 Measurement of Study Variables

Measurement is a central issue in research involving the allotment of numbers to a latent variable (Carpenter, 2018). Proper understanding of the measurement levels and scales, helps in determining the type of analysis to be performed (Carpenter, 2018) and ensures that the conventional way of reporting findings and conclusions is followed. This was facilitated by modifying the extracted measures from previous studies and contexts to fit the Ugandan educational setting (Karim & Qamruzzaman, 2020). The latent constructs were measured on a continuous scale (Jackson, 2015; Kumar, 2018).

3.11.1 Turnover intentions

The study adapted a 14 items questionnaire developed by Jacobs and Roodt (2008) to measure turnover intention. Despite, it being found appropriate in the South African university context (Mashile *et al.*, 2021), the questionnaire was subjected to exploratory factor analysis.

3.11.2 Organisational culture

The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) was adapted and modified from Cameroun and Quinn (2011). The questionnaire consists of 24 items measuring clan culture (6 items), adhocracy culture (6 items), hierarchy culture (6 items) and market culture (6 items). To ensure that an appropriate OCAI factor structure ideal for the university context is obtained, items were subjected to explanatory factor analysis.

3.11.3 Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment was measured using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) adapted and modified from Meyer and Allen (1997). The OCQ

consists of 19 items measuring affective commitment (7 items), continuance commitment (6 items) and normative commitment (6 items). These questionnaire items were subjected to factor analysis in order to create a OCQ that measures the level of commitment among academic staff (Şirin & Şirin, 2013), which translates into increased longevity.

3.11.4 Self-efficacy

Drawing on previous literature, self-efficacy was measured based on Bandura (2001) and Haddad and Taleb (2016) person's self-efficacy items of 1) judgments of one's own physiological states; 2) social persuasion; 3) role modelling and vicarious experience; and 4) enactive mastery. To obtain a relevant self-efficacy structure, fit for the Ugandan university context, these items were further subjected to factor analysis.

3.11.5 Covariates

A number of variables that would account for possible alternative explanations for the results were controlled (Bernerth & Aguinis, 2016). Consistent with previous studies (Gollagari *et al.*, 2022; Mulie & Sime, 2018b; Ngatuni & Matoka, 2020), gender, age, tenure, education level, academic rank, and institutional type helped assess the unique contributions of organisational culture, organisational commitment, and self-efficacy in explaining the variance in turnover intention, describing the study's sample, and appraising the findings' generalizability (El-Dief & El-Dief, 2019). Gender was measured as male-1 and female-2. Age was measured as: 1 = 30 years, 2 = 31–40 years, 3 = 41–50 years, 4 = 51–60 years, and 5 = > 60 years. Tenure was determined based on years: 1 = 1 year, 2 = 1–5 years, 3 = 6–10 years, 4 = 11–15 years, 5 = 16–20 years, and 6 = over 20 years. Education was classified as follows: 1 = bachelor's

degree, 2 = master's degree, and 3 = PhD. Academic rank was based on years served, while institutional type was based on whether the university was public =1 or private =2.

Table 3.3: Summary of the Measurement of the Variables

Variable	Operational Definition	Measurement Scale	Source
Turnover Intention	An academic staff's plan to leave the university	7 Point Likert, 14 items	Jacobs and Roodt (2008); Mashile <i>et al.</i> (2021)
Organisational Culture	The way of doing things	7 Point Likert, 24 items	Cameroun and Quinn (2011); Belias <i>et al.</i> , (2014).
Organisational Commitment	The individual attachment of an academic staff to the university	7 Point Likert, 19 items	Meyer and Allen (1997); Moreira and Cesário (2021)
Self-efficacy	The confidence to perform tasks	7 Point Likert, 20 items	Haddad and Taleb (2016); Kim <i>et al.</i> (2022); (Khalid, 2021).

Source: *Researcher developed from literature review (2022)*

3.12 Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire

Validity and reliability was carried out to ensure that measurement error is minimised by using quality instruments (Bolarinwa, 2015) that report accurate and consistent data findings (Wong & Laschinger, 2015). As an effort to fulfil the conditions of validity and reliability, this study adapted previous measurement scales (Andrews *et al.*, 2017; Rotenberry & Kass, 2016) that were piloted to create context-specific scales to assess the links between variables (Aravamudhan & Krishnaveni, 2016), sufficiently eliciting correct inference (Ingham-Broomfield, 2014).

3.12.1 Validity of the measurement instrument

Validity explains the degree to which a questionnaire intends to capture and measure a specific construct (Tiira & Lohi, 2014). The validity of any measure is seen when it represents the full scope of the phenomenon under investigation in a balanced manner

by performing according to the established purpose. Ideally, valid measures enable researchers to confidently draw accurate and meaningful inferences from the collected data (Knekta *et al.*, 2019). To legitimise the findings of the present study (Zohrabi, 2013), validity was considered before using the instrument (Kane, 2016) by testing for face, content, and construct validity (Masenya *et al.*, 2020).

Face validity implies that questionnaire items are relevant, explicit, understandable, and measure a particular concept (Oluwatayo, 2012). Initially, the instrument's face validity was assessed by the supervisors and human resource management experts based on their understanding of the questionnaire physical appearance, clarity, item relevancy, and adequacy to the research purpose (Brynard *et al.*, 2014).

Content validity detects whether an instrument addresses a variable holistically (Heale & Twycross, 2015) by capturing an adequate and representative set of individual items measuring a content area for generalizability (Straub *et al.*, 2004). Consistent with Mohajan (2017), the first draft questionnaire was subjected to ten experts with backgrounds in human resource development, management, organisational, and industrial psychology to detect issues that influence responses like wording, content, question ambiguity, arrangement (order), length (time) for the survey, and pertinence of items.

The study used the Content Validity Ratio (CVR) to check if the questionnaire items were relevant or not (Ayre & Scally, 2014). A CVR above .7 means the items explain the construct (Yusoff, 2019). The questionnaire was modified based on expert feedback to fit the Ugandan university context (Andrews *et al.*, 2017). The study also used simple, close-ended statements to prevent score inflation (Anaam *et al.*, 2020). Table 3.3 shows the content validity results for the specified constructs.

Table 3.4: Content Validity Results based on Expert Review

Constructs	Components	Initial Items	Relevant Items	Irrelevant Items	Law sheet CVR
Turnover Intention	Intent to leave	14	12	2	0.79
	Clan Culture	6	6	0	
Organisational Culture	Adhocracy Culture	6	6	0	0.74
	Hierarchy Culture	6	6	0	
	Market Culture	6	5	1	
	Affective Commitment	7	6	1	
Organisational Commitment	Normative Commitment	6	6	0	0.82
	Continuance Commitment	6	6	0	
	Enactive Mastery	6	5	0	
Self-efficacy	Vicarious Experience	5	5	0	0.80
	Verbal Persuasion	5	4	1	
	Physiological Arousal	4	4	0	
Total/Average		77	72	5	0.79

Source: Researcher's computation (2022)

Construct validity shows the degree to which an operational measure actually captures and assesses the true nature of a construct (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). Construct validation was enriched via a literature review and the use of existing measures (Knekta *et al.*, 2019). A pre-test on the revised instrument was administered to 70 teaching staff from Kabale and IUIU that were not part of the target population. Similarly, exploratory factor analysis was performed to identify specific underlying items that empirically measured each latent construct. The pilot results appended 8 show that all the retained questionnaire items satisfied the criteria for statistical significance and validity for confirmative factor analysis (Tyagi *et al.*, 2020).

3.12.2 Reliability of the measurement instrument

A reliability test describes the performance of adapted scales in measuring a specific construct (Yin & Wang, 2015). Reliability ensures that measurement scales produce consistent results each time they are used, enabling the replicability of research

findings (Collis & Hussey, 2013). To do this, Cronbach's alpha test was applied to a pilot sample to enhance the inter-item correlations (Taber, 2018). At pilot, .7 and above alpha indicated acceptable use of the scales (Lonial & Carter, 2015). This implies that items are considered reputable and desirable for consistency levels (Ghasemy *et al.*, 2020), as shown in the pilot results (**Appendix 8**).

3.12.3 Questionnaire pre-test

Before formally collecting final data, the questionnaire was pre-tested to establish the researchable constructs and safeguard against methodological weak spots, enabling the instrument's perfection (Hilton, 2017). A trial test of 70 respondents selected conveniently was conducted outside the sample in Kabale and IUIU (Vojvodić, 2019). Piloting offered valuable experience in survey management, where direct feedback ensured that the study instructions were clear and relevant, the questions were context-specific, and adequate time had been allowed to complete the instrument (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). To improve the validity of the chosen measures, minor revisions were applied, with some items being rephrased, reworded, rearranged, or eliminated, thus upgrading the instrument to its final usable version (Karim & Qamruzzaman, 2020). All factors followed the recommended level of 0.7 reliability. The pilot results are attached in Appendix 8.

3.13 Control for Common Methods Bias (CMB)

Potential CMB is a major concern in cross-sectional studies that rely on self-reported data (Ketokivi, 2019; Kock *et al.*, 2021). Scholars like Chang *et al.* (2020) argue that uncontrolled CMB results in type I and II errors, that jeopardise the validity and conclusions regarding the observed links between measures (Rodríguez-Ardura &

Meseguer-Artola, 2020). To mitigate CMB concern, both procedural and statistical approaches were employed (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2012).

Procedurally, the study used measures from previous studies which were subjected to piloting (Ghasemy *et al.*, 2021). After piloting, careful reconstruction of the items was done by keeping questions simple, specific and precise, avoiding double barreled items and rewording questions for academic staff to interpret and understand. Further, the study focused on interaction effects that are less contaminated by CMB (Chen & Lin, 2013). According to Chang *et al.* (2020) moderated regressions are too complex to be dominated by social desirability effects because they are not part of respondents' cognitive maps.

As a statistical remedy, Harman's single-factor test was used (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2012). Under this test, all latent variable items were entered on exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to create one common factor. Ideally, no single factor should not account for more than 50% variation in the outcome variable, demonstrating absence of CMB.

3.14 Data Preparation and Analysis

3.14.1 Data preparation

In data preparation, the quantitative data was processed and screened into a computer-readable format (Kwak & Kim, 2017). To improve data quality, several checks were instituted to ensure that the dataset produced no errors. All returned questionnaires were double-checked for completeness, consistency, and accuracy of responses based on the opening questionnaire instructions. This reduced missing data, increased the response rate, and results generalization (Field, 2018). Altogether, surveys with numerous incomplete records were discarded, while those filled out properly were

counted and coded. Coding enabled questionnaire data to be converted into useful categories for ease of capture and access during analysis (Aminu & Shariff, 2014).

Furthermore, data was scrutinised for outliers using low and high frequency counts and scatter plots to identify observations that could not fit into the normal distribution of the variables (Kwak & Kim, 2017). Outliers arise from incorrect participant responses and data entry errors. Prior to analysis, outliers related to data entry were corrected (up or down) to their correct values. Also, Mahalanobis distance (D^2) was used to detect and manage multivariate outliers.

3.14.2 Data analysis

Data analysis ensured that the raw quantitative data was processed and modelled into meaningful information for the researcher to draw dependable insights. Analysis enabled the researcher to understand the consistent pattern in the dataset in order to establish relationships among the latent variables under investigation (Zikmund *et al.*, 2013). Data analysis was accomplished by descriptive and inferential analysis using numerical scores derived from the four questionnaire scales.

3.14.2.1 Descriptive analysis

Descriptive statistics aid researchers in making predictions about the population based on the observed sample (Satake, 2015). Exploratory descriptive analysis was performed to obtain a high-level overview of the dataset (variables) and provide context (Ali & Bhaskar, 2016). In the process, data was summed up into an interpretable and presentable form in order to draw informed decisions and appropriate conclusions on data dispersion, respondent's basic qualities and how responses align with parametric assumptions (Zikmund *et al.*, 2013). SPSS v23 was

used to analyse and manipulate the raw survey data in order to test the hypotheses (Rahman & Muktadir, 2021).

3.14.2.2 Inferential analysis

Inferential procedures were used to make rational decisions about the reality of observed effects (Marshall & Jonker, 2011). Since the study was casual in nature, the hypothesis test results generalized the sample results to the entire study population (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2010). All statistics were run at $p < .05$, under correlation and regression analyses (Gogtay & Thatte, 2017). Specifically, Pearson's Product Moment correlation was used to measure and describe how the hypothesised latent variables are related (Di Corrado *et al.*, 2022).

Regression analysis which evaluates the predictive effect of each explanatory variable on the response variable was carried out. Prior to hypothesis test, multilinear model was run to determine the significance and strength of model factors in predicting turnover intent (Uyanık & Güler, 2013). Hierarchical regression and Hayes' Process Macro were used because of their capacity to determine how the predictor, mediator, and moderator predictability is improved by interactions between variables (Dondzilo *et al.*, 2016).

3.15 Statistical Model

In order to meet the requirements for moderated mediation conceptual model (59) presented in Figure 2.1, the study uses the statistical model (diagram) below to derive regression equations to test the hypotheses as part of model specification.

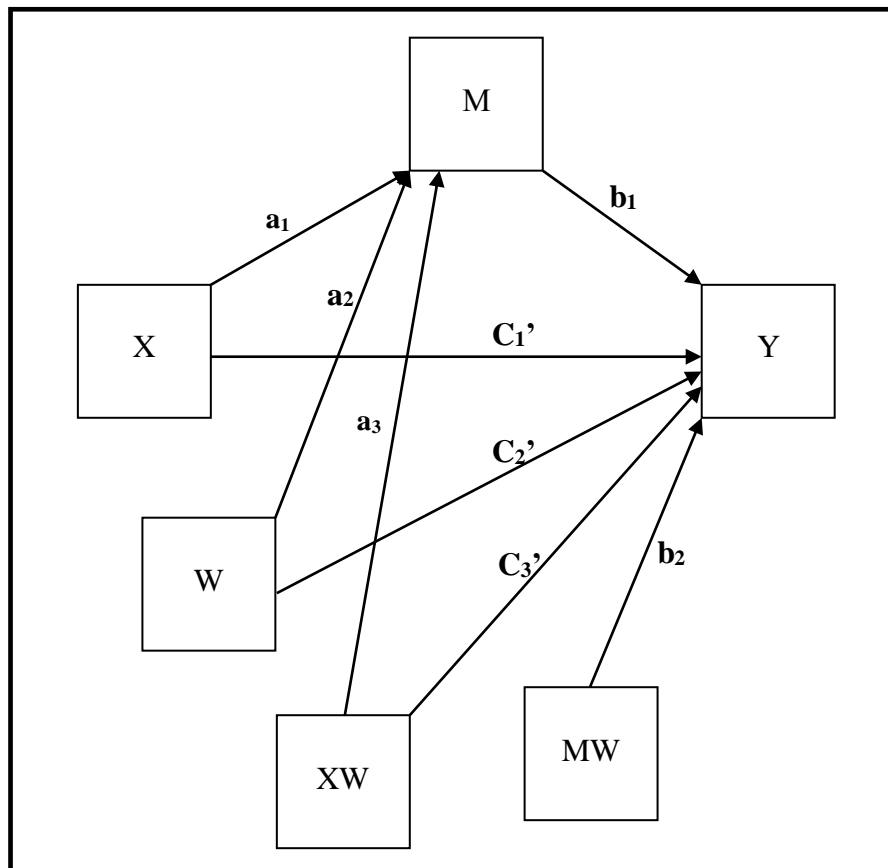


Figure 3.2: Statistical Model (59)

Source: Hayes (2018)

Note: X = Organisational Culture, Y = Turnover Intention, M = Organisational Commitment and W = Self-efficacy

3.15.1 Model specification

Model specification is the process of integrating relevant predictors into the model (Brüggemann *et al.*, 2002). To produce a fitting model, empirical literature was analysed (Garson, 2012). R was used to evaluate whether an important construct with substantive impact was omitted from the model (Hair & Sarstedt, 2021). According to Garson (2012), a robust model is arrived at by comparing different models that have a better data fit (Hair & Sarstedt, 2021). Nine hypotheses were developed and tested

using hierarchical regression analysis to understand predictors of turnover intentions (Dondzilo *et al.*, 2016).

Model 1: Direct Effects

H₀: The effect of the Control Variables on Turnover Intentions

Before testing the direct effect hypotheses, the effect of the control variables on turnover intentions (TI) was explored in Equation 3.1 below:

$$Y = \beta_0 + C + \varepsilon$$

Where:

$$TI = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Gen} + \beta_2 \text{Age} + \beta_3 \text{Educ} + \beta_4 \text{Ten} + \beta_5 \text{Rank} + \beta_6 \text{IT} + \varepsilon \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation 3.1}$$

H₀1: The effect of Organisational Culture on Turnover Intentions

This hypothesis assessed how much variation (R^2) in Turnover Intentions (TI) was accounted for by Organisational Culture (OC) while controlling for the covariates (C) as expressed in Equation 3.2 below.

$$TI = \beta_0 + C + \beta_1 \text{OC} + \varepsilon \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation 3.2}$$

H₀2: The effect of Organisational Commitment on Turnover intentions

This H₀2 tested the variance accounted for by Organisational Commitment (OCO) on Turnover intentions (TI) while controlling for the covariates (C) and Organisational culture (OC) as denoted in Equation 3.3 below:

$$TI = \beta_0 + C + \beta_1 \text{OC} + \beta_2 \text{OCO} + \varepsilon \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation 3.3}$$

H₀3: The effect of Self-efficacy on Turnover intentions

In line with H₀3, the variance in Turnover intentions (TI) explained by Self-efficacy (SE) while controlling for the effect of covariates (C), Organisational culture (OC) and Organisational commitment (OCO) as per Equation 3.4.

$$TI = \beta_0 + C + \beta_1 \text{OC} + \beta_2 \text{OCO} + \beta_3 \text{SE} + \varepsilon \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation 3.4}$$

H₀₄: The effect of Organisational Culture on Organisational Commitment

To test for H₀₄: the effect of Organisational Culture (OC) as an independent variable on Organisational Commitment (OCO) as a dependent variable, hierarchical regression analysis was performed while controlling for the effect of the covariates (C) as depicted in Equation 3.5 below:

$$OCO = \beta_0 + C + \beta_1 OC + \varepsilon \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation 3.5}$$

Model 2: Mediation Effect

H₀₅: Mediating effect of Organisational Commitment on Organisational Culture and Turnover Intentions

To achieve H₀₅, Hayes (2018) model 4 was used. Before performing mediation, MacKinnon (2012) a three-step procedure was followed (Memon *et al.*, 2018). However, when the direct path is not significant, the study must proceed to test for mediation (Zhao *et al.*, 2010). Therefore, Bootstrapping was used in establishing the significant coefficient of the mediation effect (Memon *et al.*, 2018; Preacher & Hayes, 2004). One equation (3.6) is derived from this:

$$TI = a_1 * b_1 \text{ or } c_1 - c' \text{ where } c_1 = \text{Total effect and } c' = \text{Direct effect.} \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation 3.6}$$

Model 3: Moderation effects

The moderating hypotheses were performed following the conditions set by Aiken *et al.* (1991). First, the predictor and moderator were standardized (z-scored), as advanced by (Frazier *et al.*, 2004). Second, all variables were mean centred to reduce secondary multicollinearity between the interaction term and the main effects during regression (Iacobucci *et al.*, 2017). Third, the direct effect self-efficacy on the predictor variable (in each specific path) was tested for a significant result. In addition, the interaction model should contribute significantly to greater variance than

the model without interactions. The interaction effect should be different from zero. Finally, overall models with and without interactions remain significant.

H₀₆: To determine the moderating effect of Self-efficacy (SE) on the relationship between Organisational Culture (OC) and Organisational Commitment (OCO) stated in H₀₆. The regression equation for the moderation effect stated under H₀₆ is denoted as:

$$OCO = \beta_0 + C + \beta_1 OC + \beta_2 SE + \beta_3 OC * SE + \epsilon \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation 3.7}$$

H₀₇: To establish the moderating effect of Self-efficacy (SE) on the link between Organisational Culture (OC) and Turnover intentions (TI) as per H₀₇ was achieved under the equation.

$$TI = \beta_0 + C + \beta_1 OC + \beta_2 SE + \beta_3 OC * SE + \epsilon \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation 3.8}$$

H₀₈ tested for the moderating effect of Self-efficacy (SE) on the relationship between Organisational Commitment (OCO) and Turnover intentions (TI). This moderating effect was performed following the equation below.

$$TI = \beta_0 + C + \beta_1 OCO + \beta_2 SE + \beta_3 OCO * SE + \epsilon \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation 3.9}$$

Model 4: Moderated-Mediation effect

In response to H₀₉, Equation 3.10 was used to determine the indirect effect of Organisational Culture (X) on Turnover Intentions (Y), conditional on Self-efficacy (W).

$$Y = b_0 + C + a_1 b_1 + a_3 b_1 W + a_1 b_3 W + a_3 b_3 W W = (a_1 + a_3 W) (b_1 + b_3 W) + \epsilon \dots \text{Equation 10}$$

Note:

Y=Turnover Intentions,

b₀=Constant, C=Control Variables (Gen=Gender, Age, Educ=Education, Rank=Academic Rank, Ten =Tenure, and IT=Institutional Type).

a= coefficient of a, b= coefficient of b, c= coefficient of c

X=Organisational Culture, M=Organisational Commitment, W= Self-efficacy, ε = error term

3.16 Test for Assumption of Regression

Diagnostic tests are basic guidelines that must be fulfilled for analytical procedures to function properly (Goel *et al.*, 2021). Diagnostics ensure that statistical assumptions have been met to build an unbiased, consistent, and efficient model data set for robust analysis (Flatt & Jacobs, 2019). Testing assumptions is a benchmark step to check if the study's data is fit for statistical test outcomes (Williams *et al.*, 2013). To reduce errors in hypothesis testing, assumptions of normality, linearity, multicollinearity, data independence, and homoscedasticity are discussed (Zientek *et al.*, 2016).

Normality

Before comparing variables, it is important to understand their distribution (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). This assumption was tested using the histogram, Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S), and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W). For histograms, residuals form bell-shaped curve as a sign of normality (Garson, 2012). The K-S and S-W tests examined the shape and nature of the data distribution with a skewness of $p > .05$ indicating that the data came from a normally distributed population (Flatt & Jacobs, 2019).

Linearity

The test of linearity holds that the variables under study must have a linear relationship before running the model (Melnikovas, 2018). Linearity was graphically viewed on a scatterplot providing how the observed values were clustered together (Savescu, 2015). Statistically, the Pearson correlation coefficients were used to

establish the relationship between variables (Garson, 2012). Once the data conforms to the linear notion of normality, it paves the way for multivariate analysis.

Multicollinearity

A test of collinearity checks if model predictor variables are highly intercorrelated. According to Disatnik and Sivan (2016), high collinearity makes it hard to estimate the effect of each predictor towards the explained variance in the outcome variable due to confounded standard errors of the regression coefficients that widen confidence intervals (Kim, 2019). Typically, bivariate correlation or multiple regression analyses are performed to establish the tolerance (Rodríguez-Ardura & Meseguer-Artola) and variance inflation factor (VIF). For data to qualify for further analysis, the VIF value should not exceed 4 (<4), while the TOL of 0.2 ($\geq .2$) is considered tenable (Garson, 2012). This gives the impression that intercorrelation is not a problem in the dataset since the predictive strength of each explanatory variable on the outcome variable is easy to estimate (Shrestha, 2020). But, when collinearity persists, high-VIF constructs are removed or combined to create one composite construct (Kim, 2019).

Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity requires that variances in the criterion variable remain identically distributed across all levels of the predictor variables (Klein *et al.*, 2016). By testing for homoscedasticity, valid statistical inferences for regression coefficients are produced (Yang *et al.*, 2019). The homogeneity of variance was confirmed using Levene's test (Field, 2013; Hair Jr *et al.*, 2010). To observe whether variances are stable at all levels, the Levene value should be non-significant at $p > .05$. This implies that there is equality of variance with a zero mean across all the studied variables (Garson, 2012).

Independence of errors

The test of independence of error terms was guided by the notion that residuals are non-correlated with each other (Ernst & Albers, 2017). Non-independent errors bias the coefficient estimates and reduce the regression model's predictive significance (Forstmeier *et al.*, 2017). To ensure that predictor residuals do not follow a stable pattern case by case, the Durbin-Watson (DW) test was performed. For serial correlation to be a non-issue in the dataset, the observed DW result should lie between 1.5 and 2.5 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

3.17 Summary of Statistical Tools for Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis testing is a numerical procedure used in determining whether hypotheses are supported by the study results (Ali & Bhaskar, 2016). To do this, the rational decisions on the tests conducted in respect of the direct effects (H₀₁-H₀₄) were based on the β -values, ΔR^2 , P-values ($p \leq .05$), t-statistics ($t \geq 1.96$) and F-value but for (H₀₅-H₀₈), the decision on the test was built on non-zero confidence intervals, P-values ($p \leq .05$) and t-statistics ($t \geq 1.96$) while non-zero confidence intervals were used to validate H₀₉ (Ghumiem & Alawi, 2022; Sartor & Halabi, 2015). The test statistics that guided this thesis are provided in Table 3.4.

Table 3.5: Summary of statistical tools for hypothesis testing

Hypothesis	Test Statistics	Decision point	Decision
H₀₁ : Organisational culture has no effect on turnover intentions	β , p-values, t-stat & ΔR^2	$t \geq 1.96$ & $p \leq .05$	Reject H ₀₁
H₀₂ : Organisational commitment has no effect on turnover intentions	β , p-values, t-stat & ΔR^2	$t \geq 1.96$ & $p \leq .05$	Reject H ₀₂
H₀₃ : Self efficacy has no effect on turnover intentions	β , p-values, t-stat & ΔR^2	$t \geq 1.96$ & $p \leq .05$	Reject H ₀₃
H₀₄ : Organisational culture has no effect on organisational commitment	β , p-values, t-stat & ΔR^2	$t \geq 1.96$ & $p \leq .05$	Reject H ₀₄
H₀₅ : Organisational commitment has no mediating effect on the link between organisational culture and turnover intentions	β , p-values, t-stat & ΔR^2	LLCI & ULCI (none zeros), $t \geq 1.96$ & $p \leq .05$	Reject H ₀₅
H₀₆ : Self-efficacy has no moderating effect on the link between organisational culture and organisational commitment	β , p-values, t-stat & ΔR^2	LLCI & ULCI (none zeros), $t \geq 1.96$ & $p \leq .05$	Reject H ₀₆
H₀₇ : Self-efficacy has no moderating effect on the link between organisational culture and turnover intentions	β , p-values, t-stat & ΔR^2	LLCI & ULCI (none zeros), $t \geq 1.96$ & $p \leq .05$	Reject H ₀₇
H₀₈ : Self-efficacy has no moderating effect on the link between organisational commitment and turnover intentions	β , p-values, t-stat & ΔR^2	LLCI & ULCI (none zeros), $t \geq 1.96$ & $p \leq .05$	Reject H ₀₈
H₀₉ : Self-efficacy has no moderating effect on the indirect link between organizational culture and turnover intentions through organisational commitment	β , LLCI & ULCI	LLCI & ULCI (none zeros)	Reject H ₀₉

Source: Research Data (2022)

3.18 Ethical Considerations

The current study upheld ethical protocols in balancing the two ideals of pursuing scientific knowledge and respecting respondents' rights (Neuman, 2014) in regard to administrative approval and data collection (Wallace & Sheldon, 2015). As a prerequisite, ethical clearance was obtained (Schoeman, 2019) since the academic study involved human participants (Segalo & Molobela, 2019). Approvals were

secured from School of Business and Economics, Moi University (Appendix 3), TASO-REC (Appendix 4), and UNSCT (Appendix 6) for permission to undertake research (Tomaselli & Dyll, 2018). Thereafter, the UNSCT permit was presented to relevant authorities of the target universities in order gain access to academic staff (Nortjé *et al.*, 2019).

With the clearance in place, the researcher proceeded to contact respondents through their heads of department. The participants were explicitly briefed on the study purpose and scope, use of collected data and why they were targeted (Tai, 2012). The questionnaire was sent together with the informed consent for the respondents to read before providing their responses (McLaughlin & Alfaro-Velcamp, 2015; Newman & Glass, 2014). The responses were gathered after ensuring confidentiality and legal implications (Appendix 5).

A brief cover letter assuring respondents of anonymity, confidentiality and deadline of the survey was sent along with the questionnaire (Ghumiem & Alawi, 2022). Although the data would not necessarily cause any harm to respondents if compromised, reasonable precautions was taken to protect participant privacy and personal information. In fact, no identification data or bio academic data was requested. As a measure of right to privacy, the academic staff were visited during official work hours within the university premises (Ghumiem & Alawi, 2022). Heeding this tenet, data was collected, analysed and presented objectively without any manipulations that would render the conclusions and recommendations of the study irrelevant (Masenya *et al.*, 2020). The researcher stored digital data on a password-protected computer.

3.19 Limitations of the Study

First, this research examined the relationship between organisational culture, organisational commitment, self-efficacy, and turnover intention among academic staff in universities in a developing context. By focusing on only these three determinants of turnover intention, the study's conceptual scope and reliability of findings in other developing countries are limited. Therefore, any attempts to generalise these findings to other universities in developing countries should be done with caution.

Second, the present study examined turnover intentions within only eight fully chartered universities in Uganda. Specifically, these universities were contacted based on the inclusion-exclusion criteria with operations spanning at least twenty years to establish a stable and tested organisational culture. Thus, the findings represent only such universities and cannot be generalised to other chartered and unchartered universities that have been in operation for less than twenty years.

Given that the study relied solely on data from a single source (academic staff) to test the study's hypotheses with self-reported data, the persistent problems of common method bias cannot easily be ignored. This arises either deliberately or unconsciously when academic staff employed within the same university tend to give responses that protect and promote the good image of the university. Therefore, this could limit the diversity of responses and potentially mask important variations in the data.

Further still, the study followed a cross-sectional design to provide a snapshot of turnover intention and its predictors. Whereas past turnover intention studies (Alzubi, 2018; Tumwesigye *et al.*, 2020) validated this design in offering timely data at relatively low cost, it does not capture changes that occur over time, making it

difficult to determine the directionality of relationships or causality. Consequently, it is practically impossible to obtain exact variations in turnover intention as predicted by culture, commitment, and self-efficacy.

In addition, the study deployed a quantitative approach with a structured questionnaire to collect data in the advent of Covid 19, which allows participants to answer questions quickly without thinking about them. Valid survey responses, on the other hand, depend on respondents' ability to correctly interpret each answer, and respondents are not given the opportunity to ask for clarification. Therefore, the results should be interpreted with caution since quantitative data alone may not provide a deep understanding of the context and nuances surrounding turnover intentions. This design may miss the underlying reasons, motivations, and specific circumstances that drive employees' career change decisions.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the quantitative findings presented in accordance with the objectives and hypotheses outlined in chapter one. The sample characteristics, direct relationships, mediation, moderation, and moderated mediation results of the research variables are elaborated upon.

4.1 Response Rate

The study collected 594 questionnaires from a sample of 878 university academic staff in Uganda. 578 responses met the established criteria, providing an above the mean 65% response rate common in organisational studies (Anseel *et al.*, 2010). The response rate is attributed to clearance obtained from TASO-REC and UNCST, time and research team used to deliver and collect the questionnaires, and sending out reminders. This response rate gave adequate data to establish the relationship between organisational culture, commitment, self-efficacy, and turnover-intention among academic staff in Uganda (Roberts *et al.*, 2020; Van Waeyenberg *et al.*, 2015).

Table 4.1: Response Rate of Academic staff

Distributed Questionnaires	Received Questionnaire	Usable Questionnaires	Response Rate
878	594	574	65%

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.2 Data Processing and Screening

Prior to analysis, research can mitigate data errors by properly screening and cleaning the data (Holter, 2022; Warner, 2013). As a standard practice, the 594 retained raw

datasets were subjected to detailed scrutiny to eliminate missing values, find outliers, and correct inconsistent data, providing accurate and complete factual responses (Beavers *et al.*, 2013; Carpenter, 2018).

4.2.1 Missing data analysis

Missing data is a common phenomenon in questionnaire-based studies (Tsiampalis & Panagiotakos, 2020). Missing data patterns reduce the statistical power of the sample, increases potential for biased results, and over or underestimates standard errors (Curley *et al.*, 2019). The researcher minimised the occurrence of missing data in the field by, for example, requesting respondents verify information and complete filling out the questionnaire (Curley *et al.*, 2019). Using SPSS version 23, frequencies of all items were run for missing data (Rahman & Muktadir, 2021). A review of the dataset (Table 4.2 and Appendix 9) show that item AOC7 was omitted in case 388. Equally, case 519 and 559 skipped item EM4 and case 559 ignored item EM2. Ultimately, 572 cases had non-missing values, 2 cases had 1 item missing data and 1 case had 2 items missing data.

Table 4.2: Distribution of Number of Missing Values by Case

Number of Missing Values	Number of Cases	%
0	571	99.50
1	2	0.35
2	1	0.15
Total	574	100

Source: *Research Data (2022)*

With < .05% missing data, the study sought to establish the randomness of missing data before performing analysis (Mirzaei *et al.*, 2022). The Little Missing Completely at Random (MCAR) Expectation-Maximisation (EM) test was employed to ascertain the pattern of missing data in this study. A significant p value >.05 suggests that a pattern of missing completely at random exists (Kwak & Kim, 2017). Data missingness occurred at item or construct levels. The results showed that Chi-square

=172.78, DF = 151, and Sig = .108, where the significant value of .108 indicated that the data items were MCAR. Additionally, MCAR Test on the main variables in Table 4.3 affirms that organisational commitment had 1 missing value (Chi-square = 27.3, DF = 14, Sig. =.325), while self-efficacy had 2 missing values (Chi-square = 32.98, DF = 17, Sig. =.272), all observed to be MCAR.

Table 4.3: Distribution of number of Missing Values by Variable

Sub-group	No. of Missing Values	Chi-Square	DF	Sig.
Turnover intentions	0			
Organisational Culture	0			
Organisational Commitment	1	27.250	14	0.325
Self-efficacy	2	32.976	17	0.272

Source: Research Data (2022)

Linear interpolation (Lint) was used to fill in missing observations in a dataset. This method generated robust results compared to other imputation methods (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2010; Noor *et al.*, 2015). The interpolation equation was used, and new datasets with Lint scores were generated. In the process, coded questionnaire item AOC7 was replaced with a value of 4.5, item EM4 for cases 519 and 559 was replaced with a value of 5.5, and item EM2 was replaced with a value of 4.5. "Record into different variables function" in SPSS was used to fit new values in the used scale, where the value of 4.5 became 5.0 and 5.5 became 6.0 following Noor *et al.* (2015). Only fully complete surveys with observed values were subjected to additional rigorous analysis (Kalkan *et al.*, 2018).

4.2.2 Outlier analysis

Before fitting the multiple regression model, the prevalence of univariate outliers was tested (Filzmoser *et al.*, 2014). Outliers distort the analysis, producing results that do not generalise to the sample (Mowbray *et al.*, 2019). Several statistical and graphical representations can be used to detect and manage outliers (Rousseeuw & Hubert,

2011). Initially, statistical descriptives were run to identify univariate outliers within each specific construct. These frequencies produced non-univariate outliers arising from data entry errors. Graphically, stem and leaf box plots with small circles and figures (outside the box) showed cases of outliers. The outlier cases in each single variable are projected in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Univariate Outliers Analysis Results

Variable	Number of Cases							
Turnover intentions	7	159	434	502	535	561		
Organisational Commitment	56	120	211	312	457	488		
Self-efficacy	104	136	298	466	106	568	572	
Organisational Culture	3	62	4	56	349	510	140	267

Source: Research Data (2022)

Guided by literature, univariate outliers were not deleted but transformed into normalized data in order to minimize missing data and improve statistical power (Schober *et al.*, 2021). Using the Lint method, standardised z-scores were used to isolate influential outliers under each transformed variable based on how far the standard deviation of a data point is from the mean (Schober *et al.*, 2021). A z-score in the range of $< (-)$ or $> (+)$ 2.5 was observed as an outlier (Warner, 2013), and corrected to their nearest value under each variable. During review, turnover intention was linked with 6 outliers, organisational culture had 8 outliers, organisational commitment possessed 6 outliers while self-efficacy had 7 outliers. Subsequently, outliers in each single were corrected to the nearest value. This was validated by stem and leaf univariate outlier analysis (appendix 9) displaying cleaned outliers, indicating that the present parameter estimates are not inflated.

4.2.3 Common method bias analysis

Having obtained responses from academic staff only, it was necessary to check for the presence of common method bias (CMB) to avoid bias in the validity of deductions

about the relationships between constructs (George & Pandey, 2017). Specifically, Harman's one-way test was performed to determine the most significant structure explaining the variance in the specified theoretical measures. All indicators measuring the four main variables were entered into the EFA and obtained using the principal axis factoring method. The analysis yielded 16 potential factors with eigenvalues > 1 , with total explained variance factors ranging from 21% (factor 1) to 1.3%. Based on the test results (Appendix 10), the first factor explained a threshold of 21% of the variance (less than 50%), suggesting that the current parameter estimates are robust and CMB-free (Gollagari *et al.*, 2022; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2012).

4.3 The Profile of Respondents

To gain better insights into the academic staff who provided the valuable study data, their profile characteristics were sourced and reported. The statistics in Table 4.5 detail the gender, age, education, academic rank, tenure, and institutional type of the respondents.

Based on the academic staff's gender distribution, the majority of the respondents (63.9%) were male, while 36.1% were female. This result affirms that the present sample size is gender biased. This also implies that both private and public universities are less committed to affirmative action policies through equal employment opportunity by considering both male and female staff for teaching positions. This gender description aligns with Xu (2008), who likened this discrepancy to the academic environment that offers women fewer job opportunities, limited support, and inequity in leadership positions.

With regards to respondents' age, 9.4% of respondents were aged below 30. The majority of the respondents fell into the age group of 31–40 (45.3%). Academic staff

between 41 and 50 account for 33.6% of the total sample. Senior academics aged 60 and up account for 10.5% of the total sample, while those aged 51–60 account for 1.2%. This also implies that the majority of the academic staff in the sampled universities are in their thirties, and this category of staff are more prone to turnover due to their desire to explore and experience new job challenges (Peltokorpi *et al.*, 2015). Overall, the sample perceptions of the various age groups within universities have been generalised in the present study context.

In terms of education, three educational levels (bachelors, masters, and PhD) prevail in the studied sample. More than half of the respondents hold master's degrees (55.6%), PhDs (34.7%), and bachelor's degrees (9.8%). These statistics correspond with the policy requirement for academic staff to hold a minimum qualification of a degree to teach at any university (Gollagari *et al.*, 2022). In relation to turnover, universities need to develop clear career paths in order to retain their highly trained and developed staff specialized knowledge, expertise and skills that are valuable in academia. At the same time, the validity of the result is based on the respondents' ability to interpret the questionnaires by offering objective responses.

Pertaining to the academic rank, majority of the respondents were Lecturers (42.9%) as well as Assistant lecturers (22.3%) in their respective universities. Senior lecturers constituted about 13.6% of the entire sample and 12.9% were at entry level of teaching assistants. In the upper level, Associate professor and professors were 5.9% and 2.4% respectively in the entire sample. This indicates that responses obtained cut across the different levels of the academic cadres. However, when it comes to turnover, universities are dominated by early-career employees who are more likely to leave on purpose to meet demand elsewhere.

On the length of service, majority of the respondents have served for 6–10 years 32.9%, followed by 11–15 years 28.6% and 1–5 years 19.9%. The remaining samples had worked 16–20 years (12.4%) and 20+ years (3.1%), respectively, while 2.8% had spent less than 1 year. This interpretation shows that the universities surveyed have a large set of mid-career cadres who are still seeking to establish themselves in their career fields. As such, 6-10 years does not guarantee that one will stay forever.

Regarding institutional type, 68.8% participants were drawn from public universities, while 31.2% were from private universities. This finding affirms Gollagari *et al.* (2022) study that organisational type is relevant in assessing turnover intentions. In particular, public universities offer more career opportunities and job security than private universities.

Table 4.5: Profile of respondents

Measure	Attribute	Number of respondents	Percentage
Gender	Male	367	63.9
	Female	207	36.1
	Total	574	100.0
Age	Below 30 years	54	9.4
	31-40 years	260	45.3
	41-50 years	193	33.6
	51-60 years	60	10.5
	Above 60 years	7	1.2
	Total	574	100.0
Education	Bachelor Degree	56	9.8
	Master Degree	319	55.6
	PhD	199	34.7
	Total	574	100.0
Academic Rank	Teaching Assistant	74	12.9
	Assistant Lecturer	128	22.3
	Lecturer	246	42.9
	Senior Lecturer	78	13.6
	Assoc. Professor	34	5.9
	Professor	14	2.4
	Total	574	100.0
Tenure	Less than 1	16	2.8
	1-5	114	19.9
	6-10	189	32.9
	11-15	166	28.9
	16-20	71	12.4
	Above 20 years	18	3.1
	Total	574	100.0
Institutional Type	Public	395	68.8
	Private	179	31.2
	Total	574	100.0

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.4 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis helps build high-quality measures of those constructs not directly observed and captured by observation (Tavakol & Wetzell, 2020), refining the instruments by providing evidence for the measures' construct validity (Alias *et al.*, 2021). Before running factor analysis, the suitability of the dataset for generating an adequate factor structure (factorability) was assessed (Wang *et al.*, 2015). This study used the sample-to-variable (STV) ratio method to check the factorability of the scale items (Kyriazos, 2018). The ratio is given as S/V , where S is the sample size and V is the number of variables or units measured. In this regard, the ratio of the number of

cases (10) to the number of measured variables guarantees (Rehman *et al.*) running factor analysis (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1967; Su, 2021). Using a ratio of 10:1, STV results (Table 4.6) indicate that organisational culture (OC) had 24:1, organisational commitment (OCO) had 30:1, self-efficacy (SE) had 29:1, and turnover intention (TI) had 41:1. From the results of the STV, the correlations between the four measurement scales are high, and the average number of items in each factor is >3, which supports the use of factor analysis (Su, 2021).

Table 4.6: Results of Sample-To-Variable Ratio Analysis

Scale	OC	OCO	SE	TI
No. of Measures (V)	24	19	20	14
No. of Cases (S)	574	574	574	574
Ratio (S/V)	24	30	29	41

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.4.1 Exploratory factor analysis

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) provided a snapshot of the statistical relationships of key behaviours, attitudes, and dispositions among constructs of interest (Tavakol & Wetzel, 2020; Watkins, 2018). EFA was applied to uncover the hidden patterns, factor overlaps, and general characteristics of the multi-dimensional latent constructs (Watson, 2017). With EFA, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's sphericity statistical tests were performed to identify interpretable characteristics and simplified-structure solutions.

After transforming data from variable space to factor space, sampling adequacy was set at KMO >.70, and correlations among the variables were identical with Bartlett $p < .05$ (Carpenter, 2018). To establish that the underlying latent variables were factorable, an iterated principal factor analysis (PCA) with orthogonal (varimax) rotation produced the simplest factor structure parameters with a reduced number of

items (Watson, 2017). Ideally, varimax eliminates high and low loadings, creating maximum variance across all factors that is easy to interpret (Watson, 2017).

During EFA, attention was drawn to low indicator loadings ($<.5$), acceptable loadings ($\geq .5$), cross-loadings, and strong prime indicator loadings on the given components of interest (Kyriazos, 2018). Guided by the norm set by Robinaugh and McNally (2011), factors loading below (.50) were observed as deficient and eliminated from the final factor structure. To minimise cross-loadings, PCA oblique rotation that assumes factors are related was performed to refine and arrive at a stable factor pattern (Tavakol & Wetzel, 2020). In this analysis, cross-loadings ($<.2$) after oblique rotation were discarded (Hair *et al.*, 2010).

Finally, the constructed factors were endorsed for analysis with a loading ($>.5$) and an extracted eigenvalue > 1 (Hair *et al.*, 2010). This cut-off point follows Su (2021) advice that studies with 100 or more sample cases with .5 and above indicator loading are ideal for performing analysis. Consequently, 574 cases with .5 loadings and eigenvalues >1 that are perceived as acceptable in performing EFA were adapted. The test factors that met this criterion suitably represented the proposed constructs (Watson, 2017).

4.4.1.1 Exploratory factor analysis for turnover intention

Principal component extraction with varimax rotation was performed on 14 turnover intention items. As depicted in Table 4.7, the KMO sampling adequacy value of .925 showed that the distributed values were suitable for EFA. The Bartlett's test of sphericity (Chi-Square) was significant (2731.40, $df = 36$, $p = .000$). The PCA results revealed the presence of only one component with a 5.23 eigenvalue, explaining the 58.1% variance in turnover intention.

Table 4.7: PCA Factor Loadings Results for Turnover Intention

		Rotated Component Matrix	
Code	Items	Component	
		Intention to Leave	
TI1	I am planning to look for a new job outside of the education sector.	0.725	
TI3	Lately, I have taken an interest in job offers in the newspaper.	0.721	
TI5	I don't think I will spend my entire career with this university.	0.714	
TI6	I am keenly searching for an alternative job at another university.	0.818	
TI7	I frequently consider working at another university.	0.757	
TI8	I think a lot about leaving the university.	0.747	
TI9	In the next few years, I will leave this university	0.799	
TI10	I will leave my job as soon as I get another job.	0.826	
TI16	I am most certainly going to look for a new job in the very near future.	0.741	
Eigen Values		5.226	
% of Variance		58.1	
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis			
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.			
a. No Rotation.			
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy =.925			
Bartlett's test for Sphericity: Approx. Chi-Square =2731.401, df =36, Sig. = .000			

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.4.1.2 Exploratory factor analysis for organisational culture

Organisational culture was measured using four dimensions (Table 4.8). The KMO sampling adequacy value of .874 showed that the distributed values were acceptable for EFA. The Barlett's test of sphericity (Chi-Square) was significant (1856.45, df = 45, p =.000). The PCA indicated the presence of four components with eigenvalues > 1, accounting for 70.89% of the variance in organisational culture. Comparatively, clan contributed 43.15%, followed by adhocracy (10.73%), hierarchy (9.80%), and market culture, which emerged as the least predictor (7.21%) of organisational culture.

Table 4.8: PCA Factor Loadings Results for Organisational Culture

Rotated Component Matrix					
Code	Items	Component			
		Clan Culture	Adhocracy Culture	Hierarchy Culture	Market Culture
CC2	The academic staff at my university share a lot of things in common.	0.837			
CC3	My university emphasises a high degree of cohesion among staff in achieving the university mission.	0.688			
CC4	Academic staff in our university exchange ideas freely and openly with each other.	0.658			
AC2	My university adopts entrepreneurial business practises in its way of operation.		0.756		
AC3	My university's management is considered an innovator and risk-taker.		0.775		
HC3	My university enforces policies and procedures.			0.853	
HC6	My university conforms to the necessary laws for employment stability.			0.781	
MC3	My university emphasizes competition as a means of measuring the achievement of its mission.				0.666
MC4	Academic staff share a common orientation towards the university's vision and mission.				0.658
MC6	My university gains competitiveness in the marketplace through tailor made academic programmes.				0.828
Eigen Values		3.176	2.222	2.036	1.611
% of Variance		43.153	10.725	9.797	7.211
Cumulative %		43.153	53.878	63.676	70.887
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis					
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.					
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.					
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy = .874					
Bartlett's test for Sphericity: Approx. Chi-Square =1856.454, df =45, Sig. =.000					
<i>Source: Research Data (2022)</i>					

4.4.1.3 Exploratory factor analysis for organisational commitment

EFA assessed the 19 items measuring organisational commitment. Using the Varimax rotation method, 15 items were retained to measure the latent construct of organisational commitment. Items NOC 1 and 2 were discarded for cross-loading on

both affective and continuance commitment. AOC3 was dropped due to low loading. NOC4 overlapped. All the 15 items loaded above .5.

The KMO sampling adequacy value of .907 showed that the distributed values were adequate for EFA. The Barlett's test of sphericity (Chi-Square) was significant (4447.94, $df = 105$, $p = .000$). The PCA in Table 4.9 revealed the existence of three components with eigenvalues > 1 , explaining 65.5% of the total variance in organisational commitment. Comparatively, affective commitment explained up to 39.54%, followed by normative commitment (19.14%), and continuance commitment accounted for 6.83 percent of the total variance in organisational commitment.

Table 4.9: PCA Factor loadings Results for Organisational Commitment

		Rotated Component Matrix		
Code	Items	Component		
		Affective	Normative	Continuance
AOC1	I am very happy to be a member of this university.	0.786		
AOC2	I enjoy providing relevant information about my university to people outside it.	0.760		
AOC4	I am part of the family of this university.	0.764		
AOC5	I feel emotionally attached to this university.	0.782		
AOC6	This university has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	0.798		
AOC7	I feel a strong sense of belonging in this university.	0.803		
NOC3	I would feel guilty if I left this university now.		0.709	
NOC5	I would not leave my university right now because of my sense of obligation to it.		0.709	
NOC6	I owe a great deal to this university.		0.591	
COC1	I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job at this university without having another one lined up			0.632
COC2	It would be very hard for me to leave my job at this university right now even if I wanted to.			0.774
COC3	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I left this university.			0.799
COC4	Right now, staying on in my job at this university is a matter of necessity.			0.766
COC5	I believe there are too few options to consider leaving this university.			0.781
COC6	It would be too costly for me to leave this university right now.			0.735
Eigen Values		5.931	2.870	1.025
% of Variance		35.578	15.628	9.768
Cumulative %		35.578	58.674	65.506
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis				
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.				
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.				
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy =.907				
Bartlett's test for Sphericity: Approx. Chi-Square =4447.935, df=105, Sig.= .000				

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.4.1.4 Exploratory factor analysis for self-efficacy

EFA was conducted on pre-selected self-efficacy measures. After dropping items with minimal loading and those that overlapped, twelve (12) items were extracted (Carpenter, 2018). The KMO sampling adequacy value of .792 showed that the distributed values were sufficient to run EFA. The Bartlett's test of sphericity (Chi-Square) was significant (3323.92, df = 66, p =.000). The PCA revealed the presence of four components with eigenvalues > 1, explaining 75.38% of the total variance in

self-efficacy, as provided in Table 4.10. From this data, enactive mastery was explained (32.98%), followed by vicarious experience (18.34%), verbal persuasion (14.42%), and physiological arousal (9.65%).

Table 4.10: PCA Factor Loadings Results for Self-efficacy

		Rotated Component Matrix			
Code	Items	Component			
		Enactive Mastery	Vicarious Experience	Verbal Persuasion	Physiological Arousal
EM1	I effectively teach courses in my area of specialization.	0.803			
EM2	My experience has helped me become a better facilitator.	0.858			
EM3	My academic experience has improved my teaching style.	0.843			
VE1	I have a career mentor		0.896		
VE2	I try to model my behaviour after my mentor		0.928		
VE3	I admire my mentor's ability to motivate others		0.971		
VE5	I use approaches of my mentors to execute tasks		0.776		
VP1	My peers often encourage me to execute my job tasks.			0.757	
VP3	My family members often encourage me to execute my job tasks.			0.809	
VP4	My friends often encourage me to execute my job tasks.			0.861	
PA2	My mental state is fit for the execution of my job tasks.				0.867
PA3	My emotional state is fit for the execution of my job tasks.				0.881
Eigen Values		3.176	2.222	2.036	1.611
% of Variance		26.468	18.514	16.969	13.426
Cumulative %		26.468	44.982	61.950	75.377
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis					
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.					
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.					
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy = .792					
Bartlett's test for Sphericity: Approx. Chi-Square =3323.918, df =66, Sig. =.000					

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.5 Construct Reliability

Scholars use the generalizability of the research findings to guarantee the reliability of the measurement scales (Lancsar & Swait, 2014), validated using earlier scales that were pre-tested to reduce measurement error (Dziuban *et al.*, 2016). However, the

present findings are limited in their generalizability due to the absence of locally validated measurement scales since the measures used are from different industries and contexts (Skelton *et al.*, 2020). Thus, testing reliability with academic staff under specific conditions improves internal consistency estimates of the scales for robust findings (Sobaih *et al.*, 2022).

The Cronbach's alpha measure, ranging between 0 for unrelated items and 1 for perfectly correlated items, assisted in establishing the internal consistency of organisational culture, organisational commitment, self-efficacy, and turnover intent measurement scales (Taber, 2018). During the pilot, items with an alpha value $>.6$ met an acceptable reliability estimate, while at the final analysis, items with α coefficient of $.7$ to $.95$ were endorsed as desirably reliable (O'Connor, 2018). Thus, the item test results presented below are those that reliably measure the same construct (Koo & Li, 2016).

4.5.1 Reliability analysis for turnover intention scale

Turnover intention as a unidimensional variable yielded $\alpha .91$. Each construct item offers a chance to increase the final Cronbach's alpha value if deleted (CAID). The Correlated Item-Total Correlation (CI-TC) column shows how much each item correlates with the overall questionnaire score. Correlations $< r .30$ indicate that the item is misplaced and should be deleted. The CAID column indicates the score improvement once an item is removed. Table 4.11 shows that all CI-TC values meet the threshold of $.3$, and the CAID values indicate that all 9 items had Cronbach's alpha below $.91$, implying that the items measure the underlying variable (Patten & Newhart, 2017).

Table 4.11: Reliability Analysis Results for Turnover Intention

Code	Items	CI-TC	CAID	(α)
TI1	I am planning to look for a new job outside to the education sector.	.651	.901	0.909
TI3	Lately, I have taken an interest in job offers in the newspaper	.644	.902	
TI5	I don't think I will spend my entire career with this university.	.635	.902	
TI6	I am keenly searching for an alternative job in another university.	.753	.894	
TI7	I frequently consider working in another university.	.680	.899	
TI8	I think a lot about leaving the university.	.669	.900	
TI9	In the next few years, I will leave the university	.731	.896	
TI10	I will leave my job as soon as I get another job.	.764	.893	
TI16	I am most certainly going to look for a new job in the very near future	.667	.900	

Notes: CI-TC=Corrected Item-Total Correlation, CAID=Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted * = CI-TC < .30

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.5.2 Reliability analysis for organisational culture scale

Organisational culture was operationalized using four dimensions with 10 EFA items. In verifying the robustness of the organisational culture construct, Cronbach's α coefficient and item-test total correlation coefficients were calculated (Yildirim, 2021). Going by the principle of Cronbach's α , if an item is deleted and the correlations column for any item has $r < .30$, it indicates that the item does not belong on the scale, thus threatening reliability (Hutchinson & Johnston, 2004). In Table 4.12, all 10 elements were retained since the $r .4$ is $> r.30$ and since no item would increase the alpha beyond .85. This indicates all items are trustworthy (Cennet, 2021).

Table 4.12: Reliability Analysis Results for Organisational Culture

Code	Items	CI-TC	CAID	(α)
CC3	The academic staff are bound together by the university's values and customs.	.485	.844	0.852
CC2	The academic staff at my university share a lot of things in common.	.588	.835	
CC4	My university emphasizes a high degree of cohesion among staff in achieving the university's mission.	.549	.838	
AC3	My university management is considered as an innovator and risk-taker.	.573	.836	
AC2	My university adopts entrepreneurial business practices in its way of operation.	.544	.839	
HC3	My university enforces policies and procedures.	.556	.838	
HC6	My university conforms to the necessary laws for employment stability.	.585	.835	
MC6	My university gains competitiveness in the marketplace through tailor-made academic programs.	.610	.833	
MC3	My university emphasises competition as a means of measuring the achievement of its mission.	.610	.833	
MC4	Academic staff share a common orientation towards the university's vision and mission.	.444	.847	

Notes: CI-TC=Corrected Item-Total Correlation, CAID=Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted * = CI-TC < .30

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.5.3 Reliability for organisational commitment scale

The reliability of the three organisational commitment domains of the EFA was also examined. Table 4.13 shows Cronbach's α .881 for 15 items. The examination of results shows item-total correlation statistics with $r > .3$ and Cronbach's alpha if an item is deleted is .881 is good for analysis (Amirrudin *et al.*, 2021). From the analysis, all the extracted items are reliable.

Table 4.13: Reliability Analysis Results for Organisational Commitment

Code	Items	CI-TC	CAID	(α)
AOC1	I am very happy to be a member of this university.	.544	.873	0.881
AOC2	I enjoy providing relevant information about my university to people outside it.	.365	.880	
AOC4	I am part of the family of this university.	.516	.874	
AOC5	I feel emotionally attached to this university.	.580	.872	
AOC6	This university has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.590	.872	
AOC7	I feel a strong sense of belonging in this university.	.615	.871	
NOC3	I would feel guilty if I left this university now.	.610	.870	
NOC5	I would not leave my university right now because of my sense of obligation to it.	.607	.870	
NOC6	I owe a great deal to this university.	.658	.868	
COC1	I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job at this university without having another one lined up	.368	.881	
COC2	It would be very hard for me to leave my job at this university right now even if I wanted to.	.591	.871	
COC3	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I left this university.	.598	.870	
COC4	Right now, staying on in my job at this university is a matter of necessity.	.467	.877	
COC5	I believe there are too few options to consider leaving this university.	.494	.875	
COC6	It would be too costly for me to leave this university right now.	.564	.873	

Notes: CI-TC=Corrected Item-Total Correlation, CAID=Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted * = CI-TC < .30

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.5.4 Reliability for self-efficacy scale

In obtaining significant reliability for the 12 items under the four components that measure self-efficacy, the total-item correlations were observed to have an effect on the total score. At .806 alpha, the low correlation of .290* for item VP1 implied that this particular response correlates with the total score at lower $r < .3$ (Tavakol &

Dennick, 2012), thereby compromising reliability. By removing this item, the scale alpha remained at .806, thus subjecting the item to confirmatory factor analysis to establish its composite reliability. The results are presented in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14: Reliability Analysis Results for Self-efficacy

Code	Items	CI-TC	CAID	(α)
EM1	I effectively teach courses in my area of specialization.	.426	.795	0.806
EM2	My experience has helped me become a better facilitator.	.427	.796	
EM3	My academic experience has improved my teaching style.	.426	.796	
VE1	I have a career mentor.	.609	.776	
VE2	I try to model my behaviour after my mentor.	.690	.765	
VE3	I admire my mentor's ability to motivate others.	.668	.768	
VE5	I use approaches of my mentors to execute tasks.	.579	.780	
VP1	My peers often encourage me to execute my job tasks.	.290*	.806	
VP3	My family members often encourage me to execute my job tasks.	.322	.804	
VP4	My friends often encourage me to execute my job tasks.	.340	.802	
PA2	My mental state is fit for the execution of my job tasks.	.307	.803	
PA3	My emotional state is fit for the execution of my job tasks.	.325	.802	

*Notes: CI-TC=Corrected Item-Total Correlation, CAID=Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted * = CI-TC <.30*

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.5.5 Summary of the construct reliability

A reliability test was done on the observed variables after EFA. Organisational culture had 10 items ($\alpha =.85$), organisational commitment with 15 items ($\alpha =.88$), Self-efficacy produced 12 items ($\alpha=.81$), and turnover intention extracted 9 items ($\alpha=.91$). Table 4.15 shows the summary results of the study's variable measurement scales with their corresponding Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach's alpha averaged at .86 which is $> .7$ specified threshold (Taber, 2018), implying that data was collected using reliable scales.

Table 4.15: Summary of Construct Reliability Results

Construct	Pilot Study		Main Study	
	No. of Items	Alpha (α)	Retained Items	Alpha (α)
Turnover Intention	14	0.88	9	0.91
Organisational Culture	24	0.93	10	0.85
Organisational Commitment	19	0.76	15	0.88
Self-efficacy	20	0.93	12	0.81
Total/Average	77	0.88	46	0.86

Source: *Research y Data (2022)*

4.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The measurement items after EFA were validated with confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using AMOS 24 software. A CFA was performed to evaluate the model fit of the study data. This entailed loading all the EFA-extracted items into their respective constructs and establishing multi-dimensional links between variables in order to confirm the model's fitness (Ali & Mehreen, 2018). To justify the model's fitness, conventional fit indices were improved (by deleting low-loaded items) to meet the acceptable statistic threshold (Fosnacht *et al.*, 2019). Specifically, the Chi-square (χ^2) values fall between 2.0 and 9.0 at $p > .05$, $CMINDF \leq 3.0$, CFI, GFI, AGFI, IFI, RFI, and TLI values higher than .90 while RMSEA value $< .08$ produce a good fit between model and data (Ghumiem *et al.*, 2023; Janse van Rensburg *et al.*, 2017; Uğural *et al.*, 2020).

In addition, the model's fitness was evaluated on reliability and validity. The researcher used the indicator loadings of retained items to establish the average extracted variance (AVE) value $> .5$ that was used to confirm models' convergent validity (CV). Given the model had four variables, discriminant validity (Hatlevik) was computed using the Fornell and Larcker method, where the AVE square root coefficient should be greater than the squared correlation estimates of the constructs in the correlation matrix (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In regards to reliability, the

composite reliability (CR) at the .7 cut-off threshold for adequate fit was followed (Hair *et al.*, 2019).

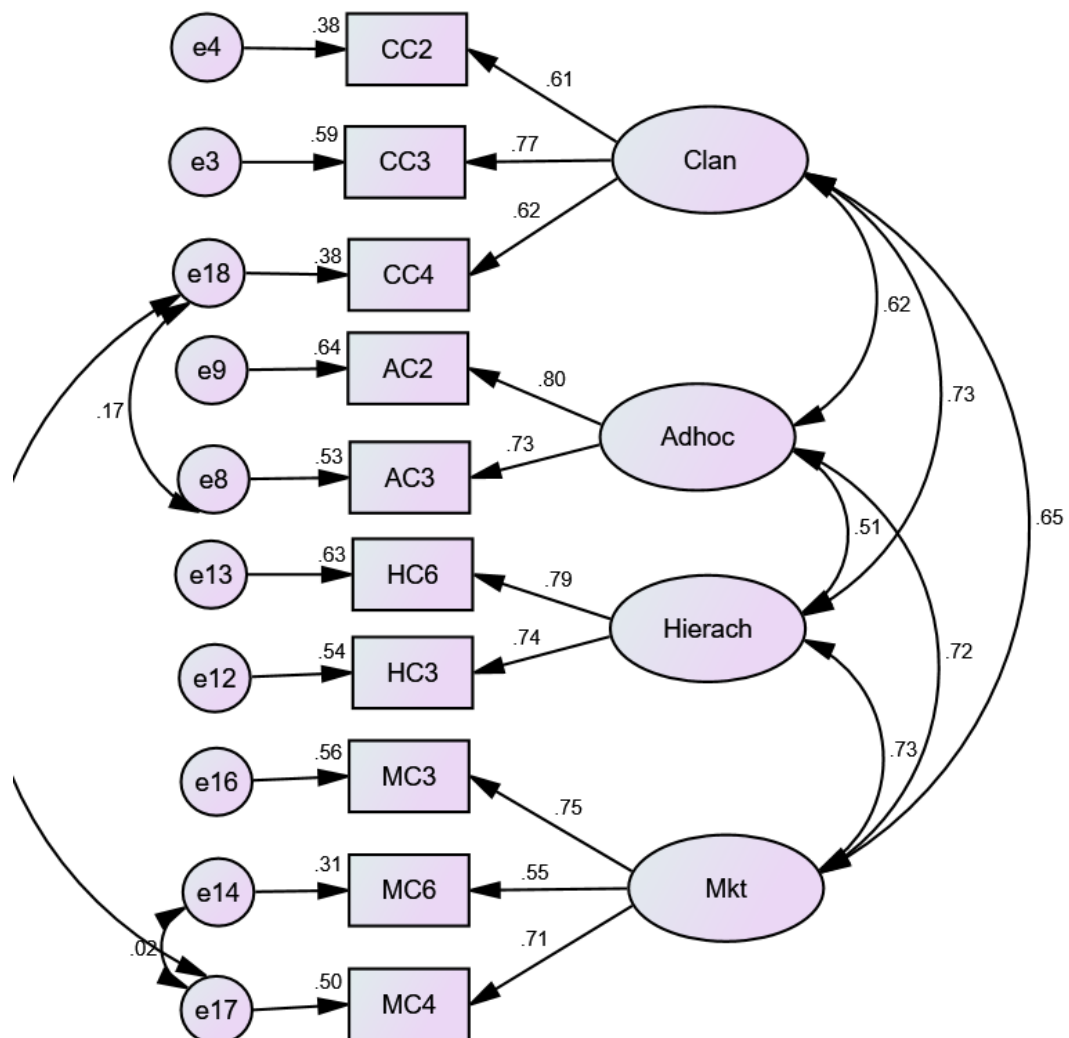
4.6.1 CFA for organizational culture

Consistent with Table 4.8, EFA extracted a four-factor structure measuring the latent construct of organisational culture. The scale was subjected to CFA in order to confirm the specific organisational culture factor structure. All 10 items were retained after altering modification indices to ensure the data fit the hypothesised model (Kyriazos, 2018). The model displayed in Figure 4.1 confirms that organisational culture is sufficiently measured by these four components.

The model Chi-square value of 43.427 with 26 df at $p = .017$ indicated a good model fit was established. The other statistical fit indices also showed the model was robust, with (CMIN/DF) = 1.670 and RMSEA = .034. All other indices, including GFI, AGFI, NFI, CFI, and TLI, had values $>.9$. Thus, the inclusion of organisational culture into further analysis was deemed reasonable based on the supporting statistics shown in Table 4.16.

The model estimates provided in Table 4.16 indicate that all the retained factor structures had regression weights (beta) $>.5$ with low corresponding standard errors. This shows that the components of clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market culture, together with their associated indicator variables, strongly explain the construct of organisational culture (Shi *et al.*, 2019). The critical ratio values ranged between 11.43 and 12.50 (> 1.96) at significant $p < .05$ (Boudlaie *et al.*, 2020). Moreover, all squared factor regression (L^2) values fell above the minimum .20 threshold. These results indicate a significant relationship between types of organisational culture and their respective indicator elements.

From the results in Table 4.17, factor convergent validity was confirmed using the average variance extracted (AVE) of the retained components (.53,.58,.58, and.55) that are above the .50 cut-off point (Mustamil & Najam, 2020). The composite reliability (CR) statistic for each retained component was $> .7$, indicating strong shared variance among the resulting indicator variables (Hair *et al.*, 2019). Equally, the diagonal squared AVE values of the four components (.73,.76,.76, and.74) were $>$ the inter-variable correlations (.62,.73,.65,.51,.72, and.73), confirming that variables are discriminately valid (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair Jr *et al.*, 2010).



CMIN (X^2) =43.427; DF =26; P-Value =.017; CMIN/DF =1.670; GFI =.985; AGFI =.968; NFI =.977; RFI =.985; IFI =.991; TLI =.983; CFI =.990; RMSEA=.034.

Figure 4.1: CFA Measurement Model for Organizational Culture

Table 4.16: CFA Model Estimates for Organizational Culture

Path			B	S.E.	Beta	C.R.	L ²	P
CC3	<---	CC	1.000		.771		.378	
CC2	<---	CC	.834	.067	.722	12.497	.595	***
CC4	<---	CC	.824	.065	.68	12.603	.384	***
AC3	<---	AC	1.000		.728		.530	
AC2	<---	AC	1.095	.082	.799	13.284	.638	***
HC3	<---	HC	1.000		.735		.541	
HC6	<---	HC	1.168	.081	.791	14.396	.626	***
MC6	<---	MC	1.000		.761		.307	
MC3	<---	MC	1.382	.125	.75	11.073	.563	***
MC4	<---	MC	1.287	.113	.706	11.431	.499	***

Note: *** =p<.001, ** =p<.01, *p =<.05

Source: Research Data (2022)

Table 4.17: Composite Reliability, AVE, and DV Test Results for Organizational Culture

Variable	CR	No. of items	AVE	Discriminant validity (Hatlevik)			
				1	2	3	4
Clan Culture	.77	3	.53	.73			
Adhocracy Culture	.72	2	.58	.62	.76		
Hierarchy Culture	.74	2	.58	.73	.51	.76	
Market Culture	.78	3	.55	.65	.72	.73	.74

Source: Research Data (2022)

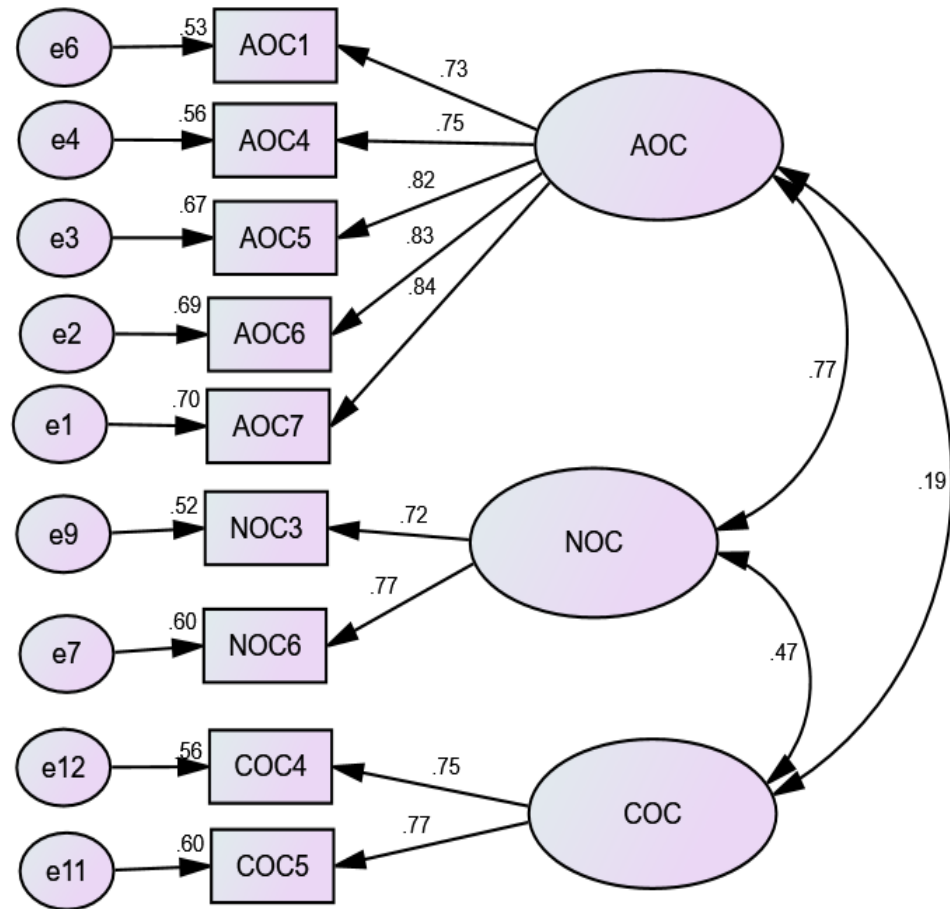
4.6.2 CFA for organisational commitment

EFA provided a three-factor solution to measure organisational commitment. The affective domain loaded six factors; normative and continuance had three and six factors, respectively. These were further subjected to a CFA test, and results displayed in Figure 4.2 show that CFA extracted 5 factors to measure affective commitment (AOC1, AOC4, AOC5, AOC6, and AOC7), 2 factors loading on normative (NOC3 and NOC6), and 2 factors (COC4 and COC5) to measure continuance commitment. During CFA analysis, AOC2 (.61), NOC5 (.56), COC1 (.49), COC2 (.57), COC3 (.68), and COC6 (.65), with comparatively low standardised regression weights, were dropped to improve the measurement model fit (Fosnacht *et al.*, 2019).

The model Chi-square value of 25.509 with 24 df at $p = .281$ indicated a good model fit was established (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012). The other statistical fit indices also showed the model was robust, with $(\text{CMIN/DF}) = 1.146$ and $\text{RMSEA} = .016$. All other indices, including GFI, AGFI, NFI, CFI, and TLI, had values $> .9$. Thus, the inclusion of organisational commitment into the model was deemed reasonable based on the supporting statistics shown in Table 4.18.

The model estimates provided in Table 4.18 indicate that all the retained factor structures had regression weights (beta) $> .5$ with low corresponding standardised errors. This shows that the three components of affective, normative, and continuance, together with their associated indicator variables, strongly explain the construct of organisational commitment (Shi *et al.*, 2019). The CR values ranged between 23.585 and 8.040 (> 1.96) and were significant at $p < .05$ (Boudlaie *et al.*, 2020). Moreover, all squared factor regression (L^2) values fell above the minimum .20 threshold. These results cemented the presence of substantial relations between organisational commitment dimensions and their respective indicator items.

Additionally, in Table 4.19, factor convergent validity was confirmed using the AVE of the retained components (.63, .56, and .58) that were above the .50 cut-off point (Mustamil & Najam, 2020). The composite reliability (CR) statistic for each retained component was $> .70$, an indication of strong shared variance among the extracted indicator variables (Hair *et al.*, 2019). Equally, the diagonal squared AVE values of the three components (.79, .75, and .76) were $>$ the inter-variable correlations (.77, .19, and .47), thus confirming that variables had acceptable discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair Jr *et al.*, 2010).



CMIN (X2) =25.509; DF =24; P-Value =.281; CMIN/DF =1.146; GFI =.990; AGFI =.981; NFI =.989;
RFI =.983; IFI =.999; TLI =.998; CFI =.999; RMSEA =.016.

Figure 4.2: CFA Measurement Model for Organizational Commitment

Table 4.18: CFA Model Estimates for Organizational Commitment

Path	B	S.E.	Beta	C.R.	L ²	P
AOC7 <--- AOC	1.000		.838		.703	
AOC6 <--- AOC	.960	.041	.834	23.585	.695	***
AOC5 <--- AOC	.958	.042	.816	22.859	.665	***
AOC4 <--- AOC	.833	.041	.746	20.133	.556	***
AOC1 <--- AOC	.872	.045	.727	19.441	.528	***
NOC6 <--- NOC	1.000		.772		.595	
NOC3 <--- NOC	1.219	.082	.723	14.949	.523	***
COC5 <--- COC	1.000		.772		.597	
COC4 <--- COC	.980	.122	.748	8.040	.559	***

Note: *** =p<.001, ** =p<.01, * =p<.05

Source: Research Data (2022)

Table 4.19: Composite Reliability, AVE, and DV Test Results for Organizational Commitment

Variable	CR	No. of items	AVE	Discriminant validity (Hatlevik)		
				1	2	3
Affective	.89	5	.63	.79		
Normative	.72	2	.56	.77	.75	
Continuance	.73	2	.58	.19	.47	.76

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.6.3 CFA for self-efficacy

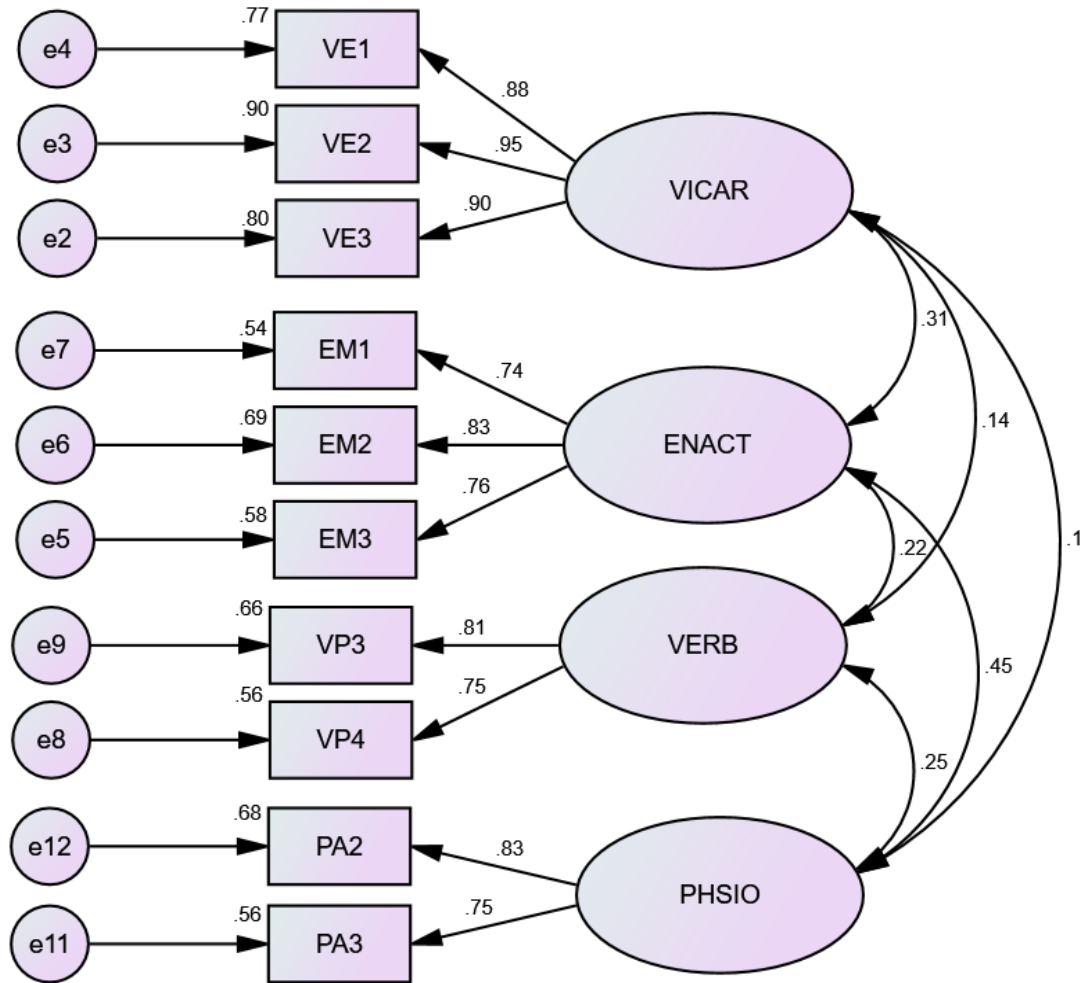
As revealed in Table 4.10, EFA extracted four components that were subjected to CFA in order to confirm the specific self-efficacy factor structure. During CFA, items VE5 (.67) and VP1 (.63) were removed to improve the model's fitness (Fosnacht *et al.*, 2019). Besides, VP1 in Table 4.14 had recorded a .290 CI-TC value < .30 accepted threshold. The visual results in Figure 4.3 confirmed that self-efficacy is sufficiently measured by the four clusters of self-efficacy.

The model Chi-square value of 31.236 with 26 df at $p = .354$ indicated a good model fit was established. The other statistical fit indices also showed the model was robust, with (CMIN/DF) = 1.077 and RMSEA = .012. All other indices, including GFI, AGFI, NFI, CFI, and TLI, had values > .9. Thus, the inclusion of self-efficacy into further analyses was deemed reasonable based on the supporting statistics shown in Table 4.20.

The model estimates provided in Table 4.20 indicate that all the retained factor structures had regression weights (beta) > .5 with low corresponding standard errors. This shows that the components of enactive mastery, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological arousal, together with their associated indicator variables, strongly explain the construct of self-efficacy (Shi *et al.*, 2019). The critical

ratio values ranged between 35.28 and 9.36 (> 1.96), significant at $p < .05$ (Boudlaie *et al.*, 2020). Moreover, all squared factor regression (L^2) values fell above the minimum .20 threshold. These results indicate the presence of a substantial relationship between self-efficacy dimensions and their respective indicator items.

Additionally, in Table 4.21, factor convergent validity was confirmed using the average variance extracted (AVE) of the retained components (.93,.78,.81, and.77) that are above the .50 cut-off point (Mustamil & Najam, 2020). The composite reliability (CR) statistic for each retained component was $>.7$, an indication of strong shared variance among the extracted indicator variables (Hair *et al.*, 2019). Equally, the diagonal squared AVE values of the four components (.91,.80,.77, and.79) were $>$ the inter-variable correlations (.22,.31,.45,.14,.26, and.17); hence, the variables had a threshold level of discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair Jr *et al.*, 2010).



CMIN (X^2) =31.236; p-value =.354; DF =26; CMIN/DF =1.077; GFI =.989; AGFI =.980; NFI =.989; RFI =.983; IFI =.999; TLI =.999; CFI =.999; RMSEA =.012.

Figure 4.3: CFA Measurement Model for Self-efficacy

Table 4.20: CFA Model Estimates for Self-efficacy

Path	B	S.E.	Beta	C.R.	L ²	P
EM1 <--- EM	1.000		.895		.545	
EM2 <--- EM	1.074	.030	.950	35.284	.692	***
EM3 <--- EM	1.097	.036	.877	30.690	.584	***
VP4 <--- VP	1.000		.764		.557	
VP3 <--- VP	1.013	.059	.832	17.230	.657	***
VE1 <--- VE	1.156	.071	.738	16.293	.768	***
VE2 <--- VE	1.000		.746		.903	
VE3 <--- VE	1.133	.202	.810	5.612	.801	***
PA3 <--- PA	1.000		.747		.558	
PA2 <--- PA	1.119	.120	.826	9.360	.682	***

Note: *** =p<.001, ** =p<.01, *p =<.05

Source: Research Data (2022)

Table 4.21: Composite Reliability, AVE, and DV Test Results for Self-efficacy

Variable	CR	No. of items	AVE	Discriminant validity (Hatlevik)			
				1	2	3	4
Enactive mastery (Rehman <i>et al.</i>)	.93	3	.82	.91			
Verbal persuasion (2)	.78	2	.64	.22	.80		
Vicarious experience (3)	.81	3	.59	.31	.14	.77	
Physiological arousal (4)	.77	2	.62	.45	.26	.17	.79

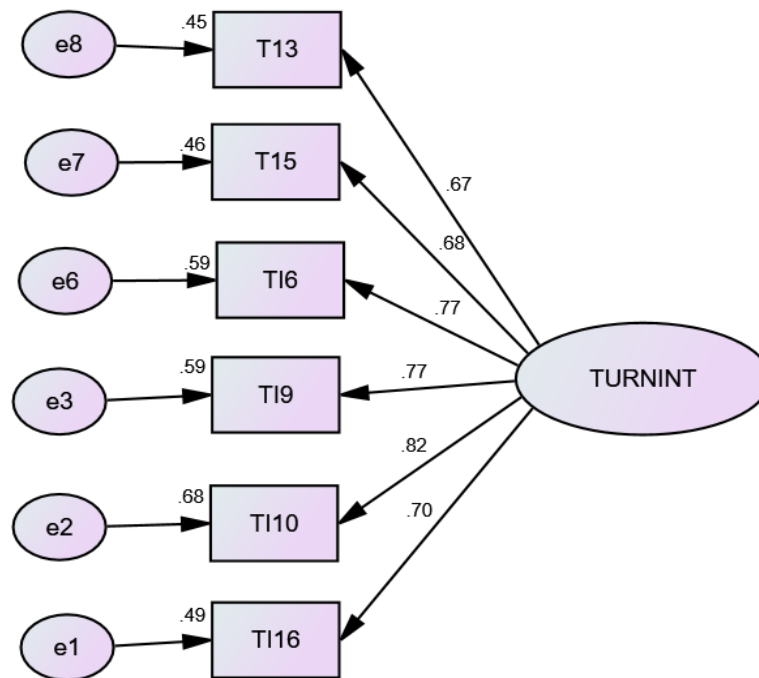
Source: Research Data (2022)

4.6.4 CFA for turnover intention

PCA extracted only the component with nine factors to measure turnover intention. To establish the specific items that measure the latent construct of turnover intention, CFA was performed (Figure 4.4). To achieve an adequate model fit, items TI1, TI7, and TI8 with low standardised weights (.62,.48, and.56), respectively, were dropped (Fosnacht *et al.*, 2019). Accordingly, the model Chi-square value of 5.834 with 9 df at $p = .756$ indicated an acceptable model fit was achieved. The other statistical fit indices also showed the model was robust, with (CMIN/DF) =.648 and RMSEA =.000. All other indices, including GFI, AGFI, NFI, CFI, and TLI, had values $>.9$. Thus, the inclusion of turnover intention into further analyses was deemed reasonable based on the supporting statistics shown in Table 4.22.

The model estimates provided in Table 4.22 indicate that all the retained factor structures had regression weights (beta) $>.5$ with low corresponding standard errors. This shows that the nine indicators strongly explain the construct of turnover intention (Shi *et al.*, 2019). The critical ratio values ranged between 17.601 and 14.660 (> 1.96) at $p < .05$ (Boudlaie *et al.*, 2020). Moreover, all squared factor regression (L^2) values fell above the minimum .20 threshold. These results indicate the presence of a strong relationship between the items retained to measure turnover intention.

Additionally, in Table 4.22, factor convergent validity was confirmed using the average variance extracted (AVE) of the retained items (.54), which is above the .50 threshold (Mustamil & Najam, 2020). The composite reliability value for the retained items was $>.7$, an indication of strong convergent and construct reliability among the turnover intention indicators (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair *et al.*, 2010).



CMIN (X^2) = 5.834; DF = 9; P-Value = .756; CMIN/DF = .648; GFI = .997; AGFI = .992; NFI = .996; RFI = .994; IFI = 1.002; TLI = 1.004; CFI = 1.000; RMSEA = .000.

Figure 4.4: CFA Measurement Model for Turnover Intention

Table 4.22: Composite Reliability and AVE Test Results for Turnover Intention

Path	B	S.E.	Beta	C.R.	L^2	P
TI10 <--- TI	1.223	.069	.822	17.601	.676	***
TI9 <--- TI	1.001	.060	.769	16.634	.592	***
TI6 <--- TI	1.075	.065	.766	16.565	.586	***
TI5 <--- TI	.952	.064	.679	14.845	.462	***
TI3 <--- TI	.961	.066	.671	14.660	.450	***
T116 <--- TI	1.000		.698		.488	

Note: Notes: CR = Composite Reliability, AVE = Average Variance Extracted, *** = $p < .001$, ** = $p < .01$, * = $p < .05$, CR = .88, AVE = .54

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.7 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were performed to detect specific patterns in the data for easy interpretation and reporting (Cooksey & Cooksey, 2020). Following O'Connor (2018), descriptive analysis was run on retained CFA items on the qualified study measures of organisational culture, organisational commitment, self-efficacy, and turnover intention using mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis. The results in Tables 4.23–27 show that the data set is within the acceptable range (George & Mallery, 2019).

4.7.1 Descriptive statistics for turnover intention

Descriptive analysis was performed on the resultant 6 turnover intention CFA items. From the sample results in Table 4.23, a majority of the respondents are in agreement that they will look for a new job in the near future ($M = 5.87$, $SD = 1.11$). From this, academic staff will leave once they land a new job ($M = 5.62$, $SD = 1.08$). This indicates that academicians are continuously searching for alternative jobs ($M = 5.55$, $SD = 1.27$) and in a few years, they will leave ($M = 5.55$, $SD = 1.40$). At the lower level, academic staff refer to the national dailies (New Vision and Daily Monitor) that run job advertisements every Monday and Friday, respectively, for job openings ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 1.87$).

Table 4.23: Descriptive Statistics Results for Turnover Intention

Code	Items	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Error	Std. Deviation
TI3	Lately, I have taken an interest in job offers in the newspaper	1	7	3.58	.078	1.866
TI5	I don't think I will spend my entire career with this university.	1	7	5.43	.055	1.312
TI6	I am keenly searching for an alternative job in another university.	1	7	5.55	.053	1.267
TI9	In the next few years, I will leave this university	1	7	5.55	.058	1.395
TI10	I will leave my job as soon as I get another job.	1	7	5.62	.045	1.077
TI16	I am most certainly going to look for a new job in the very near future	1	7	5.87	.046	1.109
Valid N (listwise)=574						

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.7.2 Descriptive statistics for organisational culture

Evidently, organisational culture as an independent variable was measured on the four dimensions of clan culture, adhocracy culture, hierarchy culture, and market culture that were linked to a seven-point Likert scale (Farooq *et al.*, 2017; Gao, 2017). To examine the way things are done in sampled universities, a series of statements were provided to academic staff to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement.

In regards to clan culture (Table 4.24), the analysis indicates that academic staff are bound together by the university's values and customs ($M = 5.25$, $SD = 1.27$), which academic staff follow (Sung & Choi, 2021). This implies that universities prefer consistency in their way of doing things. Universities place a strong focus on staff cohesion in order to realise the university's mission ($M = 5.25$, $SD = 1.30$). However, at lower-level, academic staff do not share a lot of things in common ($M = 5.21$, $SD = 1.32$). This indicates less importance is attached to sharing and interaction, which hinders knowledge sharing, key to teaching, research, intellectual curiosity, and debate in the pursuit of quality university education.

Statistics on adhocracy culture indicate that universities are trying to remain relevant by promoting entrepreneurial practises ($M = 5.08$, $SD = 1.3$). This arises from institutional readiness to create and implement new ideas. In addition, university managers are innovators and risk-takers ($M = 5.03$, $SD = 1.321$). These results purport that all innovations can occur if there is top management buy-in (Warter, 2019).

Similarly, hierarchy culture ensures that academic staff are governed by policies and practises enshrined in their employment contracts (Pell & Amigud, 2023). From the data in Table 4.24, most academicians believe that their universities enforce policies and procedures for effective service delivery ($M = 5.47$, $SD = 1.18$). In this regard,

universities deal with large numbers of both internal and external stakeholders; such dealings must be structured through culture. As such, universities must create and enforce cultures that conform to employment laws, reduce customer complaints, and guide behaviour for staff retention ($M = 5.40$, $SD = 1.28$).

In this regard, universities collaborate with a large number of internal and external stakeholders; this transaction must be structured through culture. Therefore, universities must create and implement a culture that complies with labor laws, reduces customer complaints, and drives employee retention behaviors.

From the market culture data, universities have strategically positioned themselves in the competitive business environment in order to serve customers better. Findings show that universities have overly embraced competition (a new psychological contract where employees are seen as costs to be cut) as an approach to reward and achieve performance ($M = 5.30$, $SD = 1.18$). In essence, competition breeds high intentions to leave. Academic staff fairly agreed that they are focused on goal attainment ($M = 5.38$, $SD = 1.17$). In order to contribute to the national development agenda, universities have tailored their study programmes ($M = 5.51$, $SD = 1.16$) to the demands of the labour market and produce quality graduates, which are key to the economic, social, and political development of the country (Pell & Amigud, 2023). This further supports management's interest in implementing their plans and strategy for quality education.

Table 4.24: Descriptive Statistics Results for Organisational Culture

Code	Items	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Error	Std. Deviation
CC2	The academic staff at my university share a lot of things in common.	1	7	5.21	.055	1.323
CC3	The academic staff are bound together by the university's values and customs.	1	7	5.25	.053	1.265
CC4	My university emphasizes a high degree of cohesion among staff in achieving the university's mission.	1	7	5.25	.054	1.300
AC2	My university adopts entrepreneurial business practices in its way of operation.	1	7	5.08	.055	1.309
AC3	My university management is considered as an innovator and risk-taker.	1	7	5.03	.055	1.321
HC3	My university enforces policies and procedures.	1	7	5.47	.049	1.179
HC6	My university conforms to the necessary laws for employment stability.	1	7	5.40	.053	1.280
MC3	My university emphasises competition as a means of measuring the achievement of its mission.	1	7	5.30	.049	1.183
MC4	Academic staff share a common orientation towards the university's vision and mission.	1	7	5.38	.049	1.174
MC6	My university gains competitiveness in the marketplace through tailor-made academic programs.	1	7	5.51	.048	1.159
Valid N (listwise)=574						

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.7.3 Descriptive statistics for organisational commitment

Organisational commitment is an actual positive feeling towards the university. The latent variable was measured on the affective, normative, and continuance domains using a 7-point scale. The analysis below indicates the level of agreement and disagreement regarding academic staff's perceptions of their commitment. Results in Table 4.25 indicate that staff are proud to be associated with their university and are happy to spend their careers there ($M = 6.01$, $SD = 1.12$). Such staff defend the integrity of the institution from outside and always market it ($M = 5.79$, $SD = 1.07$), due to their strong sense of belongingness ($M = 5.79$, $SD = 1.11$). With such loyalty and bonding, affective commitment is an essential component of organisational commitment that is key to reducing turnover ($M = 5.78$, $SD = 1.10$). However, at the lower level, staff don't consider the university their family ($M = 5.75$, $SD = 1.04$).

In regards to the normative facet of commitment, academic staff agreed that they owe a great deal to their employers ($M = 5.79$, $SD = 1.18$). This could be attributed to favours they have gained in the course of their employment (Sow *et al.*, 2016), as they maintain membership. This is further validated by the guilt they will have once they decide to leave, based on the higher M ($M = 5.39$, $SD = 1.50$).

In terms of the continued commitment associated with the cost of leaving, most academic staff agree that quitting is a calculated move to make. With a mean of 5.02 and a SD of 1.51, academic staff stay due to limited job opportunities. Particularly during this period as universities recover from COVID-19 effects. This is further exacerbated by underemployment, especially in developing countries (Sobaih, 2015). This means that staying is a matter of necessity ($M = 4.84$, $SD = 1.49$), if one is to retain some of the benefits that come with membership in the university, such as benefits, salaries, or pensions, and increase their commitment to the university.

Table 4.25: Descriptive Analysis Results for Organizational Commitment

Code	Items	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Error	Std. Deviation
AOC1	I am very happy to be a member of this university.	1	7	6.01	.047	1.116
AOC4	I am part of the family of this university.	1	7	5.75	.043	1.040
AOC5	I feel emotionally attached to this university.	1	7	5.78	.046	1.099
AOC6	This university has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	7	5.79	.045	1.071
AOC7	I feel a strong sense of belonging in this university.	1	7	5.79	.046	1.105
NOC6	I owe a great deal to this university.	1	7	5.79	.049	1.182
NOC3	I would feel guilty if I left this university now.	1	7	5.39	.062	1.495
COC4	Right now, staying on in my job at this university is a matter of necessity.	1	7	5.02	.063	1.512
COC5	I believe there are too few options to consider leaving this university.	1	7	4.84	.062	1.494
Valid N (listwise)=574						

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.7.4 Descriptive statistics for self-efficacy

Social cognitive literature suggests that the personal confidence of academic staff has a significant impact on organisational stay. In the same vein, this study examined how academic staff confidence and capabilities are relevant to increasing their stay. In Table 4.26, self-efficacy was operationalized as enactive mastery, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological arousal.

Most participants agreed that they have developed better facilitating experience ($M = 6.26$, $SD = .77$) and teaching style ($M = 6.23$, $SD = .83$). This recollection of past experiences enables lecturers to deliver their mandate. This is observed through effective teaching of courses ($M = 6.20$, $SD = .99$) in their areas of specialisation (Liu *et al.*, 2021).

Observing others perform successfully increases one's self-efficacy. In this study, role models are a source of information about the degree of difficulty of a specific kind of behaviour. From the descriptives, academics who admire their mentor's ability to motivate others are likely to quit when those mentors quit ($M = 4.94$, $SD = 1.49$). In cases of uncertainty about their capacities and any career transitions, academic staff tend to seek the opinion of their mentors ($M = 4.82$, $SD = 1.67$). In addition, academic staff who model behaviour after their mentors are likely to resign when their mentors leave ($M = 4.79$, $SD = 1.51$).

Similarly, feedback received from significant others encourages employees to engage in certain behaviours, like turnover. From the analysis, family members often encourage and may influence one's decision to stay or leave ($M = 5.83$, $SD = 1.13$). Academic staff with supportive family members may end up staying due to the

emotional, social, and psychological support they receive. Equally, supportive friends tend to offer guidance in relation to career change ($M = 5.74$, $SD = 1.09$).

Finally, the mental ($M = 6.22$, $SD = .79$) and emotional ($M = 6.17$, $SD = .78$) states of the academic staff are key in forming intentions to stay or leave.

Table 4.26 Descriptive Statistics Results for Self-efficacy

Code	Items	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Error	Std. Deviation
EM1	I effectively teach courses in my area of specialization.	1	7	6.20	.041	.990
EM2	My experience has helped me become a better facilitator.	1	7	6.26	.032	.770
EM3	My academic experience has improved my teaching style.	1	7	6.23	.035	.827
VE1	I have a career mentor	1	7	4.82	.070	1.667
VE2	I try to model my behaviour after my mentor	1	7	4.79	.063	1.505
VE3	I admire my mentor's ability to motivate others	1	7	4.94	.062	1.488
VP3	My family members often encourage me to execute my job tasks.	1	7	5.83	.047	1.134
VP4	My friends often encourage me to execute my job tasks.	1	7	5.74	.045	1.088
PA2	My mental state is fit for the execution of my job tasks.	2	7	6.22	.033	.789
PA3	My emotional state is fit for the execution of my job tasks.	2	7	6.17	.033	.780
Valid N (listwise)=574						

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.7.5 Descriptive Statistics for the research constructs

Table 4.27 summarises the statistics for all the study variables rated on a 7-Linkert scale. Self-efficacy had the highest mean of 5.68 and a SD of .63 (Skewness = -.233, Kurtosis = -.506). This was followed by the organisational commitment construct with a mean of 5.59 and a SD of .73 (skewness = -.701, Kurtosis = .240). From the responses, organisational culture ranks third with a mean of 5.42 and a SD of .652 (Skewness = -.563, Kurtosis = .127) while turnover intent comes last with a mean of 5.28 and a SD of .74 (Skewness = -.627, Kurtosis = -.143). The descriptive depicts the true nature of the dataset, indicating that there are non-sampling errors. This further

shows that organizational culture, commitment, self-efficacy and turnover intentions are prevalent among academic staff in Uganda.

Table 4.27: Summary of the Descriptive Statistics for the Research Variables

	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
					Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Turnover Intention	3.33	6.83	5.2810	.74141	-.627	.102	-.143	.204
Organisational culture	3.70	6.90	5.4211	.65193	-.563	.102	.127	.204
Organisational Commitment	3.67	7.00	5.5895	.72895	-.701	.102	.240	.204
Self-efficacy	4.10	7.00	5.6753	.62906	-.233	.102	-.506	.204

Source: Research Data (2022), N= 574 *Seven-point Likert scale: 7= strongly agree to 1= strongly disagree, M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation = Skewness, KS = Kurtosis

4.8 Analysis of Variance

The ANOVA statistic analyses the average scores and the variations in those scores between two or more samples (Kim, 2014). Adopting a one-way ANOVA, the study determined whether perceptions of culture, commitment, self-efficacy, and turnover intention differed significantly across gender, age, educational level, tenure, institutional type, and academic rank.

4.8.1 ANOVA for gender

Gender plays a significant role on shaping organisational-wide variables. Thus, it was necessary to establish whether gender could have a similar effect on the present study variables in the university context. Results in Table 4.28 indicate that there were no statistical differences between gender and organisational culture ($F = 1.112$, $Sig = .292$), organisational commitment ($F = .015$, $Sig = .903$), self-efficacy ($F = .556$, $Sig = .456$), and turnover intention ($F = .725$, $Sig = .395$). These findings are corroborated by Ajayi (2017); Yimer *et al.* (2017) who argue that gender is not a key predictor of

culture and commitment. However, these findings contradict (Demlie & Endris, 2021; Mulie & Sime, 2018a).

Reflecting on these results, gender had no significant effect on culture, commitment, self-efficacy, or turnover intention among the sampled academic staff. Whether male or female, gender did not matter in causing major variations in the level of culture, commitment, self-efficacy, or turnover intention.

Table 4.28: Gender against the study variables

Variables	Gender	Descriptives			ANOVA	
		n	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Organisational Culture	Male	367	5.4011	.68116	1.112	0.292
	Female	207	5.4617	.62658		
	Total	574	5.4229	.66208		
Organisational Commitment	Male	367	5.5746	.80045	0.015	0.903
	Female	207	5.5828	.72410		
	Total	574	5.5776	.77316		
Self-efficacy	Male	367	5.6277	.68343	0.556	0.456
	Female	207	5.6708	.62708		
	Total	574	5.6433	.66344		
Turnover Intention	Male	367	5.2380	.77397	0.725	0.395
	Female	207	5.2959	.79926		
	Total	574	5.2589	.78298		

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.8.2 ANOVA for age group

Literature shows that people make career choices at different stages of life. This study sought to understand the effect of age on organisational outcomes, and the analysis revealed non-significant differences with regard to the study variables. In relation to age and turnover intention, a non-significant effect was reported ($F = .220$, $\text{Sig.} = .927$). A possible reason for this could be that people have similar perspectives on work by virtue of their age. This thinking coincides with Simiyu *et al.* (2020) who reported that age was not key in the decision to enroll.

Further, age and organisational commitment do not differ significantly ($F = .715$, $\text{Sig.} = .582$). These findings indicate that age is critical in building commitment among academic staff (Peltokorpi *et al.*, 2015). This is in line with Akinyemi (2014) who noted that older employees did not show a higher level of commitment than the younger employees. However, this finding contradicts (Abdul-Nasiru *et al.*, 2014; Ajayi, 2017), who reported a significant correlation between commitment levels and age.

In the same vein, analysis of the significance of the mean differences suggested that self-efficacy scores of employees do not differ significantly depending on age ($F = .353$, $\text{Sig.} = .842$). This implies that an academic staff member's age has no bearing on their confidence levels or capabilities, as backed by the work of Reid *et al.* (2018).

Lastly, ANOVA results yielded no association between age and organisational culture ($F = .752$, $\text{Sig.} = .557$). This implies that, whether young or old, perceptions of culture do not vary (Tran, 2020). Table 4.29 below provides a detailed narrative of the ANOVA for the age group of the respondents.

Table 4.29: Age against the study variables

Variables	Age Group	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	F Statistic	Sig.
Organisational culture	Below 30 years	54	5.5556	.56899	0.220	0.557
	31-40 years	260	5.4073	.66508		
	41-50 years	193	5.4239	.67971		
	51-60 years	60	5.3581	.68895		
	Above 60 years	7	5.5119	.48722		
	Total	574	5.4229	.66208		
Organisational commitment	Below 30 years	54	5.6575	.63604	0.715	0.582
	31-40 years	260	5.5289	.77398		
	41-50 years	193	5.6350	.79021		
	51-60 years	60	5.5366	.79783		
	Above 60 years	7	5.5347	1.06225		
	Total	574	5.5776	.77316		
Self-efficacy	Below 30 years	54	5.7360	.66918	0.353	0.842
	31-40 years	260	5.6482	.68312		
	41-50 years	193	5.6198	.66417		
	51-60 years	60	5.6161	.59911		
	Above 60 years	7	5.6228	.43034		
	Total	574	5.6433	.66344		
Turnover intention	Below 30 years	54	5.3150	.77701	0.220	0.927
	31-40 years	260	5.2375	.80378		
	41-50 years	193	5.2816	.77292		
	51-60 years	60	5.2444	.77161		
	Above 60 years	7	5.1159	.51324		
	Total	574	5.2589	.78298		

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.8.3 ANOVA by educational level

In the present sample, three levels of education were observed: bachelor's degree, master's degree, and PhD. Following this categorization, the study tested whether these categories had an effect on the latent variables. From Table 4.30, the ANOVA results showed that education has no statistically significant influence on turnover intention ($F = 2.973$, $Sig = .052$). This implies that educational level is not a key predictor of turnover intention. This result finds support in China, where turnover was

more pronounced among highly educated than low-educated employees (Chen *et al.*, 2021).

In addition, results have shown that academic qualifications do not vary along with levels of organisational commitment ($F = 2.504$, $\text{Sig} = .083$). This result suggests that commitment levels do not differ depending on an academic staff member's educational background. This result aligns with Akinyemi (2014); Kanchana and Panchanatham (2012) who disclosed that there is no significant relationship between education level and organisational commitment. Contrary to the present finding, Bakan *et al.* (2011); Soomro (2020), found that education level has an influence on organisational commitment.

Further, there was no significant difference in the mean response of academic staff with respect to organisational culture ($F = 1.694$, $\text{Sig} = .185$). This means that the average education level of an academic staff does not influence their perception of organisational culture, as supported by Tran (2020), who found no relationship between educational qualifications and culture.

Pertaining to self-efficacy, ANOVA produced statistically significant difference with education ($F = 6.251$, $\text{Sig} = .002$). The implication is that the positive or negative efficacy of academic staff has to do with their level of education.

Table 4.30: Education level against the study variables

Variables	Education	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	F Statistic	Sig.
Organizational culture	Bachelor Degree	56	5.5659	.69546	1.694	0.185
	Master Degree	319	5.4235	.66285		
	PhD	199	5.3818	.64891		
	Total	574	5.4229	.66208		
Organizational commitment	Bachelor Degree	56	5.7606	.68500	2.504	0.083
	Master Degree	319	5.5249	.77561		
	PhD	199	5.6105	.78636		
	Total	574	5.5776	.77316		
Self-efficacy	Bachelor Degree	56	5.9372	.77000	6.251	0.002
	Master Degree	319	5.6043	.64663		
	PhD	199	5.6230	.64050		
	Total	574	5.6433	.66344		
Turnover intention	Bachelor Degree	56	5.0463	.85115	2.973	0.052
	Master Degree	319	5.2505	.76810		
	PhD	199	5.3322	.77915		
	Total	574	5.2589	.78298		

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.8.4 ANOVA for tenure

This study explored the influence of academic's tenure on study variables. Table 4.31's investigation into academic staff tenure show that there was no statistically significant difference between tenure and organizational culture ($F=1.833$, $Sig.=.104$), tenure and commitment ($F = 1.332$, $Sig.=.249$), tenure and self-efficacy ($F = 1.526$, $Sig.=.180$) as well as tenure and turnover intention ($F = 1.652$, $Sig.=.145$). These results indicate that length of service did not have profound effect on the perception of culture, commitment, self-efficacy and turnover intention in the sampled academics. Despite the length of academic staff's tenure, it did not have a significant influence on variations in the study variables.

Table 4.31: Tenure against the study variables

Variables	Tenure	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F Statistic	Sig.
Organizational culture	Less than 1	16	5.2512	.43980	1.833	.104
	1-5	114	5.5459	.61802		
	6-10	189	5.4574	.68580		
	11-15	166	5.3307	.69811		
	16-20	71	5.4108	.59686		
	+ 20 years	18	5.3334	.65782		
	Total	574	5.4229	.66208		
Organizational commitment	Less than 1	16	5.1782	.54545	1.332	.249
	1-5	114	5.6583	.76427		
	6-10	189	5.6029	.82773		
	11-15	166	5.5235	.75192		
	16-20	71	5.6043	.71983		
	+ 20 years	18	5.5484	.75625		
	Total	574	5.5776	.77316		
Self-efficacy	Less than 1	16	5.3328	.70200	1.526	.180
	1-5	114	5.7469	.72152		
	6-10	189	5.6500	.62094		
	11-15	166	5.6325	.66996		
	16-20	71	5.5555	.64853		
	+ 20 years	18	5.6366	.62570		
	Total	574	5.6433	.66344		
Turnover intentions	Less than 1	16	5.6005	.67826	1.652	.145
	1-5	114	5.1729	.87437		
	6-10	189	5.1860	.76909		
	11-15	166	5.3244	.74776		
	16-20	71	5.3327	.77265		
	+ 20 years	18	5.3692	.67320		
	Total	574	5.2589	.78298		

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.8.5 ANOVA for academic rank

Academic rank has been adopted as a variable of interest in the social sciences. This study tested whether rank influences the study variables. Results in Table 4.32 show that rank is not a potent predictor of turnover intention, organisational culture, and organisational commitment. Specifically, rank did not predict turnover intention ($F = 1.217$, $\text{Sig.} = .300$), organisational culture ($F = 1.308$, $\text{Sig.} = .259$), and organisational commitment ($F = 1.702$, $\text{Sig.} = .132$). These findings are in consistent with prior studies (Otahe & Inekwe, 2022). Reflecting on these findings, the study deduces that

academic rank does not influence perceptions of organisational culture, commitment and turnover intention. This means that academic staff across all ranks exhibit similar perception of organisational culture, commitment and turnover intention. On the contrary, rank significantly predicted self-efficacy ($F = 2.344$, $\text{Sig.} = .040$).

Table 4.32: Academic rank against the study variables

Variables	Tenure	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	F Statistic	Sig.
Organizational culture	Teaching Assistant	74	5.5027	.66154	1.308	0.259
	Assistant Lecturer	128	5.4641	.65138		
	Lecturer	246	5.3889	.66890		
	Senior Lecturer	78	5.3262	.68105		
	Assoc. Professor	34	5.5987	.58717		
	Professor	14	5.3359	.66643		
	Total	574	5.4229	.66208		
Organisational commitment	Teaching Assistant	74	5.5848	.70812	1.702	0.132
	Assistant Lecturer	128	5.6344	.73001		
	Lecturer	246	5.4995	.78532		
	Senior Lecturer	78	5.6557	.74658		
	Assoc. Professor	34	5.8213	.93491		
	Professor	14	5.3631	.89096		
	Total	574	5.5776	.77316		
Self-efficacy	Teaching Assistant	74	5.8497	.73629	2.344	0.040
	Assistant Lecturer	128	5.6068	.67054		
	Lecturer	246	5.5923	.64634		
	Senior Lecturer	78	5.5882	.66383		
	Assoc. Professor	34	5.7435	.51345		
	Professor	14	5.8434	.64727		
	Total	574	5.6433	.66344		
Turnover intention	Teaching Assistant	74	5.2501	.76217	1.217	0.300
	Assistant Lecturer	128	5.1626	.86369		
	Lecturer	246	5.3112	.75041		
	Senior Lecturer	78	5.3483	.77618		
	Assoc. Professor	34	5.0697	.79988		
	Professor	14	5.2268	.61690		
	Total	574	5.2589	.78298		

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.8.6 ANOVA for university type

The university type as a common demographic characteristic was examined. The findings in Table 4.33 show that there were significant differences in responses regarding the institution type in relation to organisational culture ($F = 7.519$, $\text{Sig.} = 0.006$), organisational commitment ($F = 10.517$, $\text{Sig.} = 0.001$), and turnover intention ($F = 8.533$, $\text{Sig.} = 0.004$), respectively. This implies that institutional type does influence culture, commitment, and turnover intention. However, university type did not have an influence on self-efficacy ($F = 2.572$, $\text{Sig.} = 0.109$).

Table 4.33: Institutional Type against the study variables

Variables	Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F Statistic	Sig.
Organisational culture	Public	395	5.3722	.61366	7.519	0.006
	Private	179	5.5349	.74783		
	Total	574	5.4229	.66208		
Organisational commitment	Public	395	5.5077	.72534	10.517	0.001
	Private	179	5.7317	.85146		
	Total	574	5.5776	.77316		
Self-efficacy	Public	395	5.6134	.63795	2.572	0.109
	Private	179	5.7091	.71393		
	Total	574	5.6433	.66344		
Turnover intentions	Public	395	5.3227	.75293	8.533	0.004
	Private	179	5.1180	.83047		
	Total	574	5.2589	.78298		

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.9 Testing for Regression Assumptions

To assess the model's predictive accuracy, several assumptions were tested (Asiedu *et al.*, 2016) to see if changes to the original data set were necessary, ensuring that the data collected was appropriate for the type of analysis conducted. Before fitting the final model, the conventional parametric assumptions were met in order to enhance the model's robustness in drawing valid inferences (Nimon, 2012).

4.9.1 Multivariate outliers

This assumption seeks to ensure that the dataset used for analysis is free of multivariate outliers. Despite the study treating univariate outliers (4.2.2), multivariate outliers were missed out (Daigle, 2019). The study used Mahalanobis Distance (Karim & Qamruzzaman) to identify and treat multivariate anomalies (Cabana *et al.*, 2021; Daigle, 2019). The MD test checked the probability of a score being distant due to only chance. The MD test results in appendix 11 showed that MD scores ranged between .049 and 41.375 for 578 cases. By running the SPSS MD Chi-square ($<.001$) at 3 degrees of freedom, 4 outliers (case 78= .000, case 200= .42.123, case 261= .026 and case 564= 41.576) were revealed. With the deletion of the 4 instances of multivariate outliers, the study ended up with 574 instances for the final analysis.

4.9.2 Sampling size

Adequate sample size is important for achieving statistical power, reducing sampling errors, and improving model fit (Beck, 2013; Kyriazos, 2018). It also improves the chances of attaining a significant p-value (Rani & Samuel, 2016) and reaching valid and generalizable findings (Singh & Masuku, 2014). While there is no commonly accepted sample size, Hopkins and Ferguson (2014) and Kline (2015) recommend a 5:1 or 10:1 subject-to-variable ratio for multiple regression, while Mullineaux and Wheat (2017) recommend a 40:1 ratio for step-wise procedures. In this study, with 574 cases and 3 independent variables, a 191:1 ratio was achieved, surpassing the 40:1 threshold and confirming that the sample size assumption was met.

4.9.3 Testing for normality

According to Das and Imon (2016), survey responses should be centrally distributed to draw significant inferences. To achieve this, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and

Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) tests were performed. In the present case, S-W was used since the study sample is less than 2,000 (Flatt & Jacobs, 2019). The generated results in Table 4.34 showed that all variables had significant scores ($p < .05$). This implied that the assumption of normality was violated (Schmidt & Finan, 2018), making the data unsuitable for inferential analysis.

Table 4.34: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality

Variables	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Turnover intention	0.079	574	0.000	0.953	574	0.000
Organisational culture	0.083	574	0.000	0.953	574	0.000
Organisational commitment	0.099	574	0.000	0.952	574	0.000
Self-efficacy	0.086	574	0.000	0.953	574	0.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction
Source: Research Data (2022)

To fulfil and improve variable normality, the dataset was transformed (Flatt & Jacobs, 2019) using the fractional ranking method to get rid of the highly and lowly skewed data observations associated with Type I or Type II error in continuous measurement scales (Knief & Forstmeier, 2021). To obtain normally distributed residuals, K-S and S-W tests were run on the transformed data. The non-significant S-W scores ($p > .05$) signaled that there is no deviation from normality. The normality results for the transformed variables in Table 4.36 show that the variable's distribution is not significantly different from a normal distribution (Osborne, 2002).

Table 4.35: Normality Test for the Transformed variables

Transformed Constructs	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Turnover Intention	.029	574	.200*	.995	574	.077
Organisational Culture	.042	574	.019	.995	574	.078
Organisational Commitment	.044	574	.009	.996	574	.116
Self-efficacy	.039	574	.033	.995	574	.057

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction
Source: Research Data (2022)

Finally, Process Macro was used, which does not always effectively reflect normality (Hayes, 2018) due to bootstrapping. This procedure violates normality as data is randomly resampled and replaced from the sample 5000 times in a way that mimics the original sampling scheme. Similarly, large samples >200 based on the central limit theory guarantee a normal distribution of residuals (Useche *et al.*, 2018). This view is supported by Schmidt and Finan (2018), who argued that non-normality does not bias regression coefficients and influence on statistical tests in a large sample of 574.

4.9.4 Testing for linearity

In performing multiple-regression analysis, producing linear results is vital, as non-linearity affects the predictive strength of the independent variables on the outcome variable. For linearity to hold, the predictor and criterion variables must align closely without errors that affect model predictions (Warner, 2013). Linearity was checked with graphic and numeric approaches. Statistically, the Pearson (r) correlation results in Appendix 14A show the variables are linearly related. In addition, the ANOVA results appended to 14B show that the overall model is linear and significant, with $F(3,570) = 28.19$ and $\text{Sig.} = .000$. Graphically, linearity occurred through a P-P plot aligned on the line of best fit (Field, 2013), producing a constant unit change or slope of the outcome variable for a constant change in independent variables. Further, linearity was achieved by fitting the coefficient of determination (R^2). Linearity exists when R^2 is closer to 1, with R^2 linear $= .998$ indicating the presence of a significant and linear model (Garson, 2012). From the results appended to 14C, it is evident that linearity occurred in this study since 99.8% of the variance in turnover intention is accounted for by all the predictor variables.

4.9.5 Testing for multicollinearity

To determine if the regression model met the assumption of multicollinearity, the of Tolerance and the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values were appraised (Field, 2013). The recommended cut-off points for testing multicollinearity vary between authors; hence, this study adheres to Garson's (2012) principle that VIF should be < 4.0 and a Tolerance $> .20$ for the non-presence of multicollinearity. As provided in Table 4.37, VIF ranged from 1.897 to 1.268, while tolerance values fell between .527 and .789. Therefore, construct collinearity is not a critical issue in this structural model (Denis, 2015). Thus, it can be inferred that the predictor variables are unique with low correlations after being regressed, as detailed in Appendix 15.

Table 4.36: Multicollinearity Statistical Results

Independent Variables	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Organisational culture	0.527	1.897
Organisational commitment	0.587	1.704
Self-efficacy	0.789	1.268

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.9.6 Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity was undertaken to test whether the hierarchical model could predict the outcome variable consistently across all values of the explanatory variables (Khaled *et al.*, 2019). To ensure that all variables possess the same finite variance, the three independent variables were regressed on the outcome variable. The Levene's test performed in Table 4.38 was non-significant at $p > .05$, which is considered acceptable since the difference between the variances is zero. This implies that the variances are equal, thus the assumption was achieved. In addition, the SPSS scatterplot (Figure 4.7) was inspected and found to be due to the random scatter rather than a funnel or fan shape (Ernst & Albers, 2017). As such, homoscedasticity is

nonexistent since large residuals fell between ± 2 , ratifying the homoscedasticity of data. Thus, all independent variables predict the dependent variable consistently (Astivia & Zumbo, 2019). Ultimately, the presented study results are based on robust standard errors (Flatt & Jacobs, 2019).

Table 4.37: Levene's Test of Homoscedasticity

Variables	Levene's F-Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Organisational Culture	2.636	1	572	0.105
Organisational Commitment	3.235	1	572	0.073
Self-efficacy	1.159	1	572	0.282
Turnover Intention	.058	1	572	0.811

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.9.7 Testing for independence of errors

The independence of errors assumption indicates that for any two observations, the error terms should be uncorrelated (Nimon, 2012). Particularly, stepwise regressions require the set of residuals to be independent for robust findings. Autocorrelated residuals bias statistical estimates of the independent variables by giving many false positive predictions on the dependent variables. This assumption was tested by the Durbin-Watson statistic, which should range between 1.5 and 2.5 for independent observations (Garson, 2012). From Table 4.39, the Durbin-Watson score of 1.828 confirms that error terms are independent.

Table 4.38: Data Independence

Model summary					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	0.275a	0.076	0.071	1.32894	1.828

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.10 Zero-Order Correlation Analysis

Prior to regression analysis, the linearity of variables was checked. Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) was applied in measuring the linear strength and direction

between organisational culture, organisational commitment, self-efficacy, and turnover intent (Gogtay & Thatte, 2017). The Pearson product-moment zero-order was specifically used since the study constructs were operationalized on a metric scale and the data complied with the normality assumption. In terms of significance, path coefficients range between -1 and +1 (Green & Salkind, 2014), with coefficients closer to +1 signifying strong positive relationships and those closer to -1 indicating strong negative associations, while values close to 0 indicate a weak or no relationship (Green & Salkind, 2014; Zou *et al.*, 2016).

The correlation matrix in Table 4.40 shows that organisational culture ($r = -.305$, $p = .01$), organisational commitment ($r = -.325$, $p = .01$), and self-efficacy ($r = -.228$, $p = .01$) were significantly and negatively associated with turnover intention. Similarly, organisational culture ($r = .640$, $p = .01$) and self-efficacy ($r = .455$, $p = .01$) had a significant and positive relationship with organisational commitment. Finally, self-efficacy was significantly and positively associated to organisational commitment ($r = .343$, $p = .01$). These results confirm the predictive strength of the explanatory variables in the outcome variable. With the highest correlation coefficient being .640, there is no multicollinearity in the model (Shrestha, 2020).

Table 4.39: Zero-Order Pearson correlation results Matrix

Transformed Variables	1	2	3	4
Turnover Intentions (Rehman <i>et al.</i>)	1			
Organisational Culture (2)	-.305**	1		
Organisational Commitment (3)	-.325**	.640**	1	
Self-efficacy (4)	-.228**	.455**	.343**	1

*Notes; N=574, **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.11 Hypotheses Testing for Direct Effects on Turnover Intention

The analysis of total effects between variables, including all their indirect effects, provides a more comprehensive depiction of the exploratory model links (Nitzl *et al.*,

2016). The present study performed hierarchical regression analysis to test the hypotheses for direct effects on turnover intention (H_01 , H_02 , & H_03). With respect to Table 4.41a-b, the generated beta and p values guided the decision to reject or fail to the null hypotheses.

4.11.1 Effect of covariates on turnover intention

Although there was no specific hypothesis on controls, results showed that all control variables accounted for 23.9% variance in turnover intention. Hence, there was need to understand the explanatory power of each confounding variable (gender, age, education, tenure, academic rank and institutional type) on turnover intention. The results are displayed in Tables 4.41a-b. In model I, the effect of gender on turnover intention was examined. The results show that gender is not associated with level of turnover intention ($\beta = -.031$, $p = .461$). This implies that gender does not influence the level of turnover intention. The model summary results show that age contributed to .1% explained variance ($R^2 = .001$) in turnover intention. The ANOVA test results show that model 1 was not statistically significant ($F = .543$, $p > .05$) indicating a bad model fit. In model 2, age was observed to have a non-significant influence on turnover intention ($\beta = -.025$, $p = .553$), which means that employee age is not the main predictor of turnover intention. The model summary results (Table 4.41a) indicate that age explained .1% variance ($\Delta R^2 = .001$) in turnover intention. The ANOVA test results show that model 2 was not statistically significant ($F = .445$, $p > .05$) indicating a bad model fit. In model 3, tenure was observed to be linked with turnover intention ($\beta = -.236$, $p = .000$), implying that one's tenure in the university determines their turnover intention. Results in Table 4.41a show that tenure explains 3.9% variance ($\Delta R^2 = .039$) in turnover intention. The ANOVA results show that model 3 was statistically significant ($F = 7.935$, $p < .05$) indicating a good model fit.

In model 4, education had a non-significant influence on turnover intention ($\beta = -.072$, $p = .178$), implying that educational level does not predict turnover intention. The model summary results (Table 4.41a) indicate that education explained 3% variance ($\Delta R^2 = .003$) in turnover intention. The ANOVA test results show that model 4 was statistically significant ($F = 6.415$, $p < .05$) indicating a good model fit. Academic rank was introduced in model 5, results show that rank was not associated with turnover intention ($\beta = -.062$, $p = .362$), implying that rank does not predict turnover intention. The model summary results (Table 4.41a) indicate that rank explained .1% variance ($\Delta R^2 = .001$) in turnover intention. The ANOVA test results show that model 5 was statistically significant ($F = 5.297$, $p < .05$) indicating a good model fit. Finally, in model 6, university type significantly explained turnover intention ($\beta = .460$, $p = .000$), implying that one's tenure in the university determines their turnover intention. Results in Table 4.41b show that tenure explains 19.5% variance ($\Delta R^2 = .195$) in turnover intention. The ANOVA results show that model 6 was statistically significant ($F = 29.756$, $p < .05$) indicating a good model fit (Lindberg & Johnson, 1997).

4.11.2 Effect of organizational culture on turnover intentions (H₀₁)

H₀₁ states that organisational culture has no significant effect on turnover intention. From the results appended 17A and summarised in Table 4.41b (Model 7) indicate that organisational culture has a negative and significant effect on turnover intentions ($\beta = -.216$, $p = .05$). This means that when academic staff perceive the university culture to be fair, inclusive, collaborative, flexible, and rewarding they tend to stay. Also, an R^2 value of .044 means that organisational culture explains 4.4% of the variation in turnover intention. The ANOVA results further show that Model 7 was statistically significant $F(7,566) = 31.922$, $p < .05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis is

rejected, and the alternative that organisational culture is significantly and negatively related to turnover intention is accepted.

4.11.3 Effect of organizational commitment on turnover intention (H₀₂).

H₀₂ states that organisational commitment has no effect on turnover intention. Model 8 was found to be statistically significant $F(8,565) = 30.677$, $R^2 = .303$, $p < .05$). The results appended 17A and provided in Table 4.41b indicate that organisational commitment has a significant negative effect on turnover intent ($\beta = -.185$, $p < .05$). This implies that when academic staff are committed to their job, their chances of leaving are minimal. From the derived results, the null hypothesis H₀₂ is rejected, and the alternative, which states that organisational commitment significantly influences intention to leave, is accepted. The model summary indicates that the inclusion of organisational commitment increased the R^2 from 28.3% to 30.3%. Commitment alone accounts for 2% of the variance in turnover intention.

4.11.4 Effect of self-efficacy on turnover intentions (H₀₃)

In line with H₀₃, self-efficacy has no significant effect on turnover intent. Model 9 was observed to be statistically significant $F(9,564) = 27.584$, $p < .05$). In addition, the results reveal that self-efficacy had a non-significant but negative effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.060$, $p > .05$). This result implies that academic staff who are highly confident of their capabilities find it easy to leave since they can easily adapt to any context. Hence, the null hypothesis is supported that self-efficacy has a non-significant impact on turnover intention. The R^2 change of this model shows that self-efficacy alone accounts for 0.3% of the total variance in academic staff turnover intention.

Table 4.40a: Results for covariates and direct effects hypotheses

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5	
	β	Sig.	β	Sig.	β	Sig.	β	Sig.	β	Sig.
Gender	-.031	.461	-.031	.460	-.016	.690	-.017	.683	-.020	.636
Age			-.025	.556	.105	.033	.131	.013	.148	.008
Tenure					-.236	.000	-.210	.000	-.197	.000
Education							-.072	.178	-.044	.473
Rank									-.062	.362
R ²	.001		.002		.040		.043		.045	
ΔR^2	.001		.001		.039		.003		.001	
F Change	.543		.445		7.935		6.415***		5.297	
					***				***	

Note: Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention, Predictors: Organisational Culture, Organisational Commitment, Self-Efficacy, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Source: Research Data (2022)

Table 4.40b: Results for covariates and direct effects hypotheses (Continued)

Variables	Model 6		Model 7		Model 8		Model 9	
	B	Sig.	β	Sig.	β	Sig.	β	Sig.
Gender	.001	.844	.004	.908	.000	.996	.001	.967
Age	.068	.177	.064	.189	.084	.084	.080	.102
Tenure	-.093	.062	-.124	.011	-.120	.012	-.120	.013
Education	.055	.324	.068	.204	.073	.172	.077	.149
Academic rank	-.188	.002	-.160	.008	-.174	.003	-.178	.003
Type of institution	.460	.000	-.409	.000	.398	.000	.393	.000
Organisational Culture			-.216		-.099	.033	-.076	.120
Organisational Commitment					-.185	.000	-.180	.000
Self-efficacy							-.060	.131
R ²	.239		.283		.303		.306	
ΔR^2	.195		.044		.020		.003	
F Change	29.76*		31.92***		30.68***		27.58***	
	**							

Note: Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention, Predictors: Organisational Culture, Organisational Commitment, Self-Efficacy, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.12 Effect of Organisational Culture on Organisational Commitment (H₀₄)

The present study performed hierarchical regression analysis to test the hypothesis for direct effect on organisational commitment (H₀₄). With respect to Table 4.42, the generated beta and p values guided the decision to reject or fail to the null hypothesis.

4.12.1 The effect of control variables on organisational commitment

In model 1, the effect of controls on organisational commitment was assessed. The results summarised in Table 4.42 and Appendix 17B indicate that gender ($\beta = -.030$, $p > .05$), age ($\beta = .095$, $p > .05$), tenure ($\beta = -.073$, $p > .05$), education ($\beta = .063$, $p > .05$),

and, rank ($\beta = .004$, $p > 0.05$) were not significantly related to organisational commitment. However, university type significantly explained commitment ($\beta = -.209$, $p < 0.05$). Overall, the results show that the control variables explained up-to .5% variance in organisational commitment ($R^2 = .051$). This implies that organisational commitment was predicted by other factors not examined in this study. The ANOVA test results show that the model was statistically significant $F(6,567) = 5.078$, $p < .05$.

4.12.2 Effect of organisational culture on organisational commitment (H_{04})

H_{04} predicted that organisational culture has no effect on organisational commitment. Model 2 was found to be statistically significant $F(7,566) = 59.059$, $p < .05$). Summary results in Table 4.42 and appended 17B indicate that organisational culture had a positive and significant effect on organisational commitment ($\beta = .630$, $p < .05$). This implies that when academic staff perceive the university culture as favorable in terms of fairness, inclusiveness, collaborative, flexible, rewarding and aligns with their values and expectations, their level of commitment to the university increases. Additionally, an ΔR^2 value of .371 means that organisational culture explains 37% of the variation in organisational commitment. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected, and the alternative that organisational culture is significantly and positively related to organisational commitment is accepted.

Table 4.41: Results for the direct effect of Organisational Culture on Organisational Commitment

Variables	Model 1		Model 2	
	B	Sig.	β	Sig.
Gender	-.030	.461	-.021	.510
Age	.095	.090	.106	.016
Tenure	-.073	.190	.017	.697
Education	.063	.305	.023	.636
Academic rank	.004	.951	-.076	.157
Type of institution	-.209	***	-.061	.075
Organisational Culture			.630	***
R ²	.051		.422	
Δ R ²	.051		.371	
F Change	5.078***		59.059***	

Dependent variable: Organisational Commitment, Note: * p<.05, *** p <.001

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.13 Mediating Effect of Organisational Commitment on Organisational Culture and Turnover Intentions

Hypothesis H₀₅ holds that organisational commitment has no significant mediating effect on the link between organisational culture and turnover intentions. Guided by PROCESS macro (4.2) and mediation model 4, H₀₅ was tested on step-wise mediation procedures by MacKinnon (2012).

Firstly, under Path (a₁): Organisational culture had a significant effect on organisational commitment ($\beta = .659$, SE =.035, p <.001). Secondly, Path (b₁): Organisational commitment had a significant direct effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.464$, SE =.166, p <.001). Thirdly, Path (C'): Organisational culture has a significant effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.261$, SE =.122, p <.05). From these results, all of MacKinnon's mediation requirements were fulfilled, as paths a₁ and b₁ remained statistically significant. The inclusion of organisational commitment as a mediator into the model, decreased the direct effect of organisational culture on turnover intention from $\beta = -.216$ (H₀₁) to $\beta = -.261$.

Table 4.42: Direct effect results between organisational culture, organisational commitment and turnover intentions

Variables	β	S.E.	LLCI	ULCI	β	S.E.	LLCI	ULCI
Gender	-.003	.005	-.013	.007	.000	.014	-.027	.028
Age	.010	.004	.002	.017	.019	.011	-.003	.040
Tenure	.001	.003	-.005	.007	-.021	.008	-.037	-.005
Education	.003	.006	-.009	.014	.022	.016	-.010	.054
Rank	-.005	.004	-.012	.002	-.029	.010	-.048	-.010
Institutional Type	-.010	.006	-.021	.001	.163	.015	.133	.194
Organisational culture	.659***	.035	.591	.727	-.261**	.122	-.501	-.021
Organisational commitment					-.464***	.166	-.692	-.237

Source: Research data (2022)

However, Preacher and Hayes (2004) recommend further examination of the indirect path in confirming the presence or non-presence of mediation. The indirect path was examined using the bootstrap technique (Zhao *et al.*, 2010) where data was resampled 5000 times at a 95% CI. The bootstrap test appended 18 and summarised in Table 4.43 indicate that there is a significant complementary mediating effect of organisational commitment on organisational culture and turnover intention ($\beta = -.306$, $SE = .089$, $CI = -.483, -.131$). This means that organisational culture partially goes through an intercessor (commitment) to affect the reduction in turnover intention. According to Zhao *et al.* (2010) mediation exists when the path coefficients products are significant. This means that for universities to manage turnover intent, they must create a favourable organisational culture that will bolster the echelons of staff commitment which in turn accounts for .442% variance in quit intention. Hence, H_{05} was rejected and the alternative suggesting that organisational commitment has a significant complementary mediating effect on the link between organisational culture and turnover intention was supported.

Table 4.43: Bootstrapping mediation results

Organ. Commitment	Coeff	SE	T	P	LLCI	ULCI
Total effect of X and Y	-.567	.097	-5.865	***	-.757	-.377
Direct effect of X on Y	-.261	.122	-2.134	**	-.501	-.021
Indirect effect (a ₁ *b ₁)	-.306	.089		***	-.483	-.131

Notes: p < .001, LLCI = Lower Confidence Interval, ULCI = Upper Confidence Interval

Source: Research Data (2022)

4.14 Estimating Moderating Effect of Self-Efficacy on Organisational Culture and Organisational Commitment

In this regression model, the study hypothesized that self-efficacy does not moderate organisational culture and turnover intent. With the aid of Hayes (2018) Model 1, conditional process analysis using PROCESS Macro version 4.2. H₀₆ was tested based on conditions set by Aiken *et al.* (1991). The interaction effect results in Table 4.44 and appendix 19 show that self-efficacy had a positive and non-significant effect on organisational culture and organisational commitment (Coeff. = .195, SE = .569, p = .732). In addition, the interaction term score was not different from zero. This was supported by the direct effect's model predictive power of R² = .43 which is greater than interaction effect model (R² = 0).

Table 4.44: Moderating effect of Self-efficacy on the relationship between organisational culture and organizational commitment

Dependent variable: Organisational Commitment						
Predictors	Model 1			Model 2		
	Coeff.	SE	P	Coeff.	SE	P
Constant	.443	.089	***	1.685	.015	***
Gender	-.004	.005	.486	-.003	.005	.509
Age	.010	.004	**	.010	.004	.012
Tenure	.001	.003	.711	.001	.003	.692
Education	.002	.006	.700	.002	.006	.702
Rank	-.005	.004	.181	-.005	.004	.174
Type	-.009	.006	.105	-.009	.006	.106
Organisational Culture (OC)	.630	.038	***	.628	.039	***
Self-efficacy (SE)	.090	.051	.080	.090	.051	.080
Int_1(OC*SE)				.195	.569	.732
R ²			.425			.425
R2 Change						0
F			52.249			.117
Sig			.080			.732

Source: Research Data (2022): Note: *p < .05, ** < .01, *** p < .001

The non-significant results were further confirmed using mod-graph. The parallel lines in Modi graph (Figure 4.5) show that at different levels of self-efficacy, the effect of organisational culture on commitment remained static. This implies that whether academic staff possess high or low levels of self-efficacy, this will not result into major variations in the level of organisational culture that increase on commitment. Based on this finding, H₀₆ was supported since self-efficacy does not significantly moderate the effect of organisational culture on organisational commitment.

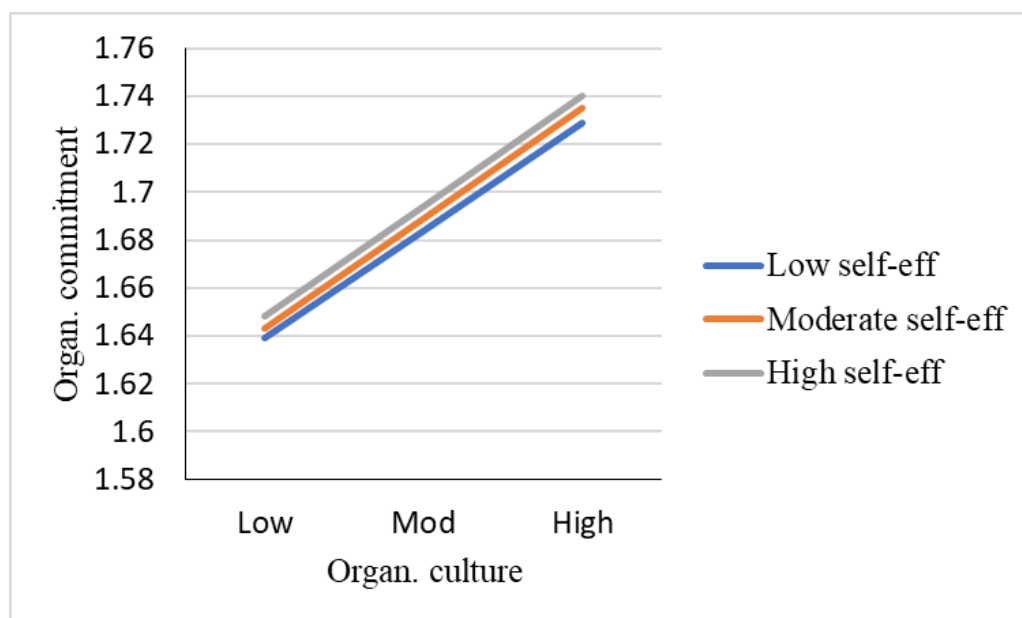


Figure 4.5: Mod-graph showing the moderating effect of self-efficacy on organisational culture and organisational commitment

4.15 Estimating Moderating Effect of Self-Efficacy on Organisational Culture and Intent to Turnover

Hypothesis H₀₇ states that there is no significant moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between Organisational culture and Turnover intention. This hypothesis was tested following Aiken and West (1991) guidelines in the Process Macro (4.2), Model 1. The study results reflect that self-efficacy was statistically robust in the qualified model path. The effect of moderation on self-efficacy variable

facets was significant in the interaction between culture and turnover intent. The conditional effect tabulated in Table 4.45 and appendix 20, contend that the model accounted for only .05 % variance in turnover intention (Coeff= -3.13, SE= 1.59, $t = -1.98$, CI= -6.25, -.02).

Table 4.45: Moderating effect of self-efficacy on organisational culture and turnover intention

Predictors	Dependent variable: Turnover intention					
	Model 1			Model 2		
	Coeff.	SE	P	Coeff.	SE	P
Constant	.44	.09	***	1.189	.041	***
Gender	-.00	.01	.49	-.001	.014	.966
Age	.01	.00	.01	.012	.011	.283
Tenure	.00	.00	.71	-.022	.008	**
Education	.00	.01	.70	.023	.017	.168
Rank	-.01	.00	.18	-.026	.010	**
Type	-.01	.01	.12	.165	.016	***
Organisational Culture (OC)	.63	.04	***	-.449	.108	***
Self-efficacy (SE)	.10	.05	.080	-.259	.141	.071
Int_1(OC*SE)				-3.134	1.585	.049
R ²			.43			.292
R ² Change						.005
F			52.25			3.909
Sig			0			.049

Source: Research Data (2022): Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Based on Hayes (2017) and Jose (2013) principle, the significant interaction effect was further probed using the mod-graph. Figure 4.6 demonstrates that with a high level of organisational culture, turnover intent is lower with high levels of self-efficacy. Thus, at a lower level of organisational culture, turnover intent is high with a low-level of self-efficacy. This suggests that self-efficacy acts as a remedy for low-level organisational culture in reducing turnover among academic staff. Yet, as self-efficacy decreases, turnover intent increases, but the rate of decrease is low with the high level of beliefs. This result illustrates that the presence of efficacy among academic staff decreases academic staff quits. In essence, universities should seek to build self-efficacy beliefs in their staff demonstrated by their adorable practices that create a culture for greater employee retention. Grounded on these results, H₀₇ was

rejected and the alternative suggesting that self-efficacy significantly moderated the effect of organisational culture on turnover intention was supported.

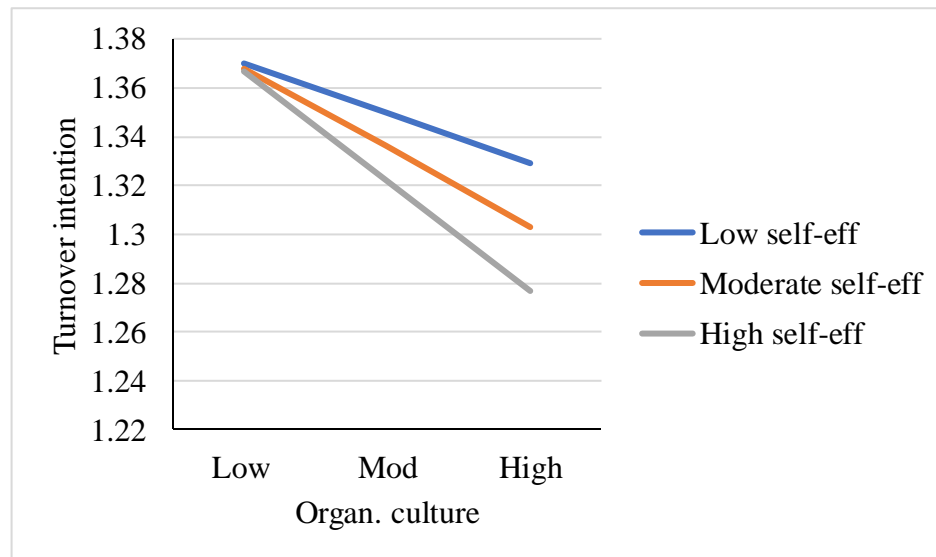


Figure 4.6: Mod-graph for the conditional effect of self-efficacy on organisational culture and turnover intention

4.16 Estimating the Moderating Effect of Self-Efficacy on Organisational Commitment and Turnover Intention

Hypothesis H₀₈ holds that self-efficacy has no moderating effect on the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intentions. Guided by Process Macro Model 1 and Aiken and West (1991) moderation conditions, H₀₈ was tested.

The results in Table 4.46 and appendix 21 reveal that self-efficacy had a negative moderating effect on organisational commitment and turnover intent (Coeff= -.435, SE= 1.47, t= -2.88, CI= -7.23, -1.46). Tenure, rank and university type as covariates had a statistically significant effect on turnover intention. The regression model generated an R²=.31 which implied that the interaction between organisational commitment and self-efficacy accounted for 1.1% of the variance in turnover intention.

Table 4.46: Moderating effect of self-efficacy on organisational commitment and turnover intent

Dependent variable: Turnover intention						
Predictors	Model 1			Model 2		
	Coeff.	SE	p	Coeff.	SE	p
Constant	2.102	.239	.000	1.181	.040	***
Gender	.004	.014	.801	-.007	.014	.638
Age	.013	.011	.251	.017	.011	.124
Tenure	-.017	.008	.042	-.019	.008	.018
Education	.021	.017	.208	.025	.016	.120
Rank	-.031	.010	.002	-.031	.010	.002
Type	.177	.016	.000	.166	.015	.000
Organisational Commitment (OCOM)	-.461	.166	.000	-.488	.098	.000
Self-efficacy (SE)	-.537	.132	.000	-.310	.135	.022
Int_1 (OCOM*SE)				-4.347	1.469	.003
R ²	.261			.313		
R ² Change	.251			.011		
F	28.572			8.760		
Sig	.000			.003		

Source: Research Data (2022): Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Following Hayes's (2017) guidelines, the Mod-graph in Figure 4.7 depicts that at low-level of organisational commitment, turnover intent is high with a high level of self-efficacy. Equally, at a high level of organisational commitment, turnover intent is low with a high level of self-efficacy. This implies that self-efficacy is a priceless strategy for enhancing low-level commitment in a bid to mitigate the turnover intent question in universities. Still, as organisational commitment improves, turnover intention increases, but the rate of increase is high with a low level of self-efficacy. This result demonstrates that the presence of self-efficacy among academic staff improves academic staff turnover intent. Through self-efficacy beliefs, academics build sustainable commitment that promotes less mobility. Hence, H_{08} Rejected.

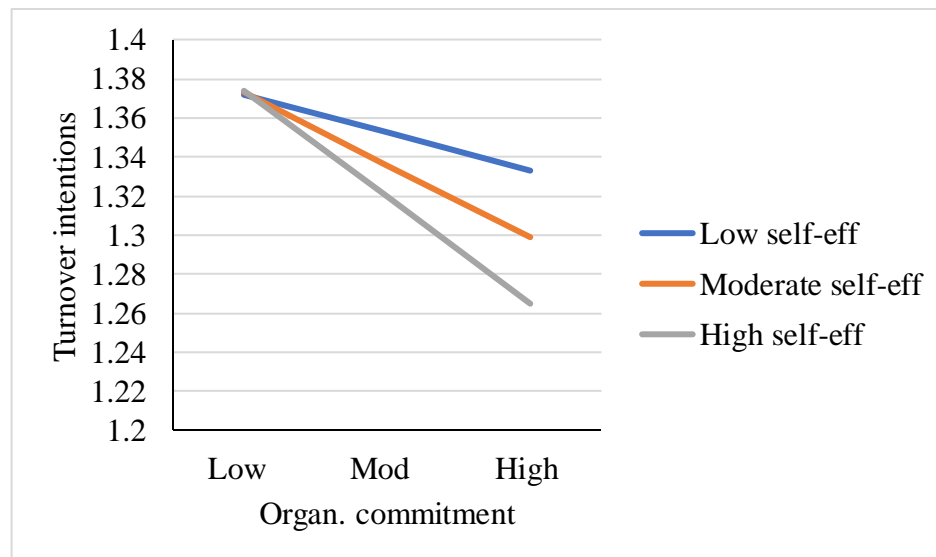


Figure 4.7: Mod-graph for the conditional effect of self-efficacy on organisational commitment and turnover intention

4.17 Estimating Moderated Mediation (Model 14)

Finally, test for moderated mediation effect was conducted to address H_{09} which states that self-efficacy has no moderating effect on the relationship between organizational culture and turnover intention through organisational commitment. Hayes (2018) posits that moderated mediation test helps to reveal the contingent nature of the effect of the independent variable (organisational culture) on the dependent variable (turnover intention) via the mediator (organisational commitment) conditioned by changes in the moderator (self-efficacy).

To establish the conditional indirect effect, Muller *et al.* (2005) and Preacher *et al.* (2007) analytical procedures were followed. First, turnover intention was predicted by organisational culture, where a negative and significant effect was recorded ($Coeff = -.201$, $t = -1.578$, $CI = -.452, .049$). Second, the mediating effect of organizational commitment on the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions was examined ($Coeff = -.306$, $SE = .089$, $CI = -.483, -.131$). Third, the

moderating effect of self-efficacy on the link between organisational commitment and turnover intention was analysed ($Coeff=-4.35$, $t=-2.97$, $CI=-7.24, -1.47$).

Table 4.47: Moderated-Mediation results

Predictors	Dependent variable											
	Model 1(OCOM)						Model 2 (TI)					
	Coeff.	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	Coeff.	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Organisational culture (OC)	.66	.04	19.07	***	.59	.73	-.33	.14	-2.31	.12	-.60	-.05
Organisational commitment (OCOM)							-.48	.13	-3.69	***	-.74	-.22
Self-efficacy (SE)							-.38	.16	-2.39	.09	-.68	-.07
Int _1 (OCOM*SE)							-4.35	1.47	-2.97	**	-7.24	-1.47
R ²				.42					.32			
F				59.06					26.05			
Sig.				0					0			

Source: Research Data (2022): Note: * $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$

With a significant overall error term, significance and strength test was computed on the conditional indirect effect of organisational culture on turnover intention via organisational commitment to establish whether the scores of self-efficacy varied at (M, ± 1 SD) levels as presented in Tables 4.48. In particular, the conditional indirect effect increased along with levels of self-efficacy ($-1= -.10$, $M= -.25$ and $+1= -.41$). This indicates that the indirect effect of culture on planned turnover via commitment becomes stronger as self-efficacy increases. However, the conditional indirect effects are significant at M and $+1$ SD levels of self-efficacy.

Table 4.48: Bootstrap conditional indirect effect(s) at different levels of the moderator

Interaction levels of self-efficacy on the indirect effect	Coeff	S.E.	LLCI	ULCI
Low (-1 SD) of Self-efficacy	-.10	.10	-.31	.10
Moderate (Mean) of Self-efficacy	-.25	.09	-.43	-.09
High (+1 SD) of Self-efficacy	-.41	.10	-.60	-.21

Note: CI = 95% confidence interval for indirect effect: CI is statistically significant with non-zero values.

Table 4.49: Index of Moderated Mediation

Mediator	<i>b</i>	S.E (Boot)	Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI
Organisational Commitment	-2.87	.98	-4.76	-.95

Source: Research Data (2022): Note: CI = 95% confidence interval for indirect effect: CI is statistically significant with non-zero values.

The moderated indirect effect was further validated by graphic results in Figure 4.7. After plotting all values of self-efficacy, a significant moderated mediation index was established (Hayes, 2015). From table 4.49, self-efficacy significantly moderates the indirect link of organisational culture on turnover intention through organisational commitment with no zero values along levels of self-efficacy ($b = -2.87$, $\text{BootS.E.} = .98$, $\text{BootCI} = -4.76, -.95$). The visual gradient slopes in Figure 4.8 shows moderated mediation took place, where the indirect effect is high at higher self-efficacy. This implies that highly confident staff derive intentions to leave from the cultural norms and practices via commitment. Based on these results, H_{09} is rejected.

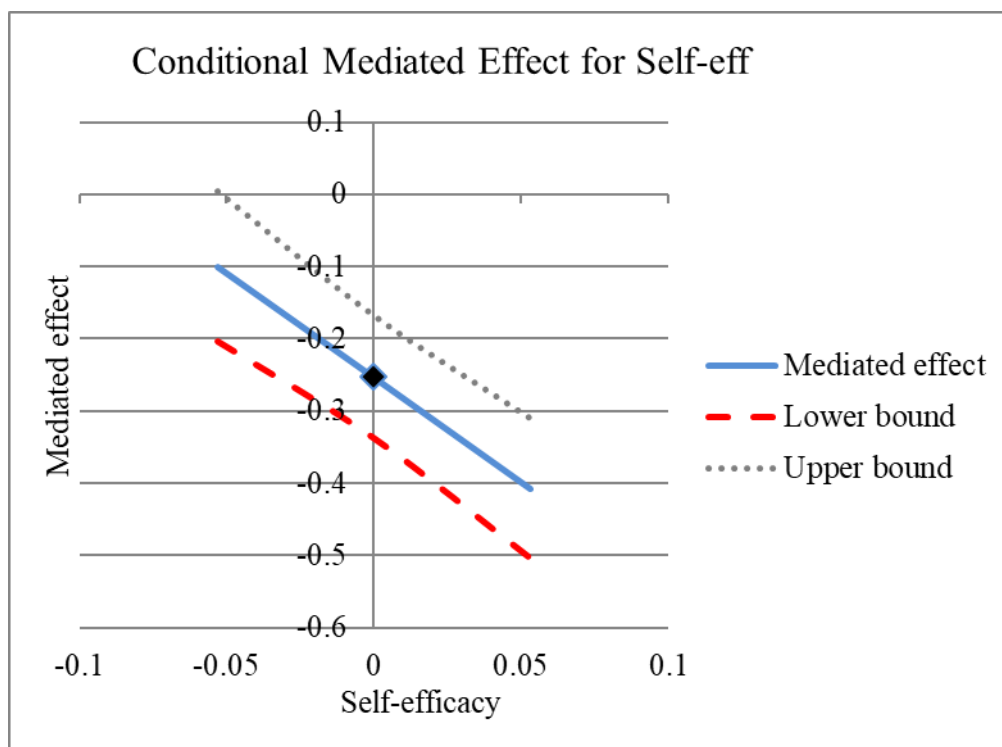


Figure 4.8: Graph showing the conditional indirect effect at the different levels of self-efficacy on organisational culture and turnover intention via organisational commitment

Table 4.50: Summary of Hypotheses Test Results

Code	Null Hypotheses	Decision
H ₀₁	Organisational culture has no effect on turnover intention	Not Supported
H ₀₂	Organisational commitment has no effect on turnover intention	Not Supported
H ₀₃	Self-efficacy has no effect on turnover intention	Supported
H ₀₄	Organisational culture has no effect on organisational commitment	Not Supported
H ₀₅	Organisational commitment has no mediating effect on the link between organisational culture and turnover intention	Not Supported
H ₀₆	Self-efficacy has no moderating effect on the link between organisational culture and organisational commitment	Supported
H ₀₇	Self-efficacy has no moderating effect on the link between organisational culture and turnover intention	Not Supported
H ₀₈	Self-efficacy has no moderating effect on the link between organisational commitment and turnover intention	Not Supported
H ₀₉	Self-efficacy has no moderating effect on the indirect link between organizational culture and turnover intentions through organisational commitment	Not Supported

Source: *Research Data (2022)*

4.18 Final Derived Model

The present study tested nine hypotheses derived from Hayes statistical model 59 (Figure 3.1). From the analysis, seven hypotheses were significant except for hypotheses three and six. H₀₃ showed that self-efficacy does not significantly predict turnover intention while H₀₆ indicted that self-efficacy does not moderate between organisational culture and commitment.

To establish a moderated mediation model, the researcher dropped the non-significant paths ((H₀₃ & H₀₆) and tested model 15, which was not significant (Appendix 22). Finally, the moderated-mediation model 14 (Appendix 23) was found to be significant (b= -2.87, BootS.E=. 98, BootCI= -4.76, -.95). The model validates that the conditional indirect effect of organisational culture on turnover intention via organisational commitment varies at different levels of self-efficacy. The final derived model in Figure 4.9 provides a better fit than the earlier hypothesised model in Figure 2.1 framed around literature review.

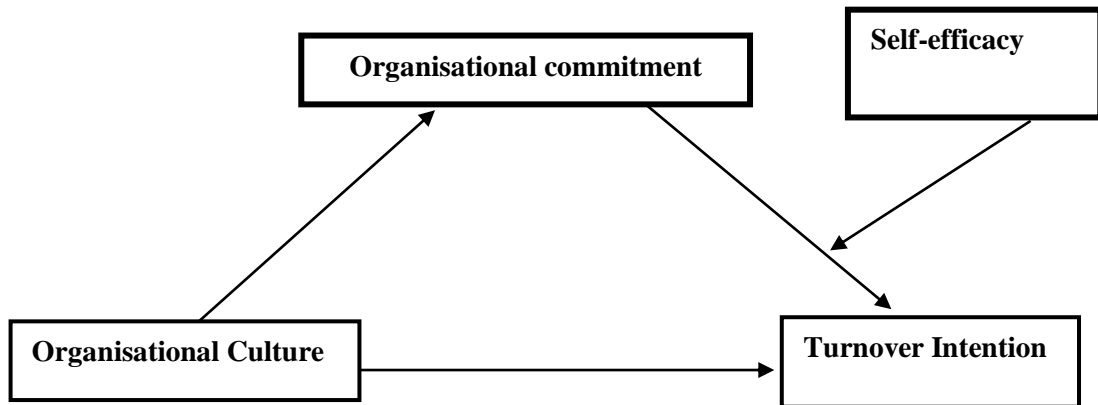


Figure 4.9: The final model (Model 14) predicting turnover intention among academic staff in Uganda

Source: Researcher (2022)

4.19 Discussion

This study empirically tested the moderated mediation model in the university context in a bid to address existing voids in the literature on turnover intentions. As discussed in the preceding chapters, nine objectives were tested. Each hypothesis was discussed, providing the basis for an explanation as to why the hypothesis was rejected or not from the perspective of the emerging issues and related empirical studies.

4.19.1 Controls and turnover intention

Drawing on literature, this study considered gender, age, tenure, education, rank, and type of university as significant predictors of turnover intention. From the obtained results, gender, age, educational level, and rank had no significant effect on turnover intention. These findings suggest that gender, age, educational level, and rank do not contribute to variations in turnover intention in the Ugandan university context. Specifically, the result on age aligns with the findings of Parasız *et al.* (2017), who found that gender does not significantly account for variations in turnover intention. In terms of gender, the turnover intentions of female and male academics were similar. This finding is supported by the work of Albaqami (2016). However, this

result contradict (Sun & Wang, 2017), who linked turnover intention to age differences.

In the area of education, Chen *et al.* (2021) found that qualification was positively correlated with turnover intention. This means that once employees feel that their education level exceeds their work needs, they may be more likely to consider leaving their job. Considering academic rank, the analysis by Buttner and Lowe (2017) agrees with the present finding that academic rank does not influence turnover intentions. Accordingly, these non-significant results point out that academics tend to engage in departure intentions regardless of their gender, age, qualifications, or academic rank. This disparity in study results could be attributed to the context (industry or country) and respondent-specific factors. Most of the cited studies above have been conducted in developed economies, and a few in East Africa have reported non-significant results on the control variables (Lwanga *et al.*, 2023; Simiyu *et al.*, 2020).

Contrary to popular belief, tenure and institutional type had a significant effect on turnover intention. Results on tenure show a significant and negative association between tenure and turnover intention. This indicates that an academic's tenure partly accounts for variations in their quest to leave. Specifically, tenured staff accumulate investments (stability, privileges, friendship, and time) that bind them to stay with the university (Wells *et al.*, 2016). This result resonates with the finding of Maden (2014), who observed that longer-tenured staff had lower turnover intentions compared to low-tenured employees. In addition, Ju and Li (2019); Ucho *et al.* (2012) argued that turnover intention declines with increased length of service. This calls for universities to implement cultural practises that are likely to increase their level of commitment and tenure while reducing turnover (Holtom *et al.*, 2008).

Finally, institutional type had a significant impact on the lecturer's turnover intention. This implies that the type of university, whether private or public, can impact turnover intentions among academic staff. Through this classification, universities differ in terms of size, funding source, and mission. As such, they adapt unique cultures and norms that can impact turnover intentions. For example, private universities may have a culture that emphasises financial performance and profitability, which could increase turnover intentions due to perceived job insecurity. Contrary to this, public universities emphasise collaboration, staff development, conformity to hierarchy, and observance of employment laws, which are likely to promote job security and commitment that are deterrents to intentional turnover. This finding is consistent with Simiyu *et al.* (2020), who found that institutional type had a significant effect on the intention to enrol for postgraduate studies. Hence, monitoring the influence of institutional type on turnover intention can help universities develop strategies to retain their faculty and improve their performance.

4.19.2 Organisational culture and turnover intention

This study hypothesised that organisational culture does not affect quit intentions among academic staff in Uganda. However, the obtained findings suggest that organisational culture had a negative and significant effect on turnover intent. In the context of this study, the results show that universities that encourage open communication, teamwork, enforce policies fairly, adhere to employment laws, reinforce behaviour through rewards, and foster staff collaboration create a positive work environment that encourages staff to stay.

This result underscores the importance of organisational culture in the retention of academic staff in the university context in today's competitive environment (Adriano

& Callaghan, 2022). In essence, work environments with appealing conditions and characteristics tend to discourage turnover intentions (Tran *et al.*, 2020). The implication of this is that an organisational culture that is perceived as friendly leads to staff retention. Universities today are relying on organisational culture as a means to attain their strategy in a turbulent environment (Warter, 2019). This calls for university managers to pay attention to their organisation's culture (Hakim, 2015) in order to grow an organisational value-based competitive advantage. As such, organisations need to understand their intrinsic personality (culture) so that they can capitalise on the insights generated by the cultural perspective to wield greater control over their employees and the environment (Bosomtwe & Obeng, 2018). This has to be well articulated during the HR onboarding process so that one can appreciate the internal practises and beliefs that make the organisation a distinct employer. This assertion is further reinforced by Idiegbeyan-ose *et al.* (2018), Aldhuwaihi and Shee (2015), Haggalla and Jayatilake (2017), Omeluzor (2018), Choi *et al.* (2014), Mbah *et al.* (2018), and Rahmayanti and Martowiyoto (2020), who argue that affective organisational cultures are linked with staff retention.

Organisational culture can have a significant impact on employee retention in universities in Uganda (Idiegbeyan-Ose *et al.*, 2018). By creating a unique culture that cannot be replicated by competitors, universities can gain a sustainable competitive advantage over their rivals. Effective management of unique competences within an individual through established integrated human resource systems, practises, processes, procedures, and approaches can help identify talents and develop an action plan for the management of organisational talents to achieve the organisation's desired goals through reduced turnover. This requires changing organisational cultures as an

attempt and strategy to respond to challenges because commitment to the organisation's values and beliefs is critical for preventing turnover behaviour.

This supports the view of institutional theory that culture can be institutionalised behaviour that comes from the organisation's ability to tailor practises to day-to-day valuable activities. Thus, for universities to retain staff, their organisational culture must be accepted if it is to influence employee behaviour. To build an inclusive institutional culture in higher education, universities can prioritise staff retention by addressing common gaps and creating proactive retention practises.

4.19.3 Organisational commitment and turnover intention

The hypothesis results in the previous section showed that organizational commitment has a negative and significant relationship with turnover intention. In the context of this study, the results suggest that universities whose academic staff exhibit affective, normative and continuance commitment toward the university are less likely to harbor intentions to leave. This is evidenced when committed staff are time bound, speak well of the institution, work in teams, are reliable and taking on extra roles without additional pay. Such sacrifices translate into investments that academic staff are not willing to lose once they decide to leave.

Specifically, academic staff with high affective commitment often develop strong connections with their colleagues, supervisors, and the overall work environment. These relationships provide a support system, a sense of camaraderie, and job-related social benefits, which can act as a buffer against turnover intentions. In terms of normative commitment, staff with high normative commitment often feel a strong sense of loyalty and gratitude towards their institution. They could have benefited from the university's support, training, or opportunities for growth, and feel a

responsibility to give back by staying with the university. Academic staff with high normative commitment view leaving the university as detrimental to their professional image and reputation. Finally, academic staff with high continuance commitment feel a financial or economic dependence on their current job. They have invested significant time, effort, and resources in their current role, making the decision to leave financially burdensome. This perceived cost can act as a deterrent to actual turnover. In some cases, lack of viable alternative job options and fear of losing benefits or privileges associated with the current job increases academic staff's continuance commitment. In essence, when academic staff possess emotional attachment, sense of loyalty, and reduced perception of costs they are more inclined to stay with the university.

This finding is justified in several past studies that observed a negative and significant relationship (Al Balushi *et al.*, 2022; Bhatti *et al.*, 2016; Tran, 2020). In other words, the more committed the academic staff feel, the less likely they would trigger intention to leave the organisation (Park, *et al.*, 2014). Academic staff's favorable feelings are framed in affective, normative, and continuance commitments. Staff with these feelings have impressions of value, attachment and importance toward the organisation that influence the stay decisions. Within universities, managers should prioritise academic staff's commitment to ultimately increase their prospect of extending university membership (Perreira *et al.*, 2018). However, this finding contradicts Contrary to (Faloye, 2014) who observed a positive effect between organisational commitment and turnover intention.

Finally, this finding supports the theory of organisational commitment and theory of planned behaviour that stipulate that highly emotionally dedicated employees tend to

be are more engaged to their organisation with less thoughts to leave. This calls for universities to design strategies to promote organisational commitment for reduced intentional turnover.

From the aforementioned finding, theory and empirical literature provide a strong support for the idea that organisational commitment limits the intention to leave.

4.19.4 Self-efficacy and turnover intentions

The study hypothesised that self-efficacy and turnover intention are unrelated. However, the obtained results indicate that self-efficacy has a negative and non-significant direct effect on turnover intention. In the perspective of this study, results show that universities with academic staff who value their past mastery experiences, have mentors, obtain valid feedback and are physically and mentally upright tend to experience high turnover intention. This is because high confidence tends to drive staff to change employers since they believe they can work, survive and succeed anywhere (varied context).

This result is consistent with Chen *et al.* (2021); Selamat and Irsan (2019) who argued that persons with high self-efficacy have higher propensity acts of turnover intention. In particular, when academic staff believe in their capability to work hard and succeed, they consider transferring their services to organisations where they feel they are valued and challenged to excel. This result is also consistent with Poulou *et al.* (2019), staff with high self-efficacy act and behave in ways that motivate them to defy the unforeseen difficulties. Hatlevik (2017) supports the idea that staff with high efficacy are more inclined to enact the change and more eager to apply their abilities in other organisations, thus activating turnover intention. Bandura (1977) observes that efficacy limits how long one can persevere in the face of adversity. This indicates

that academic staff can expend their abilities to leave when their universities face strain. In line with Warter (2019) universities emphasise their academic culture strength in the face declining resources. This suggests that once staff lose faith in the institution, they fail to mobilise their internal resource (self-efficacy) to salvage the situation leading to turnover intention (Ozyilmaz *et al.*, 2018). However, the non-significant results do not provide conclusive evidence to support this observation.

The above result is inconsistent with Afzal *et al.* (2019); Chami-Malaeb (2021) and Shao *et al.* (2022) who acknowledge self-efficacy as a negative antecedent of turnover intention. These studies indicate that employees with self-efficacy are willing to bounce back from any form of disappointments and unfulfilled commitments at work by staying. When compared to employees with low self-efficacy, high self-efficacy employees are improved performers, are confident of their abilities and functionality to satisfactorily find solutions to the challenges in the work environment. However, this contrary result could be attributed to the context and cultural setting. In a practical sense, academic staff are responsible for their career growth and as such set high expectations and willing to achieve them amidst existing pressures, which accelerates intentions to leave when the existing context does not present such opportunities.

This finding aligns with the tenets of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1983), which posits that learning occurs in a social context and that people can acquire knowledge by observing others within the context of social interactions, experiences, and outside media influences. This shows that academics who build their self-efficacy are likely to experience turnover intention. In all, while self-efficacy has a negative effect on turnover intention, it does not independently predict employees' intentions to leave their current positions.

From the aforementioned discussion, findings and empirical literature provide a strong support that self-efficacy promotes intention to leave.

4.19.5 Organisational culture and organisational commitment

The study investigated the effect of organisational culture on organisational commitment among university academic staff in Uganda. The findings show that organisational culture has a positive and significant effect on organisational commitment. In the context of this study, when academic staff perceive university culture as inclusive, supportive, fair, rewarding, and aligned with their values, they are more likely to demonstrate strong commitment towards the establishment. In practical sense, this requires the university managers' understanding of the unique dynamics of each culture and their impact on staff retention. This becomes the guide for managers and universities in creating cultures that promote collaboration, teamwork, a sense of family within the university, innovation, flexibility, creativity, role clarity, top-down decision-making process, achievement, and results-driven performance. By reinforcing any of these cultures, universities create a balanced and inclusive work environment that enables academic staff to manifest organisational commitment via increased enthusiasm, improved customer experience, discretionary effort, high team loyalty, willingness to go an extra mile to achieve university goals.

At the organisational level, culture influences employee behaviour at the workplace. An acceptable culture ensures that all employee behaviour is directed in the same direction. This is formed by the way things are done on a daily basis (Yanti & Dahlan, 2017). As such, a strong or positive organisational culture enhances organisational commitment by creating a conducive work environment characterised by free interactions, improved work engagement, job satisfaction, and reduced intentional

turnover that distinguishes the organisation from competitors. This premise echoes the findings of Olafsen *et al.* (2021); Paramita *et al.* (2020); Yanti and Dahlan (2017), who argue that employees who are happy with the organisational culture willingly make significant strides in their endeavour to meet organisational triumphs. In essence, organisational commitment flourishes in the work environment where academic staff feel cared and valued. Thus, university managers can use this opportunity to improve culture and achieve greater organisational commitment.

Additionally, an organisational culture that is not aligned with the aspirations of the staff of the organisation is seen as negative and therefore will not be supported as it weakens staff commitment. In some cases, poor or bad culture accelerates turnover intentions. On the other hand, when staff members are satisfied with the organisational culture, they readily devote significant effort (commitment) to achieving the university's bottom line. This shows that with a good university culture, the level of organisational commitment of its academic staff will also be higher. These results further reinforce the research that was previously carried out by Abdullah *et al.* (2015), where the results of this study hypothesised a positive relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment. This means that when employees share the same values and beliefs as the organisation, they are more likely to be more committed. Therefore, this study contributes to a better understanding of the impact of organisational culture on organisational commitment in universities.

This finding concurs with the institutional theory by DiMaggio and Powell (1983), which postulates that organisations adapt practises and norms in order to conform to the environment. The present study argues that universities that adapt flexible, caring, supportive, and rewarding values and practices tend to increase academic staff's level

of commitment to the university. This makes academic staff feel that they belong to the institution and this, in turn, enhances their commitment to the university by being available to teach, set and mark exams and coursework, attend meetings, do research and perform other extra roles without pay.

This finding is consistent with DiMaggio and Powell's (1983) institutional theory, which suggests that organisations adapt practises and norms to fit their environment. This study argues that universities that embody flexible, caring, supportive, and rewarding values and practises tend to increase the level of academic staff commitment to the university. This gives academic staff a sense of belonging to the institution, which in turn strengthens their commitment to the university as they teach, set, and assess exams and coursework, conduct research, and perform community engagement.

From the aforementioned discussion, findings, empirical literature and theory provide a strong support that organisational culture deters academic staff from leaving the university.

4.19.6 Mediating effect of organisational commitment between organisational culture and turnover intention

In the fifth hypothesis, the study hypothesised that commitment does not significantly mediate between organisational culture and turnover intention. Contrary to expectations, results yielded that organisational commitment plays a critical role in measuring organisational culture's effectiveness in reducing employee turnover. In the context of this study, results show that organisational culture influences turnover intentions, but these intentions are reduced when organisational culture and commitment are combined. More so, implementing culture that is fair, supportive,

fosters autonomy and career growth, and is appreciated tends to keep academic staff committed to university values, goals, and strategies. Thus, when academic staff are exposed to positive university culture that aligns with the values and needs (support, learn, flexible and collaboration), they exhibit more commitment towards the institution, lessening their turnover intentions.

Further, the contribution of organisational culture to turnover intention is guaranteed through the mechanism of organisational commitment. When academic staff have higher levels of affective, normative, and continuance commitment, they do not over think of leaving. This is because they feel more attached, obligated, or entangled with the university and by leaving they are going to lose out on the benefits they accrued over time. Simultaneously, these experienced levels of commitment facilitate staff retention. In contrast, when academic staff experience lower levels of organisational commitment, they seek for opportunities outside due to weakened bond with the university.

The finding of this study has been endorsed by other studies that extend the conceptual claims that organisational commitment can play an intermediary role (Güllü *et al.*, 2020; Na-Nan *et al.*, 2021; Yan *et al.*, 2021). From these scholars, we can infer that organisational commitment has an impact on reducing turnover intention caused by university culture in Ugandan universities. As academic staff experience high perceptions of university culture, they may devote more allegiance and loyalty to the university, which lessens the chances of leaving (Lambert *et al.*, 2016; Zhou *et al.*, 2020). Consequently, to reduce turnover intention and breed higher organisational commitment, university managers need to create an environment

(culture) where academic staff feel treated fairly, have opportunities to grow and learn continuously, open communication, flexible, and rewarded.

However, this finding is inconsistent with Sujarwo *et al.* (2018) who found a non-significant mediational role for organisational commitment. Equally, Islam *et al.* (2013) reported that organisational commitment did not mediate the link between LMX and turnover among bankers.

Similarly, this finding is in agreement with the view of organisational commitment theory that when academic staff experience high organisational commitment, they will exhibit low turnover intentions. Thus, this result adds to the body of knowledge, particularly in mediation theory.

From the aforementioned discussion, findings, empirical literature, and theory provide strong support that organisational commitment mediates between organisational culture and the intention to leave. Thus, turnover intention among academic staff in Uganda hinges directly on culture as well as on commitment.

4.19.7 Moderating effect of self-efficacy on organisational culture and organisational commitment

Hypothesis H₀₆ postulated that self-efficacy has no moderating effect on the link between organisational culture and commitment. The moderation data confirmed a positive non-significant interaction between organisational culture and commitment. In the context of this study, results show that academic staff's level of self-efficacy does not influence the relationship between organisational culture and commitment. When universities recognise that the quality of university culture has a direct and significant impact on promoting organisational commitment, they enhance it through

flexibility, collaboration, support, and role clarity. This ensures that academic staff remain committed to their jobs. As such, when culture is perceived to be strong and commitment is high, the effect of self-efficacy remains consistent.

In this interaction, organisational culture effect on organisational commitment is not determined by self-efficacy, but instead culture and self-efficacy independently predict organisational commitment. Typically, for universities to promote teamwork, role clarity, recognition, flexibility, and career growth that enhance employee organisational commitment, staff ought to have a high sense of self-efficacy. This implies that staff with high confidence tend to easily align with the existing culture that increases their commitment toward the university. However, emerging results from Ugandan universities suggests that academic staff embrace organisational culture without the interaction effect of self-efficacy.

A better understanding of organisational culture shapes employee behaviour in terms of thinking, cooperation and interaction within the work environment that facilitates improvement in affective, normative and continuance commitment. The positive effect indicates that the effect of organisational culture on organisational commitment increases among highly efficacious academic staff. But the non-significant interaction contravenes and fails to offer support to this observed finding, thus shows that self-efficacy is not a factor that influences staff's organisational commitment (Selamat & Irsan, 2019).

This result is in agreement with Na-Nan *et al.* (2021) who suggested that the significance of self-efficacy as a moderator varies based on the specific context and variables under study. Given that universities are traditional and structured in their way of doing, implies that culture is an institutionalised norm and value that staff are

expected to follow while remaining committed (Xu, 2008). Therefore, any level of self-efficacy is not required to influence culture in the context of universities.

However, this result contradicts Simosi (2012) who found self-efficacy to strengthen the transfer of training knowledge in achievement-oriented culture. Similarly, this result ignores the social cognitive theory that opines that self-efficacy influences level of effort, persistence, and resilience in the face of challenges. In the present study, no amount of academic staff's self-efficacy does substantially modify the influence of organisational culture on commitment in the Ugandan university context.

4.19.8 Moderating effect of self-efficacy on organisational culture and turnover intention

Hypothesis seven examined the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the association between organisational culture and turnover intention. The results revealed a positive and significant interaction effect between self-efficacy, organisational culture and turnover intention. In the context of this study, the results indicate that level of self-efficacy held by an academic staff impacts on organisational culture and intentional turnover. In typical situation, universities whose staff are confident tend to exhibit greater motivation, persistence, resilience in the face of adversaries and remain committed to their work, even in the presence of a less supportive organisational culture. Thus, self-efficacy plays an important role in shaping how organisational culture influences the likelihood of turnover intention among academic staff.

Literature on highly efficacious people shows that they are effective in interpreting the changes in the organisational context (culture), to predict future and positive work scenarios, to adjust and regulate actions, and to persevere when facing difficulties. Specifically, highly confident academic staff are more resilient in the face of adversity

in order to reach their career aspirations. More so, they are less affected by negative aspects of the institutional culture that leads to turnover intention. In this end, their confidence in their abilities buffers the negative effects of a poor organisational culture on their intention to leave the university.

In contrast, academic staff with low self-efficacy are less confident about their ability to face workplace challenges and fail to navigate organisational culture and secure alternative employment. They may be more sensitive to negative aspects of the university's culture, such as a lack of support, perceptions of unfairness, limited opportunities for advancement, or incongruence with their values. Therefore, individuals with low self-efficacy may be more sensitive to negative experiences or perceptions associated with poor organisational culture, which may increase their turnover intentions.

This finding is consistently with Obeng *et al.* (2021) who found a significant moderating effect of self-efficacy on the link between job satisfaction and intentional turnover. Celik *et al.* (2016) noted that organisations can reduce intentional turnover when employees exhibit high self-efficacy with positive or acceptable cultures. Drawing on this, self-efficacy is a vital personal attribute considering the influential strength of organisational culture perceptions on turnover intentions. This study alludes that neither organisational culture nor self-efficacy can exclusively predict turnover intention. But rather, these two predictors complement each other in explaining turnover intention. In simple terms, the stronger effect of culture on turnover intention is contingent on the level of self-efficacy of the academic staff.

4.19.9 Moderating effect of self-efficacy on organisational commitment and turnover intention

The study hypothesised that self-efficacy does not moderate the link between organisational commitment and turnover intent among academic staff in universities in Uganda. From the results, the interaction between organisational commitment and turnover intent was significant. In the context of this study, self-efficacy plays a key role in influencing how organisational commitment impacts career shifts. In other words, universities whose academic staff exhibit high confidence and are more self-directed, stimulated, and adventurous are more likely to engage in affective, normative, and continuance commitment that leads to reduced intentional turnover.

Further, the result shows that the impact of organisational commitment on turnover intention is dependent on the level of self-efficacy. In particular, academic staff who exhibit high levels of self-efficacy are more likely to be committed to their institution and less likely to have turnover intentions. Once academic staff develop a high sense of self-efficacy, they adjust their confidence to overcome work challenges in order to reach optimum commitment. Therefore, owing to their high confidence in fulfilling career goals, academic staff increase the influence of organisational commitment on turnover intention. This indicates that committed staff may stay to enjoy the fruits of their sacrifice within the organisation (Yan *et al.*, 2021). Thus, self-efficacy acts as a buffer against the negative effects of low organisational commitment. In other words, even if academic staff become less committed to the university, their self-efficacy can still motivate them to stay and persevere.

This finding is consistent with the empirical work by Otori *et al.* (2018), which established that self-efficacy significantly moderates the relationship between training

and turnover intention. Equally, the association between perceived occupational danger and turnover intention was shown to be significantly moderated by self-efficacy (Nnadozie *et al.*, 2015). These findings strengthen this study by encouraging university administrators not only to focus on improving organisational commitment but also to consider ways to improve employee self-efficacy. Self-efficacy can be increased through training and development opportunities, creating a supportive and empowering work environment, and offering mentoring or mentoring programmes. This additional support and opportunity allow those with low self-efficacy to gain recognition while rewarding those with high self-efficacy for their achievements. By reinforcing academic staff strong beliefs about their abilities, universities can potentially reduce turnover intention, even though staff have low commitment.

This finding aligns with social cognitive theory's postulate that individuals' beliefs about their own capabilities (self-efficacy) influence their motivation, behaviour, and performance. In the context of organisational commitment and turnover intention, academic staff with higher self-efficacy are more likely to exhibit greater commitment to their university and demonstrate higher levels of persistence and resilience in the face of challenges. As a result, they are likely to stay, even if their commitment is low.

4.19.10 Moderating effect of self-efficacy on the indirect relationship between organisational culture and turnover intention via organisational commitment

The ninth hypothesis sought to ascertain the conditional indirect effect of self-efficacy on organisational culture and turnover intent through organisational commitment. The results reveal that self-efficacy had a moderate effect on the indirect link between

organisational culture and turnover intention via organisational commitment. Within the specific context of this study, results show that self-efficacy influences the strength and direction of the link between organisational culture, organisational commitment, and turnover intention. Specifically, when academic staff have high self-efficacy, they perceive themselves as capable of effectively coping with the challenges and demands of the organisational culture. This shows that when academic staff display high confidence and strong commitment, the negative impact of an unfavourable organisational culture on intended turnover is reduced.

Further, the study findings indicate that at low levels of self-efficacy, the indirect effect of organisational commitment on the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intention is insignificant and relatively weak. Specifically, when academic staff experience declining confidence, their commitment to the organisation lowers while the desire to leave increases. In essence, low efficacy weakens the link between organisational culture, commitment, and intentional turnover.

This finding concurs with Shao *et al.* (2022) and Chu *et al.* (2022), who found that self-efficacy had a conditional indirect effect in their studies. Resonating with these studies, this study highlights the importance of self-efficacy in the model and suggests that organisations should focus on building employees' confidence in their abilities to improve their commitment while reducing intentional turnover. Thus, academic staff driven by a high sense of confidence embrace an institutional culture that strengthens their commitment while accelerating their likelihood to stay at the university.

This finding is consistent with the social cognitive theory that suggests that self-efficacy plays a central role in shaping motivation, behaviour, and decision-making in certain social contexts. In particular, academic staff with high self-efficacy are more

likely to engage in proactive behaviours, seek out resources, and persist in their commitment to the university, even in the presence of a challenging organisational culture. Their belief in their capabilities empowers them to overcome obstacles, adapt to the culture, and maintain their commitment. Recognising the role of self-efficacy as a moderator can inform strategies to enhance employees' self-efficacy beliefs. This can be achieved through providing training and development opportunities, fostering supportive relationships, and creating a culture that promotes a sense of mastery and accomplishment.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter provides an in-depth summary of how the results and findings relate to the research objectives, contributing to the body of knowledge in supporting the existing theory, practice, empirical literature, and research methodology. Also, the conclusion, recommendations, implications, and future research directions are presented.

5.1 Summary of Findings

The study set out to examine the interaction effects of organisational culture, organisational commitment, self-efficacy, and turnover intentions among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda. Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to assess the measurement model, and evaluating reliability and validity concerns. Hierarchical and PROCESS macro models were performed to test the set of 9 hypotheses.

Based on the procedures described above, the results showed that institutional type and tenure significantly predict turnover intention. However, gender, age, academic rank and educational level do not predict turnover intention. Further, organisational culture and organisational commitment significantly predict turnover intention. Self-efficacy does not predict turnover intention. Organisational culture significantly predicts organisational commitment are related positively. Hypothesis 5 (H₀₅) demonstrates that organisational commitment partially mediates the link between organisational culture and turnover intention, with both the direct effect and total effect paths being significant. In terms of conditional effects, self-efficacy interactive

effect was found to be non-significant along the organisational culture and organisational commitment path, significant at the organisational culture and turnover intention and the organisational commitment and turnover intent paths. In the final indirect conditional effect of self-efficacy on organisational culture and turnover intention through organisational commitment, a significant path was reported.

5.2 Conclusions of the Study

From the discussion of the findings, the following key lessons were drawn to form the conclusions of this study:

Organisational culture is an important factor in stimulating employee organisational commitment and containing intentional turnover among academic staff in developing countries like Uganda. It emphasises the importance of creating a positive and supportive organisational culture to reduce turnover intentions and enhance commitment. By fostering a favourable culture characterised by fairness, adherence to laws, open communication, collaboration, and support, universities can promote organisational commitment and enhance employee retention.

Organisational commitment is a critical driver of turnover intention. From the discussion, organisational commitment is not only a significant predictor of turnover intentions but it is also a mediator between organisational culture and turnover intentions among academic staff. As a predictor, universities are less likely to experience intentional turnover when academic staff exhibit higher level of affective, normative, and continuance organisational commitment. In terms of mediation, organisational commitment is a partial conduit through which the increase in organisational culture results into the reduction in intentional turnover. This means that when the university culture is perceived to be positive it fosters higher levels of

commitment, which in turn reduces turnover intentions. In all, enhancing organisational commitment through positive organisational culture can contribute to a more stable and engaged academic workforce, ultimately benefiting the academic institution as a whole.

This study found that self-efficacy plays a moderating role in the indirect relationship between organisational culture and turnover intention via organisational commitment. This suggests that the influence of organisational culture on turnover intentions is contingent upon the level of self-efficacy and its impact on organisational commitment. When staff have high levels of self-efficacy, they are more likely to embrace the organisational culture and be committed to their work. This means that both organisational culture and commitment are important for staff retention, and staff with strong self-efficacy can enhance the effects of these factors. A positive work culture helps reduce turnover intention by improving how academic staff feel at work, fostering a sense of community, offering prospects for professional development, encouraging open communication, and promoting a strong sense of organisational values. With such a work environment, universities can easily adapt to the external environment easily.

5.3 Implications

5.3.1 Theoretical implications

From a theoretical standpoint, this study contributes to academic debate by providing empirical evidence to support theories relevant to the explanation of turnover-intent, but it also has implications for the wider body of knowledge from which future studies could benefit.

This study integrated theory of planned behaviour, institutional theory, organisational commitment theory, and social cognitive theory because none of these theories on their own, can directly explain how organisational culture, organisational commitment, and self-efficacy may provide multidimensional understandings of the underlying procedures in addressing turnover intentions in educational entities. This contributes to the limited empirical research on intentional turnover in universities from less developed and non-western world contexts like Africa. The findings of this study add existing literature on organisational culture, organisational commitment, self-efficacy, and turnover intent, thus enhancing theory development by extending the existing theories.

Specifically, the present study validates the applicability of institutional theory in explaining culture influences intentional turnover phenomena. This theory assumes that for organisations to remain legitimate, appropriate, and valued, employees and organisations must adapt and follow certain values and norms. By applying this theory, organisations are seeking external validation by regulating the behaviour and acts of internal members. In this respect, culture as an internal resource prepares universities to become more responsive to the changes occurring within the business environment. This study has established that indeed institutionalised culture creates a favorable work environment that enables the organisation to fulfill external pressure. This increases the likelihood to retain staff whose values and norms are aligned to those of the organisation. Hence, this study produced a negative and significant direct relationship between organisational culture and intentional turnover.

Second, this research presents empirical evidence of the relevance of organisational commitment theory in reducing turnover intent among academic staff in universities.

Findings show that organisational commitment is an antecedent of turnover intention. To guarantee long-term survival, university managers should not only create a conducive work environment (culture) but also strengthen levels of staff commitment through training, fairness, recognition, collaboration and open communication. This finding emphasises the need to examine the indirect effect of organisational culture on intentional turnover via organisational commitment among academic staff in Uganda, a developing country. This study adds to empirical research by examining organisational commitment as a three-dimensional (affective, normative, and continuance) variable on turnover intention.

The study's results support social cognitive theory in explaining the influence of self-efficacy on organisational processes and outcomes. Specifically, the findings indicate that academic staff with high self-confidence strengthen the effect of organisational commitment on turnover intention. These findings align with previous empirical studies within the social cognitive framework, which have highlighted the conditional nature of self-efficacy beliefs on organisational processes and outcomes. Overall, this study adds to the existing body of knowledge that emphasises the moderating role of self-efficacy in the link between organisational commitment and turnover intention.

5.3.2 Managerial implications

In addition to the important contributions to theory, this study's results also have important managerial implications.

University administrators can manage intentional turnover by nurturing a positive organisational culture. When staff perceive the work environment as being family- or support-oriented, they are likely to feel the urge to bond and engage in intentions to stay because they share a lot in common. A positive culture can be enhanced through

free open communication, teamwork, learning to enhance innovation, managers are supportive, enforcing policies fairly, conforming to the employment laws, reinforcing behaviour with rewards (recognition), fostering staff collaboration to achieve the vision and mission of the university and aligning the values and norms of employees and the organisation in promoting their brands through delivering market tailor made program (external pressure). This good fit between employee values and the organisational culture inspires employees to remain committed and maintain organisational membership.

Additionally, employee retention can be enhanced by building strong organisational commitment. This calls for academic managers to establish mechanisms that promote organisational commitment, such as providing a conducive work environment, opportunities for career growth and development, job security, and supportive leadership. Typically, managers could gain such valuable information through exit interviews. The lessons drawn from this context could enable managers to identify areas for improvement in order to enhance employees' sense of belonging to the institution, thus prevent future staff exits.

From the conditional indirect effects results, this study suggests that boosting self-efficacy may increase academic staff members' sense of confidence in their abilities, improving their commitment and desire to stay in the university. Specifically, supervisors need to create a support system that offers mentorship, continuous feedback, set performance targets, continuous performance evaluation, and open communication as a means to encourage faculty members to engage in teaching, research, supervision, and community engagement. Once faculty confidence is improved, their attachment and desire to stay in the university will increase.

The findings of this study confirm that self-efficacy is an important attribute in the hiring process. Universities ought to revisit their HR recruitment, onboarding and promotion processes, to take into account confidence as key determinant of employee commitment and turnover intention. This resonates with Santhanam *et al.* (2017), who note that employee selection practises ensure that a person-organisational fit is achieved, which reduces the employee's intended turnover. While supervisors could boost self-efficacy through mentorship, coaching or training, it makes sense to stress 'quality at the gate' by selecting and promoting candidates who demonstrate initiative and confidence long before they become full members of the faculty.

5.3.3 Policy implications

National Council of Higher Education needs to develop a policy that requires universities to cultivate positive and inclusive organisational culture. This can be enhanced through policies that promote diversity, equity, and inclusion, as well as initiatives that recognise and celebrate the achievements and contributions of academic staff. A positive organizational culture can enhance employee commitment and self-efficacy, reducing turnover intention.

Further, NCHE should strengthen its oversight role under the quality assurance unit. This unit should ensure that universities operate with the required staff establishment and adhere to an established recruitment policy based on equality and merit so that the right calibre of staff is recruited. This could be checked by conducting field visits and regular surveys within higher education institutions to confirm compliance. These surveys can provide valuable insights into employee experiences, perceptions, and concerns, helping to identify areas for improvement. These survey results can be

shared with the respective universities to implement appropriate interventions to address cub issues that could lead to turnover intentions.

Given that all universities are required to drive economic transformation (vision 2040) under the National Planning Authority (NPA), they need to coordinate their activities with the laws and operational structures within the policy framework to deliver on their mandate. Under this, the NPA and Ministry of Labour need to develop a national labour policy that keeps inventory of labour statistics, including turnover in Uganda. This can be done in collaboration with the Ministry of Education to automate all human resource management systems. With digitalization in place, universities will keep track of HR processes, enhance human capital development, provide timely employee information, and make effective decisions.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Research

First, this study considered academic staff as a unit of analysis to provide related data, pausing the risk of common method bias (CMB). To eliminate possible CMB, this study could be replicated by involving multiple stakeholders (academic and non-academic staff) both in public and private universities.

This study found that self-efficacy did not have a direct effect on turnover intentions. Equally, self-efficacy did not significantly moderate the effect of organisational culture on commitment, which contradicts the findings of various previous social cognitive studies. This calls for further research to validate these findings in another industrial or geographical context.

Third, the study did not consider demographic variables as key predictors in the model. Based on the obtained results, tenure and type of institution explain significant

differences in turnover intention. Future scholars could explore institutional type and tenure in varied samples and contexts.

Likewise, our study had a cross-sectional design, capturing data at the realm of COVID-19 pandemic, which may restrict the generalisability of our findings. To gain an enduring impact on the variables of interest, a future tracer research approach could be beneficial. This approach would involve assessing turnover intentions both before and after the pandemic, aiding in the validation of our current results.

During the study, universities enforced strict COVID-19 guidelines, shifting teaching, learning, and assessment online for safety and efficiency. As result, the study relied on quantitative data due to limitations on physical interactions and interviews, resulting in a low response rate. Future research could benefit from a mixed-methods approach, combining quantitative data with qualitative methods like interviews and open-ended questions for deeper insights into turnover intentions, offering a more comprehensive understanding and robust research findings.

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Appendix 2: List of Universities in Uganda

Registry of Recognized Higher education Institutions in Uganda

Part A: Public Universities

<i>S/N</i>	<i>Name of Institution/ Address</i>	<i>Status</i>
1.	Makerere University Box 7062, Kampala	Public
2.	Mbarara University of Science & Technology Box 1410, Mbarara	Public
3.	Gulu University P.O. Box 166, Gulu	Public
4.	Kyambogo University P.O. Box 1, Kyambogo	Public
5.	Busitema University P.O. Box 236, Tororo	Public
6.	Kabale University P.O. Box 317, Kabale, Kikungiri	Public
7.	Lira University Plot 1162, Ayere Barapwo P.O. Box 1035, Lira	Public
8.	Soroti University Plot 50 & 51 Arapai P.O. Box 211, Soroti	Public
9.	Muni University P.O. Box 725 Arua, Uganda Tel: +256 476 420312/3/4; Fax: +256 476 420316 Email: ar@muni.ac.ug/www.muni.ac.ug	Public
10.	Mountains of the Moon University Box 837, Fort Portal, Kabarole	Public

Part B: Chartered private Universities

<i>S/N</i>	<i>Name of Institution/ Address</i>	<i>Status</i>
1.	Uganda Christian University Box 4, Mukono	<i>Private</i>
2.	Uganda Martyrs University P.O. Box 5498, Kampala Nkozi Campus	<i>Private</i>
3.	Nkumba University Box 237, Entebbe Abaita-Ababiri Campus, Entebbe	<i>Private</i>
4.	Kampala International University Box 20000, Kampala	<i>Private</i>
5.	Ndejje University P.O. Box 7088, Kampala Ndejje Campus	<i>Private</i>

6.	Bugema University 32Km along Gayaza - Ziobwe rd. P.O. Box: 6529 Kampala	Private
7.	Bishop Stuart University Buremba Kakoba Road P.O. Box 09, Mbarara, Uganda. Tel: +256 707 200703, +256 707 200717, +256 707 200707 Email: info@bsu.ac.ug, ar@bsu.ac.ug	Private
8.	African Bible University Box 71242, Kampala	
9.	ISBAT University	Private
10.	Kampala University Box 25454, Kampala	Private
11.	African Bible University	Private
12.	Victoria University info@vu.ac.ug	Private
13.	International University of East Africa Plot 1112/1121, Ggaba Road, P.O. Box 35502, Kampala	Private

Part C: Private University with their own Act of Parliament

<i>S/N</i>	<i>Name of Institution/ Address</i>	<i>Status</i>
1.	Islamic University in Uganda P.O. Box 2555, Mbale	Private

Part D: Private Universities –Provisional License

<i>S/N</i>	<i>Name of Institution/ Address</i>	<i>Status</i>
2.	Aga Khan University Box 8842, Kampala	Private
3.	Kumi University Box 178, Kumi	Private
4.	African Bible College of Uganda Box 71242, Kampala	Private
5.	Uganda Pentecostal University Box 249, Fort Portal	Private
6.	St. Lawrence University Box 24930, Kampala	Private
	Lugazi University Box 310, Lugazi	Private
7.	Muteesa I Royal University Box 14002, Kampala	Private
8.	All Saints University, Lango Box 6 Lira, Boroboro Hill	Private
9.	Clarke International University (Formerly International Health Sciences University) Plot 46/86 Kisugu Box 8177 Kampala	Private

10.	Cavendish University Nsambya Plot 1469 Ggaba Road, P.O Box 33145, Kampala	Private
11.	International University of East Africa Plot 1112/1121, Ggaba Road, P.O. Box 35502, Kampala	Private
12.	Victoria University Plot 1-13 Jinja Road P.O. Box 30866, Kampala Uganda	Private
13.	African Rural University P.O. Box 16523, Kampala	Private
14.	Islamic Call University College Plot 23/25 Old Kampala	Private
15.	Livingstone International University P.O. Box 994 Mbale	Private
16.	St. Augustine International University Bunga Hill, P.O. Box 88, Kampala, Uganda	Private
17.	Virtual University of Uganda P.O Box 26687, Kampala	Private
18.	Uganda Technology and Management University, P.O Box 73307, Kampala	Private
19.	African Renewal University (Formerly Gaba Bible Institute) Buloba, 10km Kampla-Mityana Road, P.O. Box 35138, Kampala	Private
20.	Ibanda University Ibanda Cell, Bufunda Ward, Ibanda Town Council, P.O. Box 35, Ibanda	Private
21.	University of Kisubi P.O.BOX 182, Entebbe, Uganda	Private
22.	Valley University of Science & Technology Plot 131, Block 2, Nyaruzinga Road. Bushenyi District P.O. Box 44 Bushenyi.	Private
23.	Team University P.O. Box 8128 Kampala	Private
24.	Great Lakes University 2 Km along Kihiihi Road Kanungu, Uganda	Private
25.	Ankole Western university Kabwohe Town Council, Sheema District P.O. BOX 112, Kabwohe-Sheema	Private
26.	University of the Sacred Heart Gulu 3 KM along Gulu-Juba Road, Bardege Division, P.O Box 374, Gulu	Private
27.	Metropolitan International University Plot 30, Kisoro-Kabale Road, Kisoro Municipality P.O. Box 162, Kisoro-Uganda	Private
28.	Avance International University Plot 3312, Block 203, Nabweru-Wakiso P.O. Box 12385, Kampala	Private
29.	Nile University (NiU) P.O. Box 141, Arua	Private

30.	Fins Medical University (FMU) Plot 40, Riverside Road, Kahungabunyonyi, Fort Portal Municipality. P.O. Box 909, Fort Portal	Private
31.	University of Saint Joseph Mbarara (USJM) PO. Box 218, Mbarara Tel: +256 772 065669, +256 705 706680 Email: usj@usj.ac.ug Website: www.usj.ac.ug	Private
32.	Limkokwing University of Creative Technology Plot 771/772, Block 165, Namataba P.O. Box 683, Mukono +60123733804/+256 774046070 gallp@limkokwing.educ.my / ihomex@gmail.com www.limkokwing.net	Private
33.	Equator University of Science and Technology (EQUaT) P.O. Box 37633 Kampala info@equsat.ac.ug 0702976933 0772443709 www.eqsat.ac.ug	Private
34.	Unicaf University P.O. Box 264, Kampala-Uganda info@uganda.unicafuniversity.com +256 773633097 +256 414 669086 https://unicafuniversity.com/learning-centres/uganda-learning-centre/	Private
35.	Rwenzori International University P.O. Box 80, Kasese. Tel: 0774440436/0757747852 info@riu.ac.ug	Private

Appendix 3: Moi SBE, Research Authorisation Letter



**MOI UNIVERSITY
POSTGRADUATE OFFICE
SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS**

Tel: 0790940508
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P.O. Box 3900
Eldoret.
Kenya

RE: MU/SBE/PGR/ACD/21B

DATE: 28th March, 2022

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: OPOLOT JULIUS SAMUEL - PHD/BM/8609/20

The above named is a bonafide student of Moi University, School of Business & Economics, undertaking **Doctor of Philosophy in Business Management** degree; specializing in **Human Resource Management**.

He has successfully completed coursework, defended his proposal, and is proceeding to the field to collect data for his research titled: "*Organizational Culture, Organizational Commitment, Self Efficacy and Turnover Intentions among Academic Staff in Selected Universities in Uganda*"

Any assistance accorded to him will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully,

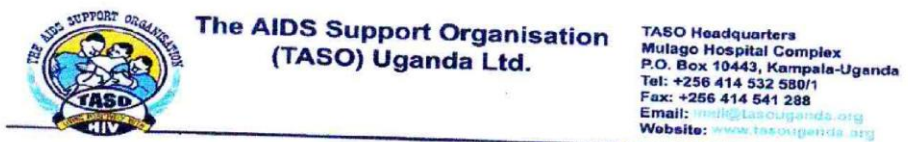
DR. RONALD BONUKE
ASSOCIATE DEAN AND CHAIR-POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

/pn



(ISO 9001:2015 Certified Institution)

Appendix 4: TASO-REC Letter



To: Julius Opolot

31/03/2023

Moi University
+256702829992

Type: Initial Review

Re: TASO-2022-194: Organisational culture, organizational commitment, self-efficacy and turnover intentions among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda, Three, 2023-03-30

I am pleased to inform you that at the 105th convened meeting on 31/03/2023, the The AIDS Support Organization (TASO) REC, committee meeting, etc voted to approve the above referenced application. Approval of the research is for the period of 31/03/2023 to 31/03/2024.

As Principal Investigator of the research, you are responsible for fulfilling the following requirements of approval:

1. All co-investigators must be kept informed of the status of the research.
2. Changes, amendments, and addenda to the protocol or the consent form must be submitted to the REC for re-review and approval **prior** to the activation of the changes.
3. Reports of unanticipated problems involving risks to participants or any new information which could change the risk benefit: ratio must be submitted to the REC.
4. Only approved consent forms are to be used in the enrollment of participants. All consent forms signed by participants and/or witnesses should be retained on file. The REC may conduct audits of all study records, and consent documentation may be part of such audits.
5. Continuing review application must be submitted to the REC **eight weeks** prior to the expiration date of **31/03/2024** in order to continue the study beyond the approved period. Failure to submit a continuing review application in a timely fashion may result in suspension or termination of the study.
6. The REC application number assigned to the research should be cited in any correspondence with the REC of record.
7. You are required to register the research protocol with the Uganda National Council for Science and Technology (UNCST) for final clearance to undertake the study in Uganda.

The following is the list of all documents approved in this application by The AIDS Support Organization (TASO) REC:

No.	Document Title	Language	Version Number	Version Date
1	Informed Consent forms	English	Three	2023-03-30
2	Protocol	English	Three	2023-03-30
3	Data collection tools	English	Three	2023-03-30
4	Budget	English	TWO	2023-02-23
5	Data letter MOI	English	TWO	2023-02-23
6	CONFLICT OF INTEREST	English	TWO	2023-02-23
7	COVID-19 & EBOLA risk management plan for the study	English	TWO	2023-02-23
8	CVs of the investigators	English	1	2022-12-13
9	Data collection letter MOI university	English	1	2022-12-14



Appendix 5: Research Consent/Assent Form

RESEARCH CONSENT/ASSENT Form

Title of the research project: Organisational Culture, Organisational Commitment, Self-efficacy and Turnover Intentions among academic staff in Chartered universities in Uganda

Institution (Address)	Contact	Investigator(s)
Moi University, Kenya	+256702829992	Julius Samuel Opolot (Lead researcher)
Moi University, Kenya	+254721330358	Dr Stanley Kipsang (Supervisor)
Moi University, Kenya	+254722287932	Prof Charles Lagat (Supervisor)

Who is carrying out the study and what is it about?

The study is being carried out as part of meeting the academic requirement for the award of PhD in Business Management (HR option) of Moi University, Kenya. The seeks to examine turnover intention and its determinants in chartered universities in Uganda.

Purpose:

I am Julius Samuel Opolot from Moi University, Box 3900, Eldoret-Kenya, Tel +256702-829992/+25494-581455, and Email: jsopolot@gmail.com. You are being recruited to join this academic research. The purpose of this study is to examine the interaction effect of organizational culture, organizational commitment and self-efficacy on turnover intentions among academic staff in Uganda. Your involvement will contribute to understanding how retention of academic staff can be enhanced.

Are there risks or disadvantages for those involved?

This survey takes approximately 30-40 minutes. Besides the time spent to respond to the survey, there are no anticipated risks to the participants. To avoid any indirect costs during this exercise, university management approval through heads of departments has been sought and your required to participate during official work hours in your respective offices and staffrooms to enhance privacy. At the end you will be compensated with UGX 15,000 for your time.

Are there any advantages for those involved and society?

There will be no direct benefit to you, but your direct participation is likely to help us find out more about how Organisational culture, Organisational commitment and Self-efficacy influence turnover intentions, thus informing policy and practices on improving staff retention. Besides, future researchers may use the study findings as their reference resource. For purposes of confidentiality, information shared will not identify the respondents. All personal details like names and titles will be removed and replaced with specific codes for easy trace. Future researchers seeking to use information, will required to formally get approval from a local REC and UNSCT as means to protect the participants and their institutions.

Who has allowed this study?

This study has been formally reviewed and approved by School of business, Moi University and TASO Research and Ethics Committee (TASO-REC) an accredited centre that is mandated to make sure that the researcher upholds ethical considerations and the research participants are protected from any potential harm. If you have any questions, regarding your rights as a participant



or wish to find out more about TASO-REC, contact the Chairperson, Dr. Adrian Jjuuko, P.O. Box 10443 Kampala Tel: +256782169505.

Certificate of Consent

..... has described to me what is going to be done, the risks, the benefits involved and my rights regarding this study. I understand that my decision to participate in this study will not alter my usual medical care. In the use of this information, my identity will be concealed. I am aware that I may withdraw at any time. I understand that by signing this form, I do not waive any of my legal rights but merely indicate that I have been informed about the research study in which I am voluntarily agreeing to participate. A copy of this form will be provided to me.

NameSignature/thumb print of participantDate

NameSignature of person obtaining informed consent
.....Date



Appendix 6: UNCST Permit



Uganda National Council for Science and Technology
(Established by Act of Parliament of the Republic of Uganda)

Our Ref: SS1898ES

27 September 2023

Julius Opolot
Makerere University Business School
Kampala

Re: Research Approval: **Organisational culture, organizational commitment, self-efficacy and turnover intentions among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda**

I am pleased to inform you that on 27/09/2023, the Uganda National Council for Science and Technology (UNCST) approved the above referenced research project. The Approval of the research project is for the period of 27/09/2023 to 27/09/2024.

Your research registration number with the UNCST is SS1898ES. Please, cite this number in all your future correspondences with UNCST in respect of the above research project. As the Principal Investigator of the research project, you are responsible for fulfilling the following requirements of approval:

1. Keeping all co-investigators informed of the status of the research.
2. Submitting all changes, amendments, and addenda to the research protocol or the consent form (where applicable) to the designated Research Ethics Committee (REC) or Lead Agency for re-review and approval prior to the activation of the changes. UNCST must be notified of the approved changes within five working days.
3. For clinical trials, all serious adverse events must be reported promptly to the designated local REC for review with copies to the National Drug Authority and a notification to the UNCST.
4. Unanticipated problems involving risks to research participants or other must be reported promptly to the UNCST. New information that becomes available which could change the risk/benefit ratio must be submitted promptly for UNCST notification after review by the REC.
5. Only approved study procedures are to be implemented. The UNCST may conduct impromptu audits of all study records.
6. An annual progress report and approval letter of continuation from the REC must be submitted electronically to UNCST. Failure to do so may result in termination of the research project.

Please note that this approval includes all study related tools submitted as part of the application as shown below:

No.	Document Title	Language	Version Number	Version Date
1	Moi Data collection	ENGLISH	THREE	04 July 2023
2	Covid Mitigation	ENGLISH	THREE	04 July 2023
3	Project Proposal	English	THREE	
4	Approval Letter	English		
5	Administrative Clearance	English		
5	Consent	ENGLISH	Three	11 August 2023
6	Covid Mitigation	ENGLISH	Two	11 August 2023

Yours sincerely,

Hellen Opolot
For: Executive Secretary
UGANDA NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Appendix 7: Academic RESEARCH Questionnaire

MOI UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS

Academic Research Questionnaire

Dear respondent,

You have been chosen as a key respondent in this research study titled: “**Organisational Culture, Organisational Commitment, and Self-efficacy on Turnover Intentions among academic staff in Universities in Uganda**”. You are kindly requested to spare some few minutes of your valuable time and appropriately respond to this questionnaire. All information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality and used specifically for academic purposes.

Thank you for your kind participation.



SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Please tick on the most appropriate as applicable to you

1. Age Below 30 [] 31-40 [] 41-50 [] 51-60 [] 60+ []
2. Gender Male [] Female []
3. How long have you worked with the University?
Less than 1 [] 1-5 [] 6-10 [] 11-15 [] 16-20 [] Above 20 []
4. Education Completed
Bachelor Degree [] Master Degree [] PhD []
5. Academic rank
Professor [] Assoc. Professor [] Senior Lecturer []
Lecturer [] Assistant Lecturer [] Teaching Assistant []
6. Type of institution
Public [] Private []

Instructions:

For all the questions that follow, please tick once for each statement regarding your future intentions to quit your university on a seven (7) rating scale interpreted below.

Strong Disagree (SD)	Disagree (D)	Somewhat disagree (SWD)	Neutral (N)	Somewhat agree (SWA)	Agree (A)	Strongly Agree (SA)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION A: TURNOVER INTENTIONS

Please tick a number that best describes your possible intention to quit the university.

I	TURNOVER INTENTIONS	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
11	I am planning to look for a new job outside to the education sector.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I often think of starting my own business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Lately, I have taken an interest in job offers in the newspaper	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I am emotionally agitated when arriving home after work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I don't think I will spend my entire career with this university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	I am keenly searching for an alternative job in another university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	I frequently consider working in another university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

TI8	I think a lot about leaving the university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
TI9	In the next few years, I will leave the university	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
TI10	I will leave my job as soon as I get another job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
TI11	I sometimes put in less effort in my work than I know I can	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
TI12	Sometimes I postpone important duties for an unlimited period of time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
TI13	Continuation with my present job will not fulfill my life expectation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
TI16	I am most certainly going to look for a new job in the very near future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION B: ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements regarding the way how things are done in your university.

STATEMENTS		SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
CLAN CULTURE (<i>family like environment that is collaborative</i>)		SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
CC1	My university is a place that accommodates every staff regardless of their origin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CC2	The academic staff in my university share a lot of things in common.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CC3	The academic staff are bound together by the university's values and customs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CC4	My university emphasizes high degree of cohesion among staff in achieving university mission.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CC5	Academic staff in our university exchange ideas freely and openly with each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CC6	My university spearheads human development for staff career growth.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ADHOCRACY CULTURE (<i>ability to adopt quickly to change</i>)		SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
AC1	My university is responsive to changes in the business environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AC2	My university adopts entrepreneurial business practices in its way of operations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AC3	My university management is considered as an innovator and risk taker.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AC4	In my university academic staff are encouraged to be creative.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AC5	My university is committed to innovation and development as a way of promoting service excellence.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AC6	My university defines success on the basis of unique study programs and schedules.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HIERARCHY CULTURE (<i>having controls in place to guide actions</i>)		SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
HC1	My university has clear formal structure that guide the academic and administrative functions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HC2	My university has written policies and procedures that guides staff actions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HC3	My university enforces policies and procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HC4	Academic staff in my university follow established rules, policies, and procedures for smooth-running of operations and performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HC5	My supervisor organizes and coordinates academic and administrative activities of the department.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HC6	My university conforms to the necessary laws for employment stability.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



	MARKET CULTURE (<i>emphasizing competitiveness</i>)	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
MC1	My university prides itself being a market leader compared to other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MC2	My university leadership is proficient in driving university plans and strategy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MC3	My university emphasizes competition as a mean of measuring achievement of its mission.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MC4	Academic staff share a common orientation towards the university vision and mission.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MC5	My university is bound together by task and goal accomplishment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MC6	My university gains competitiveness in the marketplace through tailor made academic programs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Read each of the statements and answer by ticking in the appropriate category that best describes your level of connection or bond with your university.

	STATEMENTS							
	AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT (<i>emotional attachment</i>)	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
AOC1	I am very happy being a member of this university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AOC2	I enjoy providing relevant information about my university to people outside it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AOC3	I really feel as if this university's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AOC4	I am part of the family of this university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AOC5	I feel emotionally attached to this university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AOC6	This university has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AOC7	I feel a strong sense of belonging in this university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	NORMATIVE COMMITMENT (<i>sense of obligation to stay</i>)	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
NOC1	I feel obliged to remain working in this university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NOC2	I do not feel like leaving the university right now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NOC3	I would feel guilty if I left this university now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NOC4	This university deserves my loyalty.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NOC5	I would not leave my university right now because of my sense of obligation to it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NOC6	I owe a great deal to this university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT (<i>perceived costs of leaving</i>)	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
COC1	I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job in this University without having another one lined up	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
COC2	It would be very hard for me to leave my job at this university right now even if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
COC3	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I leave this university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
COC4	Right now, staying on my job at this university is a matter of necessity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
COC5	I believe there too few options to consider leaving this university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
COC6	It would be too costly for me to leave this university right now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION D: SELF-EFFICACY

Please tick a number on each item that best indicates your current belief in the ability to achieve a task or accomplish a goal (Bandura, 2001; Haddad & Taleb, 2016)

SE	SELF EFFICACY							
EM	ENACTIVE MASTERY (<i>is the recollection of the past experiences</i>)	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
EM1	I effectively teach courses in my area of specialization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



EM2	My experience has helped me become a better facilitator.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EM3	My academic experience has improved my teaching style.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EM4	My academic experience has enabled me increase my self-confidence.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EM5	I successfully conduct research in my area of specialization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EM6	I diligently supervise research students.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VE	VICARIOUS EXPERIENCE (observations of others similar to the individual engaged in the task)	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
VE1	I have a career mentor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VE2	I try to model my behaviour after my mentor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VE3	I admire my mentor's ability to motivate others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VE4	I am influenced by observing role models in my area of specialty.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VE5	I use approaches of my mentors to execute tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VP	VERBAL /SOCIAL PERSUASION (judgments or opinions provided by others)	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
VP1	My peers often encourage me to execute my job tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VP2	My supervisor often encourages me to execute my job tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VP3	My family members often encourage me to execute my job tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VP4	My friends often encourage me to execute my job tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VP5	My students think I am a good facilitator (lecturer).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VP11	I am encouraged to work hard to increase students' self- esteem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PA	PHYSIOLOGICAL AROUSAL (<i>Mood, emotional and physical responses in taxing circumstances</i>)	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
PA1	My physic is fit for the execution of my job tasks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PA2	My mental state is fit for the execution of my job tasks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PA3	My emotional state is fit for the execution of my job tasks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PA4	I am swift at executing my tasks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you for your co-operation



Appendix 8: Summary of Pilot Construct Validity and Reliability Test

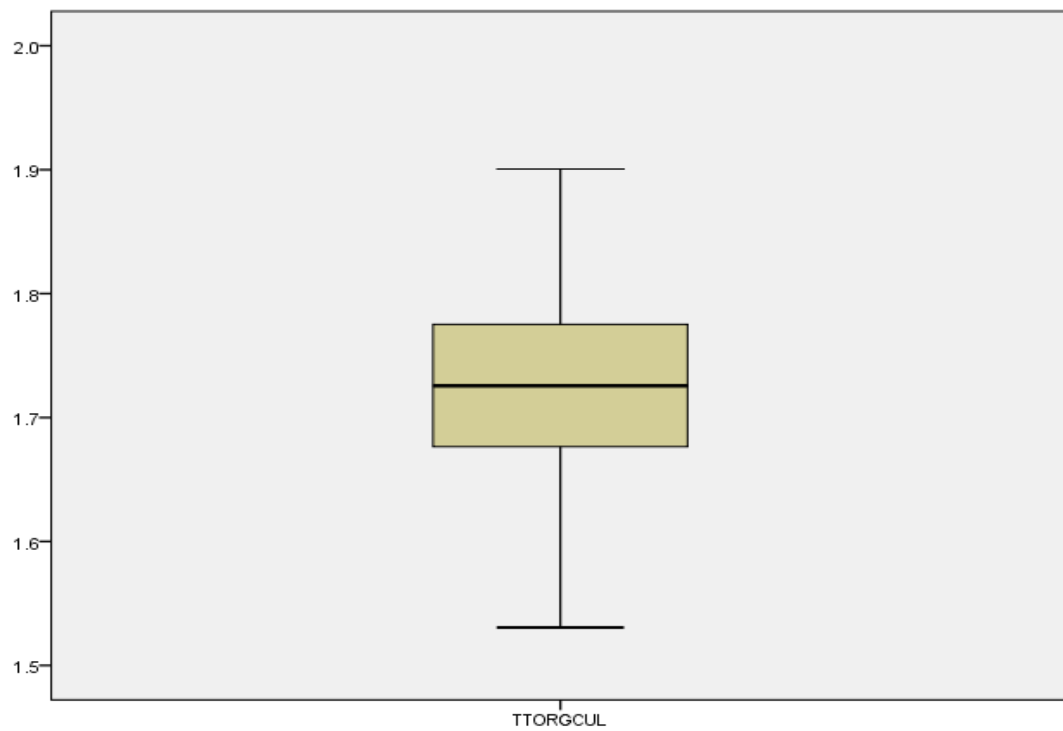
Constructs	Dimensions	No. of Items	KMO	Eigen value	% of Variance	Cum. %	Cronbach (α)
Turnover Intention	Intent to leave	14	.74	5.815	41.533	41.533	.88
	Clan Culture	6		9.241	38.504		
Organisational Culture	Adhocracy Culture	6	.77	2.367	9.864	60.339	.93
	Hierarchy Culture	6		1.476	6.149		
	Market Culture	6		1.397	5.823		
Organisational Commitment	Affective Commitment	7	.69	5.898	32.767	59.786	.76
	Normative Commitment	6		3.072	17.067		
	Continuance Commitment	6		1.792	9.955		
Self-efficacy	Enactive Mastery	6	.73	9.128	46.642	73.213	.93
	Vicarious Experience	5		2.127	10.633		
	Verbal Persuasion	5		1.841	9.207		
	Physiological Arousal	4		1.546	7.731		
	Total	77					

Appendix 9: Stem and Leaf Univariate Outlier Analysis

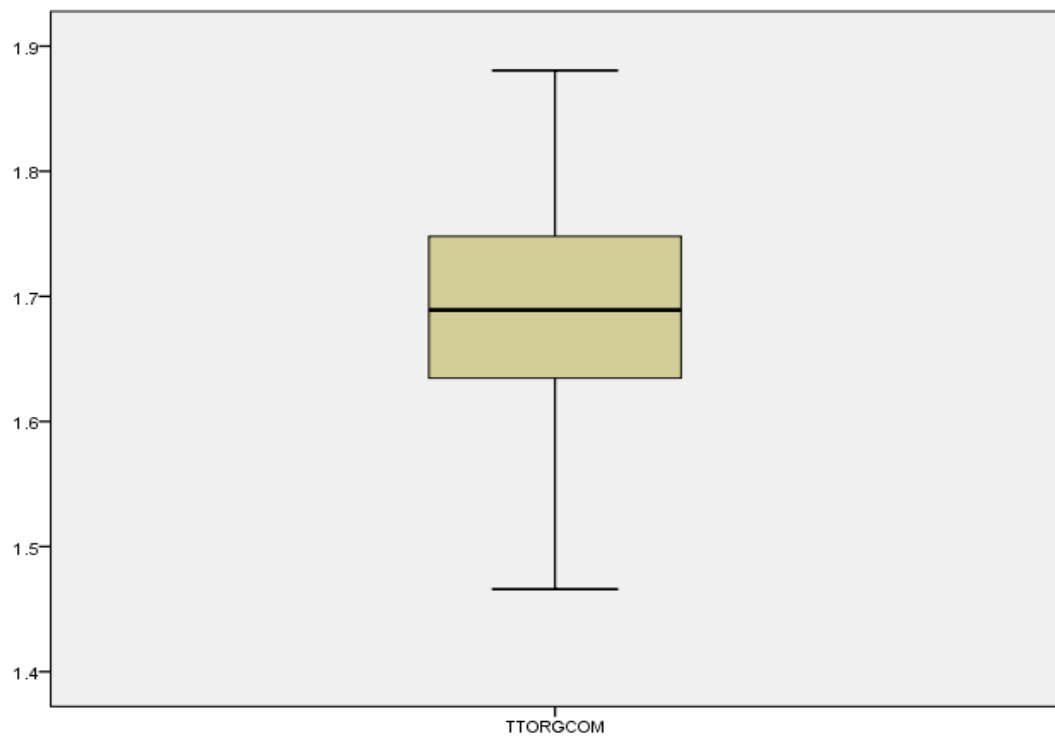
Turnover intention



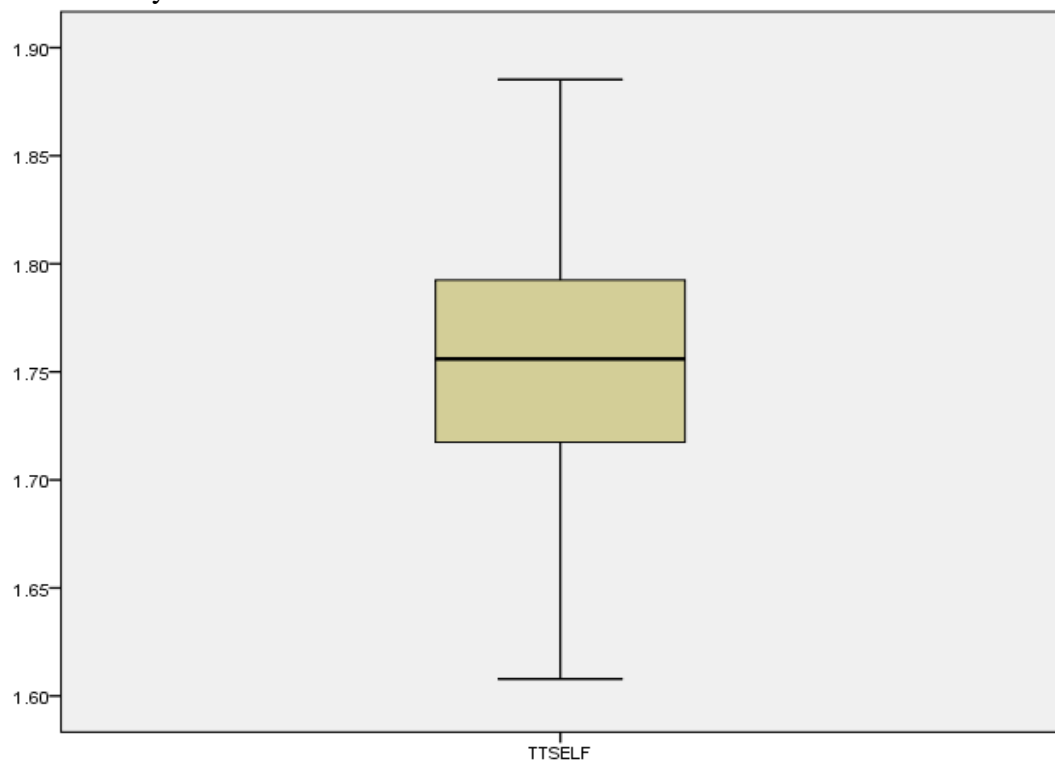
Organisational culture



Organisational commitment



Self-efficacy



Appendix 10: Harman's Single Factor Test for Common Method Bias

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	17.128	22.245	22.245	16.414	21.317	21.317
2	5.802	7.535	29.779			
3	4.857	6.308	36.087			
4	3.052	3.963	40.050			
5	2.709	3.519	43.569			
6	2.434	3.161	46.730			
7	1.930	2.507	49.237			
8	1.632	2.119	51.356			
9	1.513	1.965	53.321			
10	1.382	1.795	55.116			
11	1.322	1.717	56.833			
12	1.256	1.632	58.465			
13	1.224	1.589	60.054			
14	1.154	1.499	61.552			
15	1.105	1.435	62.988			
16	1.035	1.345	64.332			
17	.958	1.245	65.577			
18	.910	1.181	66.759			
19	.875	1.137	67.895			
20	.868	1.127	69.022			
21	.812	1.055	70.077			
22	.788	1.023	71.101			
23	.751	.975	72.076			
24	.743	.965	73.040			
25	.729	.947	73.988			
26	.694	.901	74.889			
27	.684	.888	75.778			
28	.670	.871	76.648			
29	.651	.846	77.494			
30	.644	.837	78.330			
31	.631	.820	79.150			
32	.596	.775	79.925			
33	.585	.759	80.684			
34	.572	.743	81.427			
35	.563	.731	82.158			
36	.537	.697	82.855			
37	.516	.670	83.525			
38	.504	.655	84.180			
39	.496	.645	84.824			
40	.480	.623	85.447			
41	.467	.607	86.054			
42	.458	.595	86.649			
43	.443	.576	87.225			
44	.440	.571	87.796			
45	.439	.570	88.366			
46	.418	.543	88.909			
47	.409	.531	89.440			
48	.402	.522	89.962			
49	.376	.488	90.450			
50	.374	.485	90.936			
51	.369	.479	91.415			
52	.364	.472	91.887			
53	.353	.459	92.346			
54	.347	.451	92.797			
55	.337	.438	93.235			
56	.331	.430	93.664			
57	.321	.417	94.082			
58	.311	.404	94.485			
59	.290	.377	94.862			
60	.288	.375	95.237			
61	.284	.369	95.605			
62	.272	.354	95.959			
63	.269	.350	96.309			
64	.258	.336	96.644			
65	.251	.326	96.970			
66	.247	.321	97.291			
67	.241	.313	97.604			
68	.229	.298	97.901			
69	.225	.292	98.193			

70	.212	.276	98.469		
71	.211	.274	98.743		
72	.202	.262	99.005		
73	.188	.244	99.250		
74	.178	.231	99.481		
75	.161	.209	99.689		
76	.141	.183	99.872		
77	.098	.128	100.000		

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Appendix 11: Mahalanobis Distance multivariate outliers' analysis

Residuals Statistics ^a					
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	4.8749	5.9756	5.2595	.15880	578
Std. Predicted Value	-2.422	4.509	.000	1.000	578
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.034	.216	.062	.024	578
Adjusted Predicted Value	4.8754	6.0138	5.2601	.15964	578
Residual	-3.40700	1.67504	.00000	.79562	578
Std. Residual	-4.271	2.100	.000	.997	578
Stud. Residual	-4.289	2.104	.000	1.001	578
Deleted Residual	-3.43546	1.68148	-.00054	.80102	578
Stud. Deleted Residual	-4.355	2.110	-.001	1.004	578
Mahal. Distance	.049	41.372	2.995	3.754	578
Cook's Distance	.000	.052	.002	.004	578
Centered Leverage Value	.000	.072	.005	.007	578

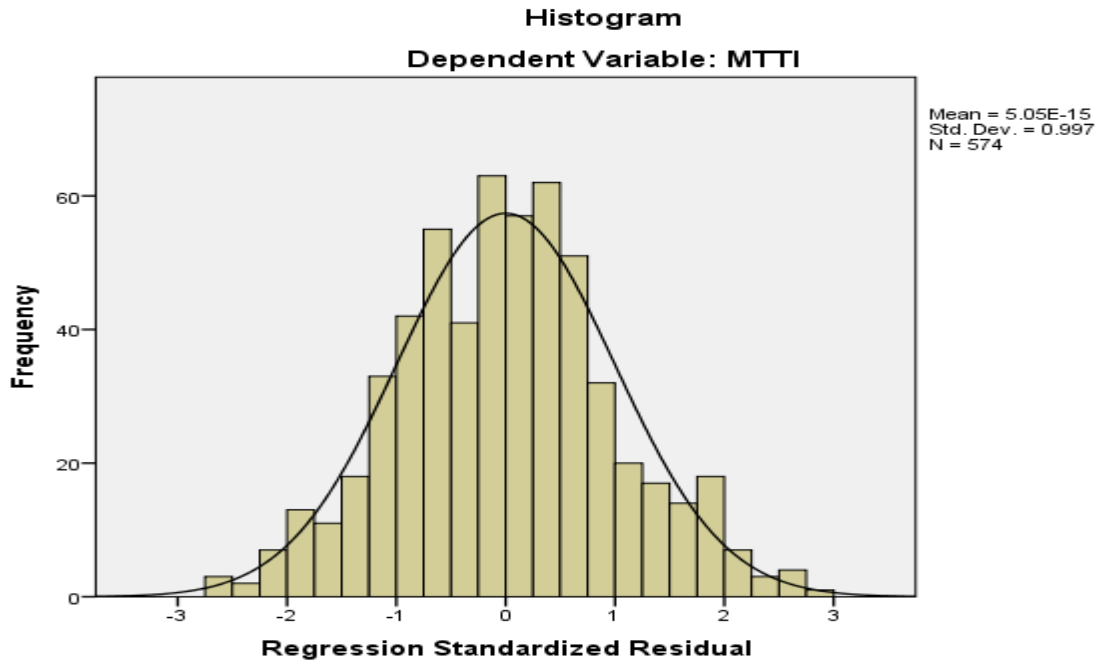
a. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

Appendix 12: Test of Normality

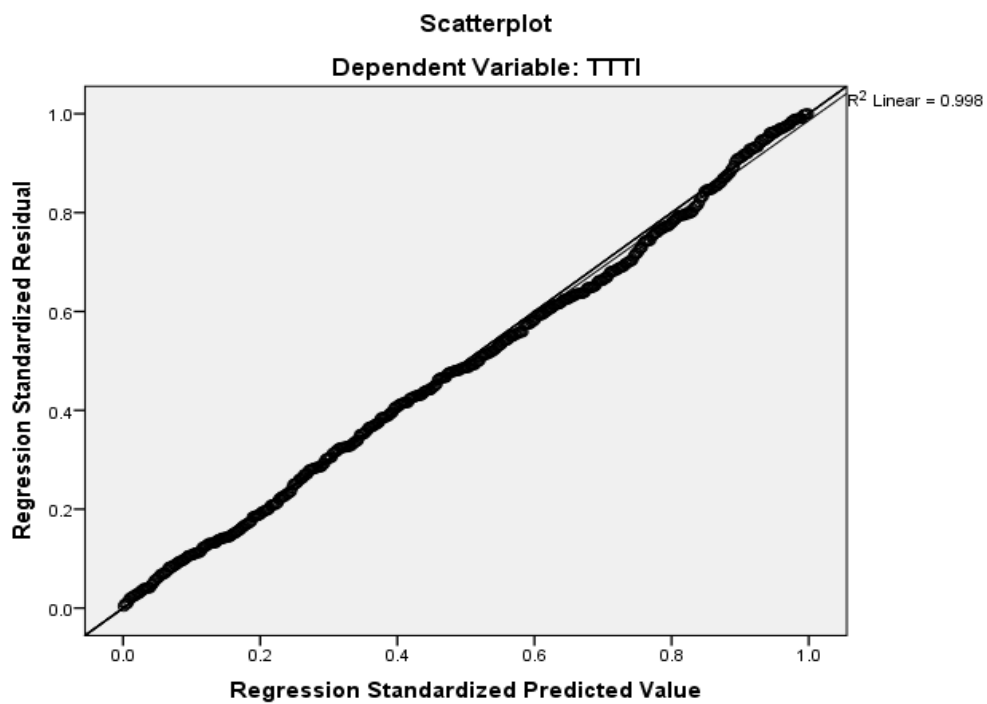
Appendix 12A: Histogram of the Dependent Variable against the Regression

Standardized Residuals

Dependent Variable: Turnover intention



Appendix 12B: P-P Plot



Appendix 13: Test of Linearity

Appendix 13A: Zero-Order Correlation Matrix

			1	2	3	4
Turnover intention (Rehman <i>et al.</i>)	Pearson Correlation		1	-.305**	-.325**	-.228**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000
	N		574	574	574	574
Organisational culture (2)	Pearson Correlation		-.305**	1	.640**	.455**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000		.000	.000
	N		574	574	574	574
Organisational commitment (3)	Pearson Correlation		-.325**	.640**	1	.343**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000		.000
	N		574	574	574	574
Self-efficacy (4)	Pearson Correlation		-.228**	.455**	.343**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	
	N		574	574	574	574

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

Appendix 13B: ANOVA Model Test Result

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.686	3	.895	28.190	.000 ^b
	Residual	18.101	570	.032		
	Total	20.786	573			

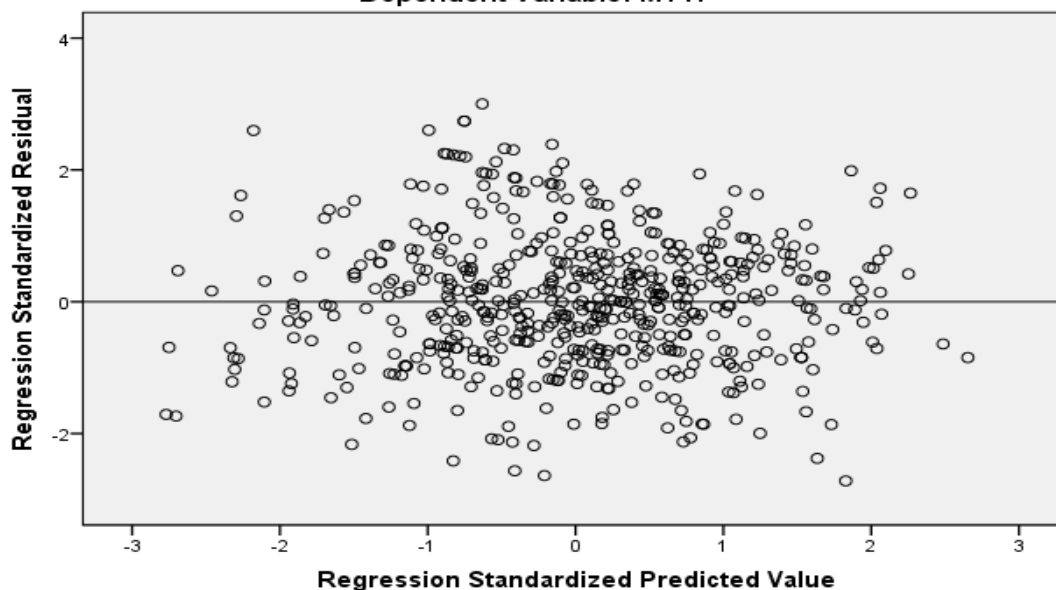
a. Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention

Appendix 13C: The P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residuals

Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: MTTI



Appendix 14: Test of Multicollinearity

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Zopiatis <i>et al.</i>)	3.408	.261		13.046	.000		
	Organisational culture	-.326	.141	-.124	-2.304	.022	.527	1.897
	Organisational commit	-.532	.128	-.212	-4.153	.000	.587	1.704
	Self-efficacy	-.352	.157	-.099	-2.245	.025	.789	1.268

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

Appendix 15: Durbin-Watson Test for independence of error terms

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.756 ^a	.572	.567	.31830	.572	112.192	3	252	.000	1.883

a. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Organisational Learning, Innovativeness, CEO Openness Value

b. Dependent Variable: Sustainability Performance

Appendix 16: Test Results of the Direct Effects on Turnover intention

Model Summary^j

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.031 ^a	.001	-.001	.19054	.001	.543	1	572	.461	
2	.039 ^b	.002	-.002	.19065	.001	.348	1	571	.556	
3	.200 ^c	.040	.035	.18710	.039	22.882	1	570	.000	
4	.208 ^d	.043	.036	.18696	.003	1.819	1	569	.178	
5	.211 ^e	.045	.036	.18699	.001	.831	1	568	.362	
6	.489 ^f	.239	.231	.16698	.195	145.324	1	567	.000	
7	.532 ^g	.283	.274	.16227	.044	34.400	1	566	.000	
8	.550 ^h	.303	.293	.16015	.020	16.028	1	565	.000	
9	.553 ⁱ	.306	.295	.15997	.003	2.284	1	564	.131	1.684

a. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender

b. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender, Age

c. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender, Age, Tenure

d. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender, Age, Tenure, Education

e. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender, Age, Tenure, Education, Academic rank

f. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender, Age, Tenure, Education, Academic rank, Type of institution

g. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender, Age, Tenure, Education, Academic rank, Type of institution, Culture

h. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender, Age, Tenure, Education, Academic rank, Type of institution, Culture, Commitment

i. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender, Age, Tenure, Education, Academic rank, Type of institution, Culture, Commitment, self-efficacy

j. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.020	1	.020	.543	.461 ^b
	Residual	20.767	572	.036		
	Total	20.786	573			
2	Regression	.032	2	.016	.445	.641 ^c
	Residual	20.754	571	.036		
	Total	20.786	573			
3	Regression	.833	3	.278	7.935	.000 ^d
	Residual	19.953	570	.035		
	Total	20.786	573			
4	Regression	.897	4	.224	6.415	.000 ^e
	Residual	19.890	569	.035		
	Total	20.786	573			
5	Regression	.926	5	.185	5.297	.000 ^f
	Residual	19.860	568	.035		
	Total	20.786	573			

6	Regression	4.978	6	.830	29.756	.000 ^g
	Residual	15.809	567	.028		
	Total	20.786	573			
7	Regression	5.884	7	.841	31.922	.000 ^h
	Residual	14.903	566	.026		
	Total	20.786	573			
8	Regression	6.295	8	.787	30.677	.000 ⁱ
	Residual	14.492	565	.026		
	Total	20.786	573			
9	Regression	6.353	9	.706	27.584	.000 ^j
	Residual	14.433	564	.026		
	Total	20.786	573			

a. Dependent Variable: TTTI

b. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender

c. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender, Age

d. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender, Age, Tenure

e. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender, Age, Tenure, Education

f. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender, Age, Tenure, Education, Academic rank

g. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender, Age, Tenure, Education, Academic rank, Type of institution

h. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender, Age, Tenure, Education, Academic rank, Type of institution, Culture

i. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender, Age, Tenure, Education, Academic rank, Type of institution, Culture, Commitment

j. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Gender, Age, Tenure, Education, Academic rank, Type of institution, Culture, Commitment, self-efficacy

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1 (Zopiatis <i>et al.</i>)	1.347	.024		56.360	.000		
Gender	-.012	.017	-.031	-.737	.461	1.000	1.000
2 (Zopiatis <i>et al.</i>)	1.361	.033		40.653	.000		
Gender	-.012	.017	-.031	-.739	.460	1.000	1.000
Age	-.006	.009	-.025	-.590	.556	1.000	1.000
3 (Zopiatis <i>et al.</i>)	1.417	.035		40.618	.000		
Gender	-.007	.016	-.016	-.399	.690	.995	1.005
Age	.024	.011	.105	2.135	.033	.696	1.436
Tenure	-.040	.008	-.236	-4.784	.000	.694	1.441
4 (Zopiatis <i>et al.</i>)	1.437	.038		37.824	.000		
Gender	-.007	.016	-.017	-.409	.683	.995	1.006
Age	.029	.012	.131	2.482	.013	.602	1.660
Tenure	-.036	.009	-.210	-3.979	.000	.604	1.657
Education	-.022	.016	-.072	-1.349	.178	.595	1.681
5 (Zopiatis <i>et al.</i>)	1.432	.038		37.203	.000		
Gender	-.008	.016	-.020	-.474	.636	.989	1.011
Age	.033	.013	.148	2.644	.008	.538	1.860
Tenure	-.034	.009	-.197	-3.592	.000	.561	1.783
Education	-.014	.019	-.044	-.718	.473	.448	2.231
Academic rank	-.010	.011	-.062	-.912	.362	.368	2.719
6 (Zopiatis <i>et al.</i>)	1.145	.042		27.414	.000		
Gender	.003	.015	.007	.197	.844	.986	1.015
Age	.015	.011	.068	1.352	.177	.528	1.893
Tenure	-.016	.009	-.093	-1.870	.062	.544	1.838
Education	.017	.017	.055	.987	.324	.438	2.281
Academic rank	-.031	.010	-.188	-3.060	.002	.357	2.800
Type of institution	.189	.016	.460	12.055	.000	.922	1.085

7	(Zopiatis <i>et al.</i>)	2.148	.176		12.225	.000		
	Gender	.002	.014	.004	.115	.908	.985	1.015
	Age	.014	.011	.064	1.315	.189	.528	1.893
	Tenure	-.021	.008	-.124	-2.547	.011	.538	1.860
	Education	.021	.017	.068	1.273	.204	.438	2.285
	Academic rank	-.027	.010	-.160	-2.679	.008	.355	2.818
	Type of institution	.168	.016	.409	10.749	.000	.875	1.143
	Culture	-.567	.097	-.216	-5.865	.000	.935	1.069
8	(Zopiatis <i>et al.</i>)	2.404	.185		13.006	.000		
	Gender	7.884E-5	.014	.000	.006	.996	.985	1.016
	Age	.019	.011	.084	1.730	.084	.523	1.913
	Tenure	-.021	.008	-.120	-2.514	.012	.538	1.860
	Education	.022	.016	.073	1.369	.172	.437	2.286
	Academic rank	-.029	.010	-.174	-2.948	.003	.354	2.828
	Type of institution	.163	.015	.398	10.561	.000	.870	1.150
	Culture	-.261	.122	-.099	-2.134	.033	.569	1.756
	Commitment	-.464	.116	-.185	-4.004	.000	.578	1.730
9	(Zopiatis <i>et al.</i>)	2.659	.250		10.644	.000		
	Gender	.001	.014	.001	.041	.967	.984	1.016
	Age	.018	.011	.080	1.637	.102	.521	1.920
	Tenure	-.021	.008	-.120	-2.501	.013	.538	1.860
	Education	.024	.016	.077	1.444	.149	.436	2.292
	Academic rank	-.030	.010	-.178	-3.009	.003	.353	2.832
	Type of institution	.161	.016	.393	10.412	.000	.864	1.158
	Culture	-.200	.128	-.076	-1.559	.120	.514	1.945
	Commitment	-.452	.116	-.180	-3.886	.000	.575	1.740
	Self-efficacy	-.215	.142	-.060	-1.511	.131	.772	1.295

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

Appendix 16A: Test results of the direct effects on organisational commitment

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.226 ^a	.051	.041	.07430	.051	5.078	6	567	.000	
2	.650 ^b	.422	.415	.05803	.371	363.471	1	566	.000	
3	.652 ^c	.425	.417	.05793	.003	3.067	1	565	.080	1.782

a. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Type of institution, Education, Gender, Tenure, Age, Academic rank

b. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Type of institution, Education, Gender, Tenure, Age, Academic rank, Culture

c. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Type of institution, Education, Gender, Tenure, Age, Academic rank, Culture, Self-efficacy

d. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.168	6	.028	5.078	.000 ^b
	Residual	3.130	567	.006		
	Total	3.298	573			
2	Regression	1.392	7	.199	59.059	.000 ^c
	Residual	1.906	566	.003		
	Total	3.298	573			
3	Regression	1.403	8	.175	52.249	.000 ^d
	Residual	1.896	565	.003		
	Total	3.298	573			

a. Dependent Variable: Organisational commitment

b. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Type of institution, Education, Gender, Tenure, Age, Academic rank

c. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Type of institution, Education, Gender, Tenure, Age, Academic rank, Organisational culture

d. Predictors: (Zopiatis *et al.*), Type of institution, Education, Gender, Tenure, Age, Academic rank, Organisational culture, self-efficacy

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Zopiatis <i>et al.</i>)	1.718	.019		92.416	.000		
	Gender	-.005	.007	-.030	-.738	.461	.986	1.015
	Age	.009	.005	.095	1.696	.090	.528	1.893
	Tenure	-.005	.004	-.073	-1.312	.190	.544	1.838
	Education	.008	.008	.063	1.027	.305	.438	2.281
	Academic rank	.000	.005	.004	.062	.951	.357	2.800
	Type of institution	-.034	.007	-.209	-4.902	.000	.922	1.085
2	(Zopiatis <i>et al.</i>)	.553	.063		8.794	.000		
	Gender	-.003	.005	-.021	-.659	.510	.985	1.015
	Age	.010	.004	.106	2.420	.016	.528	1.893
	Tenure	.001	.003	.017	.390	.697	.538	1.860
	Education	.003	.006	.023	.474	.636	.438	2.285
	Academic rank	-.005	.004	-.076	-1.416	.157	.355	2.818
	Type of institution	-.010	.006	-.061	-1.783	.075	.875	1.143
	Organisational culture	.659	.035	.630	19.065	.000	.935	1.069
3	(Zopiatis <i>et al.</i>)	.443	.089		5.007	.000		
	Gender	-.004	.005	-.022	-.698	.486	.985	1.015
	Age	.010	.004	.111	2.515	.012	.527	1.899
	Tenure	.001	.003	.016	.370	.711	.538	1.860
	Education	.002	.006	.019	.385	.700	.436	2.291
	Academic rank	-.005	.004	-.072	-1.341	.181	.354	2.823
	Type of institution	-.009	.006	-.056	-1.625	.105	.868	1.152
	Organisational culture	.630	.038	.602	16.477	.000	.761	1.314
	Self-efficacy	.090	.051	.063	1.751	.080	.776	1.288

a. Dependent Variable: Organisational commitment

**Appendix 17: Mediation effect of organisational commitment in the relationship
between organisational culture and turnover intention**

Run MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.2 beta *****

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2022).
www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model : 4
Y : TTTI
X : TTORGCUL
M : TTORGCOM

Covariates:

Gender Age Tenure Educatio Rank Type

Sample

Size: 574

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

TTORGCOM

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.650	.422	.003	59.059	7.000	566.000	.000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	.553	.063	8.794	.000	.429	.676
TTORGCUL	.659	.035	19.065	.000	.591	.727
Gender	-.003	.005	-.659	.510	-.013	.007
Age	.010	.004	2.420	.016	.002	.017
Tenure	.001	.003	.390	.697	-.005	.007
Educatio	.003	.006	.474	.636	-.009	.014
Rank	-.005	.004	-1.416	.157	-.012	.002
Type	-.010	.006	-1.783	.075	-.021	.001

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
TTORGCUL	.630
Gender	-.021
Age	.106
Tenure	.017
Educatio	.023
Rank	-.076
Type	-.061

Covariance matrix of regression parameter estimates:

	constant	TTORGCUL	Gender	Age	Tenure	Educatio	Rank	Type
constant	.004	-.002	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
TTORGCUL	-.002	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Gender	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Age	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Tenure	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Educatio	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Rank	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Type	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

TTTI

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.550	.303	.026	30.677	8.000	565.000	.000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.404	.185	13.006	.000	2.041	2.768
TTORGCUL	-.261	.122	-2.134	.033	-.501	-.021
TTORGCOM	-.464	.116	-4.004	.000	-.692	-.2
			37			
Gender	.000	.014	.006	.996	-.027	.028
Age	.019	.011	1.730	.084	-.003	.040
Tenure	-.021	.008	-2.514	.012	-.037	-.005
Educatio	.022	.016	1.369	.172	-.010	.054
Rank	-.029	.010	-2.948	.003	-.048	-.010
Type	.163	.015	10.561	.000	.133	.194

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
TTORGCUL	-.099
TTORGCOM	-.185
Gender	.000
Age	.084
Tenure	-.120
Educatio	.073
Rank	-.174
Type	.398

Covariance matrix of regression parameter estimates:

	constant	TTORGCUL	TTORGCOM	Gender	Age	Tenure	Educatio	Rank	Type
constant	.034	-.011	-.007	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	-.001
TTORGCUL	-.011	.015	-.009	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
TTORGCOM	-.007	-.009	.013	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Gender	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Age	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Tenure	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Educatio	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Rank	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Type	-.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

***** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL *****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

TTTI

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.532	.283	.026	31.922	7.000	566.000	.000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.148	.176	12.225	.000	1.803	2.493
TTORGCUL	-.567	.097	-5.865	.000	-.757	-.377
Gender	.002	.014	.115	.908	-.026	.030
Age	.014	.011	1.315	.189	-.007	.036
Tenure	-.021	.008	-2.547	.011	-.037	-.005
Educatio	.021	.017	1.273	.204	-.011	.054
Rank	-.027	.010	-2.679	.008	-.046	-.007
Type	168	.016	10.749	.000	.137	.199

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
TTORGCUL	-.216
Gender	.004
Age	.064
Tenure	-.124
Educatio	.068
Rank	-.160
Type	.409

Covariance matrix of regression parameter estimates:

	constant	TTORGCUL	Gender	Age	Tenure	Educatio	Rank	Type
constant	.031	-.017	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	-.001
TTORGCUL	-.017	.009	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Gender	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Age	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Tenure	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Educatio	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Rank	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Type	-.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

***** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y *****

Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_cs
-.567	.097	-5.865	.000	-.757	-.377	-.216

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_cs
-.261	.122	-2.134	.033	-.501	-.021	-.099

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
TTORGCUL	-.306	.089	-.483	-.131

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
TTORGCUL	-.117	.034	-.184	-.050

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence
intervals:
5000

WARNING: Variables names longer than eight characters can produce
incorrect output when some variables in the data file have the same
first eight characters. Shorter variable names are recommended. By
using this output, you are accepting all risk and consequences of
interpreting or reporting results that may be incorrect.

----- END MATRIX -----

Appendix 18: Estimations for the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between organisational culture and commitment

Run MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.2 beta *****

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2022).
www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model : 1
Y : TTORGCUM
X : TTORGCUL
W : TTSELF

Covariates:

Gender Age Tenure Educatio Rank Type

Sample

Size: 574

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
TTORGCUM

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.652	.425	.003	46.384	9.000	564.000	.000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.685	.015	113.753	.000	1.656	1.715
TTORGCUL	.628	.039	16.182	.000	.552	.704
TTSELF	.090	.051	1.754	.080	-.011	.191
Int_1	.195	.569	.342	.732	-.923	1.312
Gender	-.003	.005	-.660	.509	-.013	.007
Age	.010	.004	2.531	.012	.002	.018
Tenure	.001	.003	.396	.692	-.005	.007
Educatio	.002	.006	.383	.702	-.009	.014
Rank	-.005	.004	-1.360	.174	-.012	.002
Type	-.009	.006	-1.621	.106	-.020	.002

Product terms key:

Int_1 : TTORGCUL x TTSELF

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	.000	.117	1.000	564.000	.732

Focal predict: TTORGCUL (X)
Mod var: TTSELF (W)

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
 Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce
 plot.

```

DATA LIST FREE/
  TTORGCUL  TTSELF  TTORGCOM  .
BEGIN DATA.
  -.073      -.053      1.639
   .000      -.053      1.684
   .073      -.053      1.729
  -.073      .000       1.643
   .000      .000       1.689
   .073      .000       1.735
  -.073      .053       1.648
   .000      .053       1.694
   .073      .053       1.740
END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
  TTORGCUL WITH  TTORGCOM BY  TTSELF  .

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
  95.0000

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:
      TTSELF  TTORGCUL

WARNING: Variables names longer than eight characters can produce
incorrect output when some variables in the data file have the same
first eight characters. Shorter variable names are recommended. By
using this output, you are accepting all risk and consequences of
interpreting or reporting results that may be incorrect.

----- END MATRIX -----

```

**Appendix 19: Estimations for the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the
relationship between organisational culture and turnover
intention**

Run MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.2 beta *****

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2022).
www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model : 1
Y : TTTI
X : TTORGCUL
W : TTSELF

Covariates:

Gender	Age	Tenure	Educatio	Rank	Type
--------	-----	--------	----------	------	------

Sample

Size: 574

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

TTTI

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.540	.292	.026	25.839	9.000	564.000	.000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.189	.041	28.787	.000	1.107	1.270
TTORGCUL	-.449	.108	-4.158	.000	-.662	-.237
TTSELF	-.259	.143	-1.808	.071	-.541	.022
Int_1	-3.134	1.585	-1.977	.049	-6.247	-.020
Gender	-.001	.014	-.042	.966	-.029	.027
Age	.012	.011	1.074	.283	-.010	.033
Tenure	-.022	.008	-2.686	.007	-.039	-.006
Educatio	.023	.017	1.379	.168	-.010	.055
Rank	-.026	.010	-2.620	.009	-.046	-.007
Type	.165	.016	10.579	.000	.135	.196

Product terms key:

Int_1 : TTORGCUL x TTSELF

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	.005	3.909	1.000	564.000	.049

Focal predict: TTORGCUL (X)
Mod var: TTSELF (W)

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):

TTSELF	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-.053	-.282	.148	-1.907	.057	-.573	.009
.000	-.449	.108	-4.158	.000	-.662	-.237
.053	-.617	.126	-4.902	.000	-.864	-.370

Moderator value(s) defining Johnson-Neyman significance region(s):

Value	% below	% above
-.052	18.467	81.533

Conditional effect of focal predictor at values of the moderator:

TTSELF	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-.147	.010	.272	.037	.970	-.524	.545
-.133	-.033	.252	-.132	.895	-.528	.462
-.119	-.077	.232	-.330	.741	-.533	.380
-.105	-.120	.213	-.564	.573	-.539	.298
-.091	-.164	.194	-.842	.400	-.545	.218
-.077	-.207	.176	-1.174	.241	-.553	.139
-.063	-.251	.159	-1.572	.117	-.564	.063
-.052	-.287	.146	-1.964	.050	-.574	.000
-.050	-.294	.144	-2.044	.041	-.576	-.012
-.036	-.337	.130	-2.594	.010	-.593	-.082
-.022	-.381	.119	-3.204	.001	-.614	-.147
-.008	-.424	.111	-3.826	.000	-.642	-.206
.006	-.468	.107	-4.373	.000	-.678	-.258
.020	-.511	.107	-4.757	.000	-.722	-.300
.034	-.555	.112	-4.937	.000	-.775	-.334
.047	-.598	.121	-4.940	.000	-.836	-.360
.061	-.642	.133	-4.827	.000	-.903	-.381
.075	-.685	.147	-4.657	.000	-.974	-.396
.089	-.729	.163	-4.469	.000	-1.049	-.408
.103	-.772	.180	-4.284	.000	-1.126	-.418
.117	-.815	.198	-4.111	.000	-1.205	-.426
.131	-.859	.217	-3.954	.000	-1.286	-.432

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

```
DATA LIST FREE/
  TTORGCU  TTSELF  TTTI  .
BEGIN DATA.
  -.073    -.053    1.370
   .000    -.053    1.350
   .073    -.053    1.329
  -.073     .000    1.368
   .000     .000    1.336
   .073     .000    1.303
  -.073     .053    1.367
   .000     .053    1.322
   .073     .053    1.277
END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
  TTORGCU WITH TTTI BY TTSELF .
```

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
95.0000

W values in conditional tables are the mean and +/- SD from the mean.

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:
TTSELF TTORGCUL

WARNING: Variables names longer than eight characters can produce incorrect output when some variables in the data file have the same first eight characters. Shorter variable names are recommended. By using this output, you are accepting all risk and consequences of interpreting or reporting results that may be incorrect.

----- END MATRIX -----

Appendix 20: Estimations for the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention

Run MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.2 beta *****

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2022).
www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model : 1
Y : TTTI
X : TTORGCOM
W : TTSELF

Covariates:

Gender Age Tenure Educatio Rank Type

Sample

Size: 574

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

TTTI

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.560	.313	.025	28.593	9.000	564.000	.000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.181	.040	29.384	.000	1.102	1.260
TTORGCOM	-.488	.098	-5.006	.000	-.680	-.297
TTSELF	-.310	.135	-2.301	.022	-.575	-.045
Int_1	-4.347	1.469	-2.960	.003	-7.231	-1.462
Gender	-.007	.014	-.471	.638	-.034	.021
Age	.017	.011	1.541	.124	-.005	.038
Tenure	-.019	.008	-2.376	.018	-.035	-.003
Educatio	.025	.016	1.557	.120	-.007	.057
Rank	-.031	.010	-3.148	.002	-.050	-.012
Type	.166	.015	10.804	.000	.136	.196

Product terms key:

Int_1 : TTORGCOM x TTSELF

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	.011	8.760	1.000	564.000	.003

Focal predict: TTORGCOM (X)
Mod var: TTSELF (W)

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):

TTSELF	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-.053	-.256	.139	-1.849	.065	-.528	.016
.000	-.488	.098	-5.006	.000	-.680	-.297
.053	-.721	.110	-6.535	.000	-.937	-.504

Moderator value(s) defining Johnson-Neyman significance region(s):

Value	% below	% above
-.051	18.467	81.533

Conditional effect of focal predictor at values of the moderator:

TTSELF	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-.147	.149	.256	.583	.560	-.354	.652
-.133	.089	.237	.375	.708	-.377	.555
-.119	.029	.219	.131	.896	-.401	.458
-.105	-.032	.201	-.158	.875	-.426	.362
-.091	-.092	.183	-.502	.616	-.451	.267
-.077	-.152	.166	-.917	.359	-.478	.174
-.063	-.212	.150	-1.420	.156	-.506	.081
-.051	-.267	.136	-1.964	.050	-.534	.000
-.050	-.273	.135	-2.027	.043	-.537	-.008
-.036	-.333	.121	-2.753	.006	-.571	-.095
-.022	-.393	.110	-3.591	.000	-.608	-.178
-.008	-.453	.101	-4.493	.000	-.652	-.255
.006	-.514	.096	-5.354	.000	-.702	-.325
.020	-.574	.095	-6.031	.000	-.761	-.387
.034	-.634	.099	-6.427	.000	-.828	-.440
.047	-.695	.106	-6.548	.000	-.903	-.486
.061	-.755	.117	-6.475	.000	-.984	-.526
.075	-.815	.129	-6.296	.000	-1.069	-.561
.089	-.875	.144	-6.076	.000	-1.158	-.592
.103	-.936	.160	-5.849	.000	-1.250	-.621
.117	-.996	.177	-5.634	.000	-1.343	-.649
.131	-1.056	.194	-5.438	.000	-1.438	-.675

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

```
DATA LIST FREE/
  TTORGCOM  TTSELF  TTTI  .
BEGIN DATA.
  -.076      -.053      1.372
  .000       -.053      1.353
  .076       -.053      1.333
  -.076      .000       1.373
  .000       .000       1.336
  .076       .000       1.299
  -.076      .053      1.374
  .000       .053      1.320
  .076       .053      1.265
END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
  TTORGCOM WITH  TTTI  BY  TTSELF  .
```

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
95.0000

W values in conditional tables are the mean and +/- SD from the mean.

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:
TTSELF TTORGCOM

WARNING: Variables names longer than eight characters can produce incorrect output when some variables in the data file have the same first eight characters. Shorter variable names are recommended. By using this output, you are accepting all risk and consequences of interpreting or reporting results that may be incorrect.

----- END MATRIX -----

Appendix 21: Moderated-Mediation effect (Model 15)

Run MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.2 beta *****

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
 Documentation available in Hayes (2022).
www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model : 15
 Y : TTTI
 X : TTORGCUL
 M : TTORCOM
 W : TTSELF

Covariates:

Gender Age Tenure Educatio Rank Type

Sample

Size: 574

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

TTORCOM

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.650	.422	.003	59.059	7.000	566.000	.000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	-.002	.015	-.130	.897	-.031	.027
TTORGCUL	.659	.035	19.065	.000	.591	.727
Gender	-.003	.005	-.659	.510	-.013	.007
Age	.010	.004	2.420	.016	.002	.017
Tenure	.001	.003	.390	.697	-.005	.007
Educatio	.003	.006	.474	.636	-.009	.014
Rank	-.005	.004	-1.416	.157	-.012	.002
Type	-.010	.006	-1.783	.075	-.021	.001

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

TTTI

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.562	.316	.025	23.641	11.000	562.000	.000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.185	.041	29.160	.000	1.106	1.265
TTORGCUL	-.203	.130	-1.562	.119	-.457	.052
TTORCOM	-.384	.119	-3.221	.001	-.617	-.150
TTSELF	-.241	.142	-1.699	.090	-.520	.038
Int_1	.110	2.106	.052	.958	-4.026	4.246

Int_2	-4.423	1.981	-2.233	.026	-8.314	-.533
Gender	-.007	.014	-.477	.634	-.035	.021
Age	.016	.011	1.460	.145	-.005	.037
Tenure	-.020	.008	-2.494	.013	-.037	-.004
Educatio	.025	.016	1.567	.118	-.006	.057
Rank	-.029	.010	-2.960	.003	-.048	-.010
Type	.164	.015	10.592	.000	.133	.194

Product terms key:

```
Int_1      :      TTORGCUL x      TTSELF
Int_2      :      TTORGCUM x      TTSELF
```

Test(s) of X by M interaction:

F	df1	df2	p
3.600	1.000	561.000	.058

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	.000	.003	1.000	562.000	.958
M*W	.006	4.987	1.000	562.000	.026

```
Focal predict: TTORGCUL (X)
Mod var: TTSELF (W)
```

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce
plot.

DATA LIST FREE/

```
TTORGCUL TTSELF TTTI .
BEGIN DATA.
-.073 -.053 1.364
.000 -.053 1.349
.073 -.053 1.334
-.073 .000 1.351
.000 .000 1.336
.073 .000 1.321
-.073 .053 1.338
.000 .053 1.323
.073 .053 1.309
```

END DATA.

GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=

```
TTORGCUL WITH TTTI BY TTSELF .
```

```
Focal predict: TTORGCUM (M)
Mod var: TTSELF (W)
```

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the
moderator(s):

TTSELF	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-.053	-.147	.178	-.829	.407	-.496	.201
.000	-.384	.119	-3.221	.001	-.617	-.150
.053	-.620	.139	-4.468	.000	-.892	-.347

Moderator value(s) defining Johnson-Neyman significance region(s):

Value	% below	% above
-.025	32.753	67.247

Conditional effect of focal predictor at values of the moderator:

TTSELF	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-.147	.265	.340	.781	.435	-.402	.933
-.133	.204	.314	.649	.516	-.413	.821
-.119	.143	.289	.494	.622	-.424	.710
-.105	.081	.264	.308	.758	-.437	.599
-.091	.020	.239	.083	.934	-.450	.490
-.077	-.041	.216	-.192	.848	-.465	.382
-.063	-.103	.193	-.532	.595	-.482	.277
-.050	-.164	.172	-.955	.340	-.502	.174
-.036	-.225	.153	-1.477	.140	-.525	.074
-.025	-.274	.139	-1.964	.050	-.548	.000
-.022	-.287	.136	-2.104	.036	-.554	-.019
-.008	-.348	.124	-2.809	.005	-.591	-.105
.006	-.409	.117	-3.505	.000	-.639	-.180
.020	-.471	.116	-4.060	.000	-.698	-.243
.034	-.532	.121	-4.381	.000	-.771	-.294
.047	-.593	.133	-4.477	.000	-.854	-.333
.061	-.655	.148	-4.425	.000	-.945	-.364
.075	-.716	.166	-4.301	.000	-1.043	-.389
.089	-.777	.187	-4.152	.000	-1.145	-.410
.103	-.839	.210	-4.002	.000	-1.250	-.427
.117	-.900	.233	-3.863	.000	-1.358	-.442
.131	-.961	.257	-3.738	.000	-1.467	-.456

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

```
DATA LIST FREE/
  TTORGCOM  TTSELF  TTTI  .
BEGIN DATA.
  -.076      -.053      1.360
   .000      -.053      1.349
   .076      -.053      1.338
  -.076      .000      1.365
   .000      .000      1.336
   .076      .000      1.307
  -.076      .053      1.370
   .000      .053      1.323
   .076      .053      1.276
END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
  TTORGCOM WITH  TTTI  BY  TTSELF  .
```

***** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y *****

Conditional direct effects of X on Y

TTSELF	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-.053	-.208	.186	-1.121	.263	-.574	.157
.000	-.203	.130	-1.562	.119	-.457	.052
.053	-.197	.156	-1.260	.208	-.503	.110

Conditional indirect effects of X on Y:

INDIRECT EFFECT:

TTORGCUL	->	TTORGCOM	->	TTTI
TTSELF	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
-.053	-.097	.120	-.339	.137
.000	-.253	.086	-.422	-.088
.053	-.408	.110	-.619	-.186

Index of moderated mediation:

	Index	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
TTSELF	-2.915	1.437	-5.584	.116

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:

5000

W values in conditional tables are the mean and +/- SD from the mean.

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:

TTSELF TTORGCUL TTORGCOM

WARNING: Variables names longer than eight characters can produce incorrect output when some variables in the data file have the same first eight characters. Shorter variable names are recommended. By using this output, you are accepting all risk and consequences of interpreting or reporting results that may be incorrect.

----- END MATRIX -----

Appendix 22: Moderated-Mediation effect (Model 14)

Run MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.2 beta *****

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
 Documentation available in Hayes (2022).
www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model : 14
 Y : TTTI
 X : TTORGCUL
 M : TTORGCUM
 W : TTSELF

Covariates:

Gender Age Tenure Educatio Rank Type

Sample

Size: 574

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

TTORGCUM

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.650	.422	.003	59.059	7.000	566.000	.000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	-1.137	.063	-18.093	.000	-1.260	-1.013
TTORGCUL	.659	.035	19.065	.000	.591	.727
Gender	-.003	.005	-.659	.510	-.013	.007
Age	.010	.004	2.420	.016	.002	.017
Tenure	.001	.003	.390	.697	-.005	.007
Educatio	.003	.006	.474	.636	-.009	.014
Rank	-.005	.004	-1.416	.157	-.012	.002
Type	-.010	.006	-1.783	.075	-.021	.001

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

TTTI

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.562	.316	.025	26.051	10.000	563.000	.000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.533	.226	6.776	.000	1.088	1.977
TTORGCUL	-.201	.128	-1.578	.115	-.452	.049
TTORGCUM	-.385	.118	-3.270	.001	-.615	-.154
TTSELF	-.241	.142	-1.700	.090	-.519	.037
Int_1	-4.354	1.467	-2.968	.003	-7.235	-1.473
Gender	-.007	.014	-.476	.634	-.034	.021
Age	.016	.011	1.461	.145	-.005	.037
Tenure	-.020	.008	-2.516	.012	-.036	-.004

Educatio	.025	.016	1.567	.118	-.006	.057
Rank	-.029	.010	-2.968	.003	-.048	-.010
Type	.164	.015	10.614	.000	.133	.194

Product terms key:

Int_1 : TTORGCOM x TTSELF

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
M*W	.011	8.811	1.000	563.000	.003

Focal predict: TTORGCOM (M)
Mod var: TTSELF (W)

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):

TTSELF	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-.053	-.152	.153	-.991	.322	-.453	.149
.000	-.385	.118	-3.270	.001	-.615	-.154
.053	-.617	.128	-4.815	.000	-.869	-.365

Moderator value(s) defining Johnson-Neyman significance region(s):

Value	% below	% above
-.029	27.526	72.474

Conditional effect of focal predictor at values of the moderator:

TTSELF	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-.147	.254	.264	.962	.337	-.265	.773
-.13	.194	.246	.787	.431	-.290	.677
-.119	.133	.228	.584	.559	-.315	.582
-.105	.073	.211	.346	.730	-.342	.488
-.091	.013	.194	.065	.948	-.369	.394
-.077	-.048	.178	-.268	.789	-.398	.303
-.063	-.108	.163	-.662	.508	-.429	.213
-.050	-.168	.150	-1.126	.261	-.462	.126
-.036	-.229	.138	-1.663	.097	-.499	.041
-.029	-.260	.132	-1.964	.050	-.519	.000
-.022	-.289	.128	-2.265	.024	-.540	-.038
-.008	-.350	.120	-2.904	.004	-.586	-.113
.006	-.410	.116	-3.527	.000	-.638	-.182
.020	-.470	.116	-4.070	.000	-.697	-.243
.034	-.531	.118	-4.481	.000	-.763	-.298
.047	-.591	.125	-4.744	.000	-.836	-.346
.061	-.651	.134	-4.876	.000	-.914	-.389
.075	-.712	.145	-4.912	.000	-.996	-.427
.089	-.772	.158	-4.885	.000	-1.083	-.462
.103	-.833	.173	-4.824	.000	-1.172	-.494
.117	-.893	.188	-4.744	.000	-1.263	-.523
.131	-.953	.205	-4.658	.000	-1.355	-.551

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

```
DATA LIST FREE/
  TTORGCOM  TTSELF  TTTI  .
BEGIN DATA.
  -.076      -.053      1.361
   .000      -.053      1.349
   .076      -.053      1.338
```


-.076	.000	1.365
.000	.000	1.336
.076	.000	1.307
-.076	.053	1.370
.000	.053	1.323
.076	.053	1.277

END DATA.

GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=

TTORGCOM WITH TTTI BY TTSELF .

***** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y *****

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-.201	.128	-1.578	.115	-.452	.049

Conditional indirect effects of X on Y:

INDIRECT EFFECT:

TTORGCUL -> TTORGCOM -> TTTI

TTSELF	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
-.053	-.100	.104	-.307	.104
.000	-.253	.087	-.429	-.085
.053	-.407	.099	-.603	-.214

Index of moderated mediation:

	Index	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
TTSELF	-2.869	.982	-4.761	-.952

Pairwise contrasts between conditional indirect effects (Effect1 minus Effect2)

Effect1	Effect2	Contrast	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
-.253	-.100	-.153	.052	-.254	-.051
-.407	-.100	-.307	.105	-.509	-.102
-.407	-.253	-.153	.052	-.254	-.051

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:

5000

W values in conditional tables are the mean and +/- SD from the mean.

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:

TTSELF TTORGCOM

WARNING: Variables names longer than eight characters can produce incorrect output when some variables in the data file have the same first eight characters. Shorter variable names are recommended. By using this output, you are accepting all risk and consequences of interpreting or reporting results that may be incorrect.

----- END MATRIX -----