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SOUTH AFRICAN ACADEMICS' INTENT TO QUIT AND INTENT TO EMIGRATE: AN INTEGRATION OF TURNOVER AND EMIGRATION THEORIES

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Humanities (University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg), in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy by thesis in the field of Psychology. University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa

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ABSTRACT

The present study contributes to the existing body of knowledge on factors that affect academics' intent to quit and intent to emigrate. The objective of the study was to investigate relationships between individual differences (core self-evaluations), work attitudes (job satisfaction), contextual or work environment (perceived organisational support), and external or societal conditions (satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa), and their effects on academics' intent to quit and intent to emigrate. The overarching goal was to integrate, review, and test turnover and migration theories and to investigate determinants of academics' intent to quit, and intent to emigrate. Respondents (full time academics) from five higher education institutions, namely University of Pretoria, University of the Witwatersrand, University of Cape Town, Central University of Technology, and University of Fort Hare were invited to participate. Usable data from 471 respondents were analysed using statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) software and structural equation modelling or SEM using Analysis of Moment Structures Software (AMOS SPSS). The direct relationship between core self-evaluations and academics' intent to quit, and between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate was tested in the presence of indirect paths (mediators, a moderator, and an interaction variable). A non-significant relationship between core self-evaluations and academics' intent to quit, and a non-significant relationship between core self-evaluations and academics' intent to emigrate was found. Tests of mediation found perceived organisational support to fully mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit, and to fully mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate. Job satisfaction was also found to fully mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit, and to fully mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent emigrate. Results of tests of moderation found satisfaction with quality of life to moderate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit such that the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit was stronger. Satisfaction with quality of life did not moderate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate. Although a majority of academics had no intention to quit or emigrate, an interesting finding was that those that were intending to emigrate were more than those intending to quit. This study contributes to the current literature on turnover and migration theory and extends the discussion to merging predictors of turnover and migration intentions in higher education contexts. This study also extends

earlier turnover and migration research by confirming that predictors of turnover intentions and migration intentions are similar.

Key Words: Core self-evaluations, intent to quit, intent to emigrate, perceived organisational support, job satisfaction, satisfaction with quality of life, withdrawal intentions

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own, unaided work. It has not been submitted before for any other degree or examination at this or any other university. It is being submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy by thesis at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.

Natasha Chomba Callaghan

Signed  on this the 28th day of June, 2022

DEDICATION

For Kira, our dearest beautiful daughter, and the inspiration behind everything daddy and I do. Thank you for being such a wonderful, loving, and patient little girl. And thank you for being my biggest cheerleader. I could not have done this without your support.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACS	Average class size
AGFI	Adjusted goodness of fit index
AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures Software
APDA	American Parliamentary Debate Association
AVE	Average variance extracted
CFA	Confirmatory factor analysis
CFI	Comparative fit index
CI	Confidence intervals
CR	Composite reliability
CSE	Core self-evaluations
CUT	Central University of Technology
CV	Curriculum Vitae
DF	Degrees of freedom
GFI	Goodness of fit index
HEQ	Higher education qualification
IPDA	International Parliamentary Debate Association
ITE	Intent to emigrate
ITQ	Intent to quit
JS	Job satisfaction
MSV	Maximum Shared Variance
NCR	National Capital Region
NRF	National Research Foundation
POS	Perceived organisational support
RMSEA	Root mean square error of approximation
SA	South Africa
SD	Social desirability
SEM	Structural equation modelling
SPSS	Statistical package for the social sciences
SWQL	Satisfaction with quality of life
TLI	Tucker-Lewis index
UFH	University of Fort Hare

UP	University of Pretoria
UCT	University of Cape Town
URL	Uniform resource locator
VIF	Variable inflation factors
WITS	The University of the Witwatersrand
YI	Years at Institution
YWE	Years work experience

CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

1 INTRODUCTION

In the month of October 2015, universities in South Africa experienced a massive upheaval, which later came to be known as the #FeesMustFall protests. Students in campuses across the country brought their universities to a halt. Protests were widespread and often violent, with the singular aim of achieving basic free education as guaranteed in Section 29 (1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa which states that every person has the right to a basic education and further education (1996). During the course of the protests, libraries and museums were attacked, buildings and vehicles were set alight, and students and university security staff were assaulted. University members of staff were largely side-lined during these events. Some provided vocal support to the student cause (Peterson at al., 2016). Others condemned them (Mavunga, 2019) while many others were just caught up in the chaos. The protests were eventually quelled with the students achieving quite extensive gains. On the 19th of September, the government announced a zero per cent increase tuition fee for all students who qualified for the National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS) (Bateman, 2016, as cited in Jacobs et al., 2019). National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS) is a government supported scheme aimed at increasing fair and equitable access to higher education for students that are academically strong and come from poor households that earn less than R600 000 per annum (Labour, 2017). The scheme therefore aims to covers some of the costs of tertiary education. The idea that had started as free education for poor students had become a demand for free education for all students (Jacobs et al., 2019). An uneasy peace however returned to campus, only to be disrupted a few years later by the emergence of the Covid-19 pandemic and the ructions caused by the emergency transition to remote working and teaching necessitated by the pandemic.

This study took place in the lull between these two events. The initial ideas for the study were formulated in the immediate aftermath of the fees must fall protests and the study was written up as the world (and South Africa) started emerging from Covid lockdown. This study is not about either of these two events. Times of turmoil, however, may well lead to people reassessing their life choices (including their careers, the institutions they work for, and even their countries of residence). It was thus a critical moment in time for this study to be undertaken. The study addresses both academics' intention to leave and intention to emigrate and assesses the role of individual, organisational, and national

factors in these outcomes. Specifically, the study explored the relationship between core self-evaluations, perceived organisational support, job satisfaction, and satisfaction with quality of life in country of residence on withdrawal intentions of academic staff.

In this chapter, I first provide an introduction to the study after which the research background and an overview of the statement of the problem are considered in the following sections. The aims and objective, and significance of the study are outlined next. Following this, the theoretical foundation for the study is discussed, with components of intent to quit models developed by Mobley (1977), Smart (1990), and the synthesis of migration and turnover theories by Gilmartin (2013) and by Brewer and Kovner (2014) identified as the theories underlying the current research. The proposed hypothetical model of the study is also presented. The chapter concludes with research questions and a discussion on this study's hypotheses.

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Migration of skilled employees from one organisation to another (organisational turnover) (Chiboiwa et al., 2010) and from one country to another are an area of concern for organisations and for the countries in which they operate (Lowell & Findlay, 2001). This skills migration is a phenomenon that has impacted negatively on the labour market in post-apartheid South Africa (Netswera & Rankhumise, 2005). While migration of employees from organisation to organisation (Devi & Krishna, 2016) and from country to country is not specific to Africa, the resulting brain drain is detrimental (Alemu, 2014).

Turnover can have costly consequences for a university and can change the dynamics of an institution's professional environment (Khan et al., 2013). Such consequences are particularly severe in instances where the organisation stands to lose experienced and high performing employees, with resulting high cost of replacing them, which is demoralising and disruptive (Allen et al., 2010) to employees and for organisations. Similarly for migration, Subbotin and Aref (2020) argue that competition for talented employees associated with international migration has often led to the strengthening or weakening of individual states as loss of human capital affects socio-economic and innovative development. Lowell and Findlay (2001) similarly argue that skilled migration triggers a number of impacts, with the direct effect being the reduction in the number of

workers that are educated and critical to the development of the country's economic growth. This is particularly problematic in relation to higher education institutions (Alemu, 2014) which have an important societal role to play (Bloom et al., 2006).

Concerns about retention in academia have generated a number of studies aimed at examining, understanding, and explaining faculty turnover. Brewer and Kovner (2014) have used the term mobile turnover to describe employees who terminate their work contracts and move to another country. In turnover literature, different labels such as quits, exits, attrition, mobility, migration or succession have been used for employee turnover (Rahman, 2018). Studies by Bluedorn, (1982), Dalessio et al. (1986), Griffeth and Hom (1988), Mobley et al. (1978), and by Peters et al. (1981) have supported the view that the immediate precursor to actual turnover is intention to leave.

Daly and Dee (2006) define intent to leave as the degree to which an employee is likely to terminate their employment contract with the employer. Intent to emigrate is defined as "a prospective behaviour that is expressed as an attitude or desire to move" to another country (Anderson et al., 1993, p. 1). The term withdrawal intentions will refer to both intent to quit and intent to emigrate in the current study. A comparison of turnover and migration theories by Brewer and Kovner (2014) suggests that turnover and migration are similar concepts as both involve an employee leaving somewhere and going somewhere else. The researchers argue that turnover can be considered a special kind or subset of migration. However, investigations of faculty turnover have focused mainly on faculty intent to quit (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002; Ponjuan, 2005).

While a number of studies (Daly & Dee, 2006; Dawley et al., 2010; Griffeth & Hom, 1988) have been conducted to identify the various factors associated with intent to quit (Khan et al., 2014), researchers have provided several yet conflicting theoretical

explanations for what contributes to faculty intent to leave the institution and to leave the country. Factors such as job satisfaction (Mobley, 1977; Eby et al., 1999), demographic characteristics (Peltokorpi et al., 2015), perceived organisational support (Dawley et al., 2010), and core self-evaluations (Joo et al., 2015) are among factors found to predict turnover intentions. Core self-evaluations is viewed as a critical variable in positive psychology and is defined as a single, broad personality trait representing fundamental assessments made by people about their competence, capabilities, and self-worth (Judge et al., 2005).

According to Kemmerer-Mueller et al. (2009), people with high core self-evaluations have a strong sense of control over their work environment and often implement coping strategies that are more effective. As such people with elevated levels of core self-evaluations are assumed to have lower quitting intentions. However, conflicting findings on the role played by core self-evaluations in predicting intent to quit have been found. In Joo et al.'s (2015) study, a modest yet significant negative association between core self-evaluations and turnover intention was found. Greaves et al. (2015) however found no significant relationship between the two variables in their study. Minimal research has also been conducted to examine the mediating role of perceived organisational support and job satisfaction on the core self-evaluations and withdrawal intentions relationship.

In migration literature, Brewer and Kovner (2014) argue that international migration results from a 'decision making' process similar to the turnover process. Factors found to influence intention to migrate include, but are not limited to, demographic variables (Gubhaju & De Jong, 2009), subjective well-being (Ivlevs, 2015), and personality characteristics (Paulauskaitė et al., 2010). Because literature suggests that those with high levels of core self-evaluations have a higher tenacity and resilience when looking for work outside their current employers (Wanberg et al., 2005), the assumption is that academics high in core self-evaluations may perceive themselves as having the ability to find work in different contexts and may have higher intentions to emigrate. However, there are seemingly no studies conducted to investigate the role played by core self-evaluations on academics' emigration intentions in higher education institutions.

While workplace issues have been explored within a variety of teaching and university contexts in recent years (Caraquil et al., 2016; Cui & Richardson, 2016), little has been written about issues impacting faculty members in South Africa within the context of recurring student protests and a new era of free higher education for the poor. Against the background of global mobility of academic staff and international concerns around turnover in the higher education sector (Selesho & Naile, 2014), as well as the turbulence seen in its institutions in recent years (Bozzoli, 2016), and inevitable impact on academics, this study seeks to contribute to the intent to quit and intent to emigrate literatures by extending the international body of work into the contemporary South African context. While certain parallels can be found between turnover and migration theories, minimal research has been conducted to identify associations or similarities between factors in turnover that also lead to emigration for academics within the South African higher education context. In this study, I seek to investigate both.

Drawing on turnover and migration theories and combining these with variables that specifically capture South African concerns, this study aims to build an integrated theoretical model that may be used to explain how individual differences (core self-evaluations), contextual work environment (perceived organisation support), work attitudes (job satisfaction), and external conditions (satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa) influence academics' intent to quit and intent to emigrate in South African higher education institutions.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Over the past decade, a number of researchers have extensively investigated academics' intent to leave at South African universities (Bwowe, 2020; Martin & Roodt, 2008; Muleya et al., 2016; Mxenge at al., 2014; Ntisa, 2015; Robyn & Du Preez, 2013). Some have tried to predict the intention to leave of academics' by measuring variables such as employee engagement, remuneration, job satisfaction (Robyn & Du Preez, 2013), organisational stress (Mxenge et al., 2014), organisational justice (Hassan & Hashim, 2011), and personality traits (Treglown et al., 2018; Zimmerman, 2008). Others (Khan et al., 2013) argue that structural, economic, and social psychological variables are involved in the process leading to intent to quit and eventual turnover (Bluedorn, 1982). Intention to quit or leave has therefore been investigated over several decades with findings

highlighting the negative and positive aspects of employee turnover (Mossholder et al., 1988).

However, differing views on factors that affect faculty withdrawal intentions and whether such factors are adequate in explaining intention to quit are among concerns raised in a number of studies (Ponjuan, 2005). Zey-Ferrell's (1982) view is that the lack of inclusiveness is possibly the major weakness in various explanatory models. Ochola (2008) similarly notes that the problem with measuring intent to leave is that most studies focus on institutional or internal factors and neglect to take into account other external factors that may influence faculty members outside of the workplace. Such lack of inclusiveness has hampered the efforts to accurately assess the relative explanatory power of various variables associated with turnover intentions (Zey-Ferrell, 1982).

A compelling argument for conducting this investigation is perhaps provoked by previous research by Brewer and Kovner (2014) in which they argued that turnover and migration are similar concepts and have a similar decision making process resulting in employees leaving. Brewer and Kovner (2014) further argue that turnover theory can be used as a framework for examining concepts associated with migration. While the exodus of academics has resulted in high costs to institutions across the globe (Heffernan & Heffernan, 2019), minimal research has been conducted to investigate predictors of intent to emigrate in higher education institutions. In particular, insufficient attention has been paid to the influence of personality on academics' intent to quit and intent to emigrate. Further, studies investigating the role played by perceived organisational support, job satisfaction, and satisfaction with quality of life on the core self-evaluations and withdrawal intentions relationship are seemingly absent in literature. Minimal research has also been conducted to examine whether antecedents of intent to quit and intent to emigrate are similar within the higher education context in South Africa.

This current study seeks to fill this void in literature and provide additional insight into academics withdrawal cognitions and how these are impacted by attitudinal, organisational, and environmental factors. This study further seeks to advance the understanding of the relationship between core self-evaluations and withdrawal intentions. This relationship is expected to be mediated by job satisfaction, perceived

organisational support and life satisfaction. The relationship is further likely to be moderated by satisfaction with the quality of life in South Africa. This study therefore adds to the discussion of what contributes to academics' intention to quit and intention to emigrate, by testing an analytical model of the relationship between core self-evaluations and withdrawal cognitions.

1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY

Blanche et al. (2006) define an aim as a brief and specific statement of the overall intention of a task to be investigated by a researcher. The aim of this study is to investigate the impact that core self-evaluations, job satisfaction, perceived organisational support, and satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa have on intent to quit, and on intent to emigrate.

1.4 OBJECTIVE

Research objectives build on the main theme indicated in the research aim and shows in detail specific research issues the researcher plans to investigate to meet the aim (Thomas & Hodges, 2010). The objective of this study is therefore to integrate literature on organisational turnover with literature on migration, and to develop and test an integrated model that theoretically links the study variables including individual differences (core self-evaluations), work attitudes (job satisfaction), contextual or work environment (perceived organisational support), external or societal conditions (satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa), intent to quit, and intent to emigrate to both literatures.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Universities and colleges are important national resources that occupy a vital role in contemporary society (Zhou, 2003). Governments around the world view higher education institutions as fundamental to the achievement of various national priorities (Boulton & Lucas, 2011). Thillaisundaram (2003) has similarly asserted that over and above their role of producing research outputs and teaching, higher education institutions play a general community and social services role. In the White Paper on Higher

Education in South Africa, the role of universities is listed as addressing social inequalities through intellectual development, preparing citizens that are critical and socially aware, and contributing to the knowledge production that meets the developmental needs of society.

Over the last three decades, research on higher education institutions in Africa suggests that universities are challenged by a number of problems that negatively impact their ability to function as centres of intellectual excellence (see Badat, 2004; Teferra, & Altbachl, 2004; Tettey, 2006). Although viewed as one of the most unequal societies in the world (Chuma, 2016), South Africa has been striving to secure a place as a hub of academic excellence (Swartz et al., 2019). However, a growing concern among policy makers in the country relates to the continuous loss of educators (Mlambo & Adetiba, 2020). Hassan, Akram, and Naz (2012) argue that maintaining a competitive edge in any organisation requires an investment in human resources. While universities invest substantial resources to attract and retain talented academics (Caraquil et al., 2016), voluntary turnover intentions has emerged as a substantial problem for higher education institutions in South Africa (Theron et al., 2014).

This problem is however not a recent one (Bernard, 2012) and still remains a huge challenge (Ng'ethe et al., 2003) in spite of the large number of studies conducted highlighting the high turnover problem in South African higher education institutions (Masango, 2013; Samuel, & Chipunza, 2013; Theron et al., 2014; Tettey, 2006). Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) also argue that despite the amount of research devoted to faculty retention and its associated challenges, the accumulated work tends to be fragmented. According to Ramasamy (2017), turnover among faculty can undermine an institution's productivity, efficiency and in some instances, its long term survival. This brings us to the question of what determines employee turnover within organisations. Firth et al. (2004) argue that this question has many implications for employees who may be thinking about leaving their jobs and for employers faced with lack of employee continuity and a massive cost of employee retention.

Although the primary focus of interest for researchers and employers seeking answers to this question has been the actual quitting behaviour of employees, many argue that a

strong indicator for actual turnover is intention to quit (Bluedorn, 1982; Christy & Priartini, 2019; Griffeth & Hom, 1988). Over the years, a number of researchers have therefore established that withdrawal cognitions such as intent to leave are the most reliable predictors of turnover (Miller et al., 1979; Mobley, 1977; Rubenstein et al., 2018). Although turnover intention and actual turnover are closely related concepts often used interchangeably (Mashile et al., 2021), turnover intention relates to the conscious thinking process one engages in when contemplating to leave an organisation, while staff turnover refers to an employee's actual process of leaving (Son, 2012). In this current study, the focus of interest is on intent to quit and intent to emigrate.

The exodus of academics has had significant effect on higher education institutions globally (Heffernan & Heffernan, 2019), but most studies on emigration intentions have focussed attention on employees working within the healthcare sector (Heering et al., 2004; Kingma, 2018; Suciu et al., 2017). Further, previous studies appear to show no research conducted to simultaneously investigate intent to quit and intent to emigrate, and determine if there are similarities in their determinants within higher education institutions.

In addition, research conducted to identify various dimensions associated with intention to leave (Khan et al., 2014) have focussed on organisational and structural factors related to employee work attitudes (Flowers & Hughes, 1973; Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002; Steers, 1977; Stewart, 1969; Wallace, 1967). Other research has mainly focused on attitudinal and behavioural aspects and less on personal factors that predict turnover intentions (Joo et al., 2015). Therefore, what is not clear within the literature is the role played by core self-evaluations as a proxy for evaluations of self-worth, in terms of their influence on academics' psychological decisions of whether to leave or stay. The extent to which the interaction between high core evaluations and levels of satisfaction with quality of life affects intent to quit, and intent to emigrate is also unclear. Further, there appears to be lack of clarity on the role played by perceived organisational support and job satisfaction on the relationship between core self-evaluations and academics' withdrawal intentions.

This study is designed to bridge this gap in literature and to advance our understanding of similarities in the factors that contribute to both employee intention to quit and intention

to emigrate within the context of higher education institutions in South Africa. The study will be conducted against the background of the violence associated with student protests in previous years, countrywide lockdowns, and the continued uncertainty of funding for universities in the future.

Findings from this research would be beneficial for university managers in the South African higher education sector who may use them to formulate and implement relevant policy measures to improve institutional tenure, redesign strategies for faculty retention, and improve the contextual work environment. Considering that previous studies conducted on withdrawal intentions were mostly conducted within the corporate sector (Hidayat et al., 2021; Rashid et al., 2018; Tiwari et al., 2019), healthcare sector (Fukui et al., 2019; Gouda et al., 2015; Mengstie, 2020), and the western context (Sabharwalet al., 2019; Van Dalen & Henkens, 2013), the current study is expected to enrich and bridge the gap in existing turnover and migration literatures associated with higher education institutions within South Africa and by extension the African continent. Results of this study may have useful implications in that they could assist academic leaders to develop faculty retention strategies within the developing countries' context.

1.6 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

An extensive search of literature suggests that a number of researchers have investigated voluntary labour turnover, examples being Brewer and Kovner (2014), Lee and Mitchell (1994), Mobley (1977), and Morrell et al. (2008). Findings from such research suggest that researchers in the higher education sector (Girod et al., 2017; Honeyman & Summers, 1994; Nawaz & Pangil, 2016; Ponjuan, 2005) and in other academic fields such as nursing (Auxier, 2015; Gormley & Kennerly, 2011) or medicine (Glandon & Glandon, 2011; Schloss et al., 2009) propose different antecedents of faculty turnover. Some studies have used a causal model to test the associations between variables that affect faculty turnover while others have relied on qualitative models (Ponjuan, 2005). Still, others have argued that turnover theory provides a framework for examining concepts associated with migration (Brewer & Kovner, 2014).

To advance theory, this study aims to integrate turnover and migration theories which may help in understanding the multilevel factors associated with academics' withdrawal

intentions. In my review of previous studies, I have found three types of literature relevant to the current study and propose the use of an integrated conceptual model which contains components of intent to quit models developed by Mobley (1977), Smart (1990), and the synthesis of migration and turnover theories by Gilmartin (2013), and by Brewer and Kovner (2014).

The first type falls within the typical methodologies that relate to job satisfaction and its potential consequences (Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1978). Such methodologies are based on psychological models of turnover which focus on negative job attitudes such as job dissatisfaction and lack of organisational commitment. The assumption is that employees choose to quit when they are not happy with their jobs or their organisations (Tellez, 2014). The withdrawal decision making process therefore includes a series of events that eventually result in an employee having withdrawal cognitions, and to leaving the organisation in the final stage (Mobley, 1977). While a number of studies (Govindaraju, 2018; Hom et al., 1984; Katsikea et al., 2015) have supported Mobley's (1977) model structure, others have cast doubt on its suggested stage-wise relationships among the turnover cognitions (Sager et al., 1998) with some disputing the constructs' causal ordering (Hom, 1984). Another critique of the model is that although antecedents to turnover are related as generally theorised in literature, their predictive validity for actual turnover is weak with little variance explained (Hom & Griffeth, 1991). Mobley's (1977) intermediate linkage model is however one of the first turnover models and has served as a template for the development of future models.

The second type of literature falls within theoretical orientations that propose the use of causal models in which variables linked to turnover are moderated or mediated by other variables (Smart, 1990). Smart (1990) developed a model which included individual characteristics, contextual work variables, and external conditions. Based on findings, Smart (1990) concluded that factors that explain intent to quit are individual and institutional characteristics (e.g. gender, career age, and type of campus governance), and the work environment (dimensions of job satisfaction such as salary, research, and governance participation). While Smart's model of faculty turnover serves as an acceptable frame of reference, other factors have been found to influence faculty members' decision-making process (Alemu & Pyktina, 2020).

The third and final type of literature therefore falls within the synthesis of turnover and migration literature by Gilmartin (2013), and by Brewer and Kovner (2014). Gilmartin's (2013) synthesis of turnover and migration literature resulted from an extensive literature review on nurses' turnover and migration. Brewer and Kovner (2014) have used Gilmartin's integrated turnover model as the basis for comparing turnover theory and migration push and pull factors. Migration theories suggest that migration depends on forces that push migrants to leave their home countries and those that pull them to their destinations (Brueckner & Lall, 2015). Push factors are home country conditions that provide the motivation for an individual to leave their home country while pull factors are conditions in the receiving country that provide an individual with a purpose and wish to migrate (Kunz, 1973).

Push factors have also been defined as aspects that push employees to leave their current workplace (Shah et al., 2010), while pull factors are those that attract individuals to take another job (Kim et al., 2013). In South Africa, factors that have been found to push people to leave include corruption of government officials, inefficient state services, and high levels of crime (Winbush & Selby, 2015). Pull factors have ranged from better work conditions, better remuneration and wages, career development, increased job satisfaction, better education opportunities, and better quality of life (Oberoi & Lin, 2006).

International migration therefore reflects receiving and sending countries' economic and social-political dynamics (Makaryan, 2015). According to Brewer and Kovner (2014), Gilmartin's model suggests that the processes that lead to turnover are similar to the migration processes. It further suggests that individual differences (e.g. demographic characteristics, personality), job attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction, promotion opportunities), as well as the nature of the job (e.g. workload, autonomy), interact to lead to withdrawal cognitions. Such withdrawal cognitions may include intent to quit and intent to emigrate.

Although the above-mentioned theoreticians have differences which reflect in their varied disciplinary orientations, their theoretical models and associated evidence in reviewed literature suggest four main factors that impact intent to quit, and intent to migrate. These

include: individual differences (e.g. personality traits, demographics, life satisfaction), contextual or work environment (e.g. work perceptions, perceived organisational support), work attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction, work commitment) (Gilmartin, 2013; Mobley, 1977; Smart, 1990), and external conditions (e.g. economic and societal conditions) (Smart, 1990). Predictor variables which will form the basis for this current study will therefore include individual differences (core self-evaluations), work attitudes (job satisfaction), contextual or work environment (perceived organisational support), and external or societal conditions (satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa). These variables are introduced and briefly discussed below. First, a brief discussion of core self-evaluations follows.

1.6.1 **Core self-evaluations**

Core self-evaluations are believed to be personality traits (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2011). In personality literature, the variable is defined as a broad latent higher order trait represented by four well established traits that include self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability (Judge et al., 1997). According to Bono and Judge (2003), core self-evaluations have an impact on how people appraise themselves, others and the world, and do so subconsciously. Consistent with this view, Cadiz (2010) argues that core self-evaluations may be an important personal characteristic that influences the manner in which people assess, interpret, and react to their work environment. Compared to individual core traits (self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability), Kemmerer-Mueller et al. (2009), contend that the overall measure of core self-evaluations as a single construct is a better predictor for individual behaviour and outcomes.

1.6.2 **Intent to quit**

According to Daly and Dee (2006), intent to quit is the degree to which an individual is likely to terminate their relationship with an employer. Haque's (2018) view is that intent to quit describes whether an employee intends to leave their job. While intention to quit reflects an employee's mind-set when he or she decides to leave (Khan et al., 2013), researchers have established that an employee's intention to quit is also the appropriate indicator of actual employee turnover (Aladwan et al., 2013). According to Carmeli and Weisberg (2006), there are three fundamentals associated with intent to quit which include thoughts of resigning, the intention to search for a new jobs, and the intention to

quit. Intent to quit is therefore conceived of as one's considered or intentional desire to leave the employer and viewed as the last part in the withdrawal cognition process (see Mobley et al., 1978). This process further includes thoughts of leaving and the intention to look for alternative work (Tett & Meyer, 1993).

1.6.3 **Intent to emigrate**

According to Cohen and Levesque (1990), an intention represents a possible action or actions that an individual may take to achieve their goals. Migration is defined as the flow of people from one country to another in a way that crossing the border into another country impacts the identity of the migrant (Kearney & Beserra, 2004). Intention to migrate may therefore be defined as one's desired action to move to another country. In previous studies, researchers have investigated the relationship between migration intentions and actual behaviour (Cairns & Smyth, 2011; Epstein & Gang, 2006). Although intention to migrate is not the same as actual migration behaviour, intention to migrate is the best clue available for future migration behaviour (Grossutti, 1990). Results of a study by De Jong (2000) in Thailand indicated that intention to migrate can be a strong predictor of an actual decision to migrate permanently.

1.6.4 **Perceived organisational support**

Perceived organisational support is defined as the degree to which an individual believes the employer cares about their well-being and values their contributions (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The concept has been identified as key to understanding turnover intentions (Dawley et al., 2010) and is viewed as one of the most important organisational concepts that adds to employees' satisfaction and strengthens their commitment (Mabasa & Ngirande, 2015). Literature suggests that employees with elevated levels of perceived organisational support express high levels of affiliation and loyalty to the employing organisation (Tumwesigye, 2010) such that their leaving intentions are lowered. On the other hand, academics who feel their institution cares less about their well-being may have a tendency to start looking for alternative more rewarding work contexts.

1.6.5 **Job satisfaction**

Job satisfaction is a multidimensional concept defined as a positive emotion that results from an individual's appraisal of tasks and work or job experiences (Bernarto et al.,

2020). It is an important aspect of how employees perform at work (Agbozo et al., 2017), as employees with high job satisfaction experience positive emotions when they think about their work or tasks and hence perform better. According to Ćulibrk et al. (2018), job satisfaction is among the most researched concepts in the human resource management and organisational behaviour fields. The variable has been linked to perceived organisational support, life satisfaction, transformational leadership, work environment, job control, job resources of rewards and recognition, feedback, and participation (Agbozo et al., 2017; Bernarto et. al., 2020; Boamah et al., 2018; Scanlan & Still, 2019). Despite the number of studies conducted on job satisfaction, high levels of dissatisfaction have been found among academics (see Albuquerque et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020).

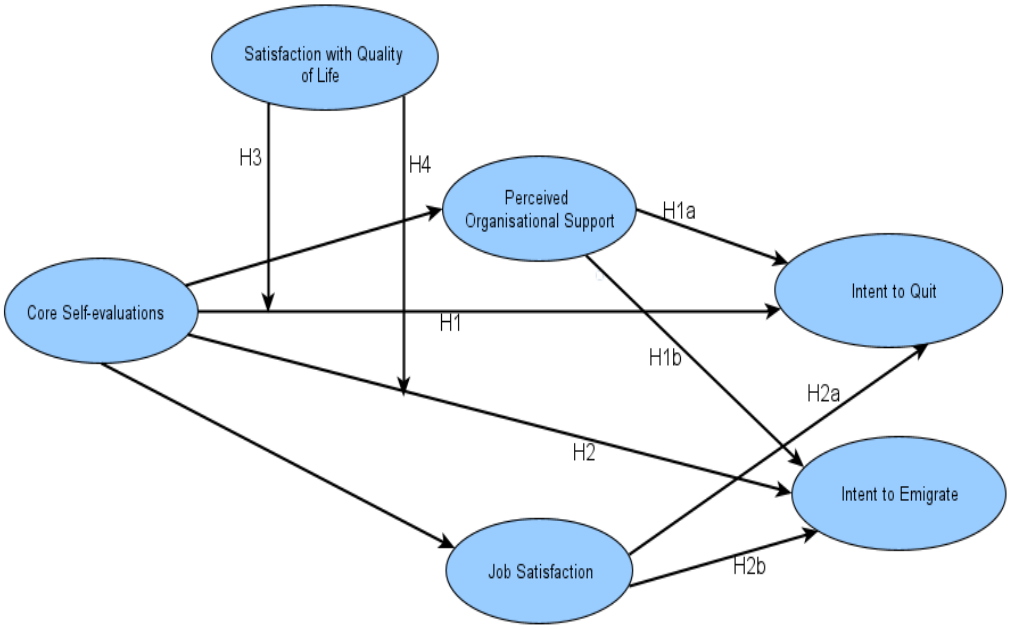
1.6.6 **Satisfaction with quality of life**

Beckie and Hayduk (1997) define quality of life as one's global but dimensional subjective assessment of life. According to Greyling and Tregenna (2017, p. 888), "quality of life has gained increasing prominence, both in the academic literature and in policy discourse." However, a number of researchers agree that quality of life is a complex variable and is composed of multiple dimensions (Cimete et al., 2003). Using an econometric model, Arechavala and Espina (2019) estimated that measuring quality of life should involve a set of demographic variables, an individual's social and economic characteristics as well as other economic indicators that encompass the economic and social climate that people live in. This study's theoretical model is discussed in the following section.

1.6.7 **Theoretical model**

The first part of this model (see Figure 1) includes a predictor variable (core self-evaluations) that represents individual differences. For this domain, I will use core self-evaluations as a primary factor that influences academics' intent to quit and intent to emigrate. The individual differences domain encompasses individual characteristics that one brings to a particular job such as aspects of personality or demographics characteristics (Gilmartin, 2013). Gilmartin's (2013) view is that such individual differences are important as they have an impact on the ease with which one can move from an existing job to another.

Figure 1. Theoretical model



Holtom et al. (2008) note that a major trend in the past decade is the inclusion of personality as a new individual difference predictor of turnover. They further argue that personality may be directly influencing whether one leaves their job. For example, Salgado (2002) found a strong relationship between personality and turnover. Consistent with Salgado's findings, Zimmerman's (2008) study found that personality traits have an impact on an individual's turnover intentions and behaviours. In this study, I test this proposition using core self-evaluations as an antecedent to intent to quit, and intent to emigrate.

The second conceptual domain includes external conditions (environmental or societal conditions) as suggested by Smart (1990). For this domain, I will use satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa which I propose will moderate effects of the predictor variable on withdrawal intentions. Some researchers argue that the link between turnover intention and its antecedents may be moderated by overall life satisfaction (Amah, 2009; Zhang et al., 2019). Mobley et al. (1979) contend that although variables such as job satisfaction have been found to predict withdrawal intentions, several other variables can

be expected to moderate these relationships. The researchers call attention to the need to look beyond work settings for a comprehensive understanding of the psychology of the turnover process. A number of researchers have therefore validated the process approach to turnover and the important role played by moderators in the turnover process (Mobley, 1977; Smart, 1990).

The third conceptual domain includes work attitudes and contextual work environmental constructs. In this domain, I take into consideration the mediating effects that variations in job satisfaction and perceived organisational support have on withdrawal intentions. The suggestion that the association between core self-evaluations and withdrawal intentions is mediated is consistent with contemporary turnover theories such as the intermediate linkages model by Mobley (1977). Such theories envision voluntary turnover as a process in which antecedents such as person or environmental characteristics influence a number of attitudinal responses such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment which in turn affect withdrawal intentions (Allen et al., 2003; Gilmartin, 2013).

The fourth conceptual domain includes two withdrawal cognitions (intent to quit and intent to emigrate). In the process model of turnover, turnover intention is the last step in a sequence of withdrawal cognitions and acts as a mediator between evaluations associated with the decision to leave and the eventual turnover relationship (Chiu & Francesco, 2003). A number of researchers have provided empirical evidence to support the notion that intentions are the single best predictor of actual employee turnover (Griffeth & Hom, 1988; Mobley et al., 1978; Steel & Ovalle, 1984) which is why I have used both intent to quit and intent to emigrate as dependant variables in this study.

In sum, the multi-level integrated model illustrates the relationships between individual, contextual, and national level variables. It implies that the impact of core self-evaluations on withdrawal intentions depends on the weight of the study's mediator and moderator variables. I will also seek to test the assumption that predictor variables are linked to each other and whether or not they are directly related to withdrawal intentions. I now give an overview of the study's research questions and hypotheses.

1.7 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND DERIVED HYPOTHESES

The theoretical rationale that underlies this study's research questions was discussed in Section 1.6. The issues discussed in this study will be examined using the following research questions.

1.7.1 Research questions

1. To what extent are core self-evaluations associated with intent to quit, and to intent to emigrate?

2. To what extent does perceived organisational support mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit, and between core self evaluations and intent to emigrate?

3. To what extent does job satisfaction mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit, and between core self evaluations and intent to emigrate?

4. To what extent does satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa moderate the effect of core self-evaluations on intent to quit and the effect of core self-evaluations on intent to emigrate?

Eight hypotheses were derived from the above research questions. These are discussed below.

1.7.2 Hypotheses

In this section, I provide a brief overview of literature from which this study's hypotheses were derived. A full review of literature is provided in chapter 2.

Previous research has shown that personality has an impact on how effectively individuals cope with life events that are difficult (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Core self-evaluations are mostly viewed as integrative personality traits (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2011). While personality is defined as an individuals' characteristic patterns of behaviour that are stable over time and encompass one's experiences, motivations, attitudes, beliefs, and values (Mount et al., 2005), personality traits are defined as

consistent patterns of thought, emotion, and behaviour that are relatively stable over time (Funder, 2012).

The core self-evaluations concept emerged from an effort to describe and explain correlations among traits (e.g. Judge et al., 2002), and an integration of the personality and psychology theories associated with the dispositional source of dysfunctional thinking, satisfaction, and other outcomes (Piccolo et al., 2005). Judge et al. (1997) define core self-evaluations as a broad, latent dispositional trait. Dispositional traits are a frame of reference through which an individual reacts to or appraises situations using stable and consistent ways of thinking, feeling, and behaving (Chiu & Francesco, 2003).

Unlike situation specific appraisals (e.g. evaluating one's work load), core self-evaluations are deeper and more fundamental subconscious appraisals (Bono & Judge, 2003). Zimmerman (2008) argues that despite a number of studies conducted to determine the relationship between disposition and turnover intention, it is still uncertain whether dispositional traits affect turnover intention. However, in Bernardin's (1977) study on the relationship between personality variables and organisational withdrawal, results showed that personality characteristics predict withdrawal behaviour. Research also suggests that when looking for a new job, individuals with high core self-evaluations have greater persistence and resilience (Wanburg et al., 2005). It is therefore likely that such individuals may perceive themselves as having the ability to find work in a different context and may therefore have higher intentions to leave or to emigrate. However, Joo et al.'s (2015) study found a modest yet significant negative association between core self-evaluations and turnover intention suggesting that high core self-evaluations may translate into low intentions to leave. Similarly, Chang et al. (2012) found core self-evaluations to be negatively associated with turnover intentions. Greaves et al. (2015) however found no association between the two variables.

Chhabra's (2018) view is that employees that have high levels of core self-evaluations are confident of their abilities, competence, and are highly unlikely to be influenced by external or societal cues. Their actions, emotions, and thoughts are less likely to be influenced by events occurring in the workplace or other external events. Such employees are therefore unlikely to look for alternate work opportunities and are likely to continue

working for their current employers (Chhabra, 2018). Considering inconsistencies between reviewed literature and findings from research, what is not clear is the extent to which core self-evaluations are related to intent to quit in this context. However, given evidence from previous studies (Chang et al., 2012; Joo et al., 2015), the following hypothesis is derived:

Hypothesis 1. There is a significant negative association between core self-evaluations and intent to quit.

Whereas intent to quit relates to levels of dissatisfaction at the level of the organisation, or micro level, intent to emigrate is taken to relate to levels of dissatisfaction at the country level, or macro level. If the mechanisms through which core self-evaluations operate are similar for dissatisfaction related to both levels, then core self-evaluations are expected to be negatively associated with intent to emigrate. Hypothesis 2 is derived:

Hypothesis 2. There is a significant negative association between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate.

For the contextual work environment, I will use perceived organisational support to investigate its relationship with this study's independent and dependent variables. According to Lang et al. (2021), organisations, often referred to as institutions, communicate and formulate particular goals that have an impact on their members' behaviours and decision making processes. However, a number of studies have focused attention on types of organisations rather than contextual factors within organisations that affect the migration decision making processes (Adick et al., 2014). This results in a lack of comparative takes on factors within the organisation that impact employees' migration decisions (Lang et al., 2021). Lang et al. (2021) further argue that the role played by organisational practices in migration decision making processes is limited due to minimal considerations given to particularities of organisations that shape the migration of employees. Although findings in previous research (Allen et al., 2005; Paulauskaitė et al., 2010) show that personality has an impact on intent to emigrate, no studies have been conducted to see if perceived organisational support is the route through which one's core self-evaluations affect migration intentions.

Malik et al. (2010) have argued that the extent to which institutions are successful is dependent on the extent to which academic staff perceive institutional support and are satisfied with their work. The concept of perceived organisational support was developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986) to explain employee's development of commitment to an organisation. Eisenberger et al. (1986) argue that feelings of commitment in employees are created when they see that their employers appreciate their contributions and care about their well-being. High levels of perceived organisational support therefore produce feelings of obligation such that employees not only feel committed to their organisations but also feel an obligation to return the employer's commitment by engaging in behaviours that support their organisation's goals (Wayne et al., 1997).

According to Wayne et al. (1997), an employee who perceives the employer as low in support would be more likely to have leaving intentions or seek work else-where. A meta-analysis by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found perceived organisational support to be associated with reduced withdrawal behaviour. Wayne et al. (1997) found a significant negative association between perceived organisational support and intentions to quit and provided evidence to support the role of perceived organisational support as a mediator in a relationship between employer practices and intent to quit. Perceived organisational support has also been found to mediate the relationship between organisational commitment and intention to leave (Loi et al., 2006). In another study by Engelbrecht and Samuel (2019), results showed perceived organisational support to mediate the relationship between organisational justice and intention to quit, and between transformational leadership and intent to quit. While studies investigating the mediating role of perceived organisational support on the core self-evaluations and withdrawal intentions' relationship are seemingly absent in literature, the expectation in this study is that core self-evaluations will work through high perceived organisational support to lower withdrawal intentions. Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2009) argue that individuals with high core self-concept may feel they have the ability to cope with adversity or under challenging conditions owing to their high core self-evaluations. It is therefore reasonable to assume that in a highly supportive work context, such individuals would perceive higher institutional support to the extent that their feeling of obligation may be triggered in spite of work stresses. An academic's obligation to the institution could therefore in turn lead to lower emigration intentions. Based on the aforementioned logics, I derive the

following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a. Perceived organisational support mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit.
Hypothesis 1b. Perceived organisational support mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate.

An attitudinal construct that I will investigate in its relationship with this study's independent and dependent variables is job satisfaction. A prominent theme in literature is the belief that most attitudes within the workplace context have related behavioural implications (Judge et al., 2001). In their study of the relationship between job satisfaction and quitting behaviour, Shields and Ward (2001) found job satisfaction to be the single most important determinant of quitting intentions. Lum et al. (1998) however found that job satisfaction only has an indirect influence on intention to quit. A study by Chiu and Francesco (2003) investigated the mediating role of job satisfaction on the relationship between negative affectivity (neuroticism) and positive affectivity (both mood states often measured as dispositional traits), and turnover intentions. Their results indicated that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between positive affectivity and turnover intentions. In previous studies, job satisfaction has also been linked to intention to emigrate.

Anduaga-Beramendi et al. (2018) found that younger age (individuals under the age of 36) and low job satisfaction were associated with intention to emigrate. On the contrary, a study by Aranya et al. (1982) found no relationship between job satisfaction and migration intentions. Job satisfaction has also been found to mediate the relationship between personality traits and counterproductive work behaviours (Mount et al., 2006). In view of the aforementioned literature, the following hypotheses are derived:

Hypothesis 2a. Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit.
Hypothesis 2b. Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate.

Satisfaction quality of life in South Africa is an important external condition that I will investigate in this study. Felce and Perry (1995) define quality of life as a concept that is approachable from different levels such as the assessment of an individual's or group's specific situation, or an evaluation of societal and community well-being. Brewer and Kovner (2014) contend that certain home country conditions are among factors that push people to want to leave the organisation. A study by Netswera and Rankhumise (2005) found political stability of the country and high crime rate as important non-internal (to the workplace) factors that influence turnover at one South African university. Economic and societal conditions are therefore among factors that may impact academics' withdrawal intentions. A study by Brink (2012) found that skilled workers in South Africa are pushed to leave the country by fears relating to bad governance. However, Boneva and Frieze (2001) argue that there's evidence suggesting economic and other environmental factors do not fully account for one's desire to emigrate. According to Fawcett (1985), not enough research has been conducted to produce a distinctive body of knowledge on the topic of migration.

In their study conducted to investigate the link between the big five personality traits and migration intentions, Paulauskaitė et al. (2010) found that there is an association between two personality traits (conscientiousness and openness to experience) and migration intentions. While an individual's personality traits have an impact on the manner in which psychic costs and benefits of migrating to alternative locations are weighed (Fouarge et al., 2019), studies conducted appear to focus on the impact that economic and political processes have on migration. There seems to be little research conducted to investigate the relationship between personal factors and migratory intentions (Paulauskaitė et al., 2010) and how personal factors may interact with satisfaction with quality of life to impact withdrawal intentions. Based on the aforementioned literature, this study seeks to test the accuracy of the assumption that economic and societal conditions affect employees' decision to leave using the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 3. The negative relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit will be strengthened when satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa is lower.

Hypothesis 4. The negative relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate will be strengthened when satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa is

lower.

Knowledge gained from testing the aforementioned research questions and hypotheses is important as it will be used to provide valuable information that academic leaders could use to understand trends in faculty self-initiated mobility, to identify faculty staff at risk of turnover, and to manage and retain permanent employees (Ponjuan, 2005). In the following section, I provide the chapter sequence that outlines this thesis' layout.

1.8 THESIS STRUCTURE

The remainder of this thesis is structured as follows:

Chapter 2: Literature review

In this chapter, the overarching review of literature that relates to relationships under study is provided. In particular, existing literature on intent to quit is discussed first followed by literature on intent to emigrate. A review of literature on the core self-evaluations concept, then job satisfaction is provided next. Following this, literature on perceived organisational support is reviewed. The final section of the chapter discusses existing literature relating to quality of life. The objective of the literature review is to locate phenomena under study in relation to previous research and extant theory, and to identify the rationale behind the theoretical frameworks used and tested in the study. This chapter ends with a conclusion.

Chapter 3: Research methodology

This chapter includes a detailed discussion on the research methodology and design of the study to justify the use of methods applied. In the first section of the chapter, research paradigms that the current study is underpinned by, with particular consideration made of the ontology, epistemology, and the methodology are discussed. The research design, sampling procedure, population and sample, and sample size are considered and discussed. Following this, I deliberate on data collection and data collection procedures. The use of specific scale items under the measurement instrument heading is made explicit and justified in relation to previous research precedent. After this, statistical

techniques used to test each hypothesis are explained. This chapter concludes with a brief discussion on ethical considerations observed in this study.

Chapter 4: Results

In this chapter, results of the study are discussed. The first section of the chapter presents results relating to outliers and missing values. Following this, results from descriptive statistics undertaken including demographics data (frequency tables and percentages), skewness and kurtosis (tests for normality), means (measures of central tendency), standard deviation (dispersions), and variance are discussed. Correlations, reliability, validity, and confirmatory factor analysis results are discussed next. Thereafter, results of hypotheses testing are reported. Tables that report the outcome of the testing are provided throughout the chapter. The chapter concludes with a summary of findings.

Chapter 5: Discussion

This chapter discusses results of the study reported in chapter four. In the first section, a brief overview of the context of the study, then biographical profile of participants is considered. Following this, findings of the hypothesis testing are discussed. The finding on the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit is discussed first after which the core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate relationship is discussed. The mediating effects of perceived organisational support on the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit is considered next. After this, the mediating effects of perceived organisational support on the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate is considered. Job satisfaction's mediating effect on the core self-evaluations and intent to quit relationship, then its mediating role on the core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate relationship is discussed next. Results of tests of moderation are outlined next after which a summary of the discussion chapter is provided.

Chapter 6: Practical and theoretical implications

This chapter provides a detailed discussion of practical and theoretical contributions of the study. Overall practical implications of the study findings for academic administrators or managers, policy makers, higher education institutions in South Africa, and full time academics are discussed first. Following this, a critical review of what it means to quit

and to emigrate, and associated implications is considered. Theoretical implications of findings for the role played by job satisfaction, perceived organisational support, and satisfaction with quality of life on the relationship between core self-evaluations and withdrawal intentions (intent to quit and intent to emigrate) is outlined next. Limitations and recommendations for future research are considered following this after which I conclude with a brief summary of the chapter.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

Chapter 7 concludes the research process with an overall conclusion to the study.

1.9 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I discussed the background to the study first, after which I gave overview of the statement of the problem. The aims and objective, then significance of the study were outlined next. Following this, I discussed the theoretical frameworks that relate the study variables. Components of intent to quit models developed by Mobley (1977), and Smart (1990), and the synthesis of migration and turnover theories by Gilmartin (2013), and by Brewer and Kovner (2014) were discussed next. After this, I presented and discussed the proposed hypothetical model of the study. Research questions and an outline of the study's hypotheses were considered next. I concluded the chapter with brief summaries of each chapter in accordance with the sequence in which they appear in the current study. In the following chapter, I review literature associated with this study's variables.

CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW

2 INTRODUCTION

This literature review chapter reviews literature that relates the variables under study. Its aim is to locate the study within the broader literature and context, particularly within the South African higher educational context and its relevant historical legacies. In the previous chapter the theoretical model of the study depicting relationships between variables was introduced, and theoretical underpinnings, questions, and hypotheses of the study were discussed. This current chapter extends the previous chapter and provides further literature in support of the derived hypotheses. The chapter is structured into six interlinking sections that are broken down as follows.

In Section 2.1 literature associated with this study's dependent variables which include intent to quit and intent to emigrate is discussed. In Section 2.1.1 intent to quit is introduced and located in relation to previous research that has investigated its various dimensions. An overview of factors that predict intent to quit and its relationship to the current study's outcomes are discussed. I conclude with a summary of the section. In Section 2.1.2, I deliberate on intent to emigrate to locate the concept within the context of the current study and previous literatures. Factors associated with emigration intentions and its relationship with personality is considered. I conclude the section with a summary.

In Section 2.2 literature relating to this study's predictor variables is discussed with sections broken down as follows: In Section 2.2.1, core self-evaluations is introduced then discussed. Literature on factors associated with core self-evaluations are discussed in relation to literature from previous studies. Its effect on this study's dependent variables is reviewed and considered. A discussion on how its relationship with other variables affects intent to quit and intent to emigrate is provided. I conclude the section with information related to the identified gap in literature. In Section 2.2.2, a body of literature on perceived organisational support within the context of the current study and previous literature is discussed. Factors associated with perceived organisational support and its potential consequences are outlined. The role of perceived organisational support as a mediator in the relationship between different variables and intent to quit is reviewed and considered. I conclude with an overview of identified gaps in lietrature associated with the variable's relationship with this study's variables.

Job satisfaction is considered in Section 2.2.3. Factors that influence job satisfaction and its relationship to the study's dependent variables is discussed. An overview of the mediating role of job satisfaction in previous studies is provided with the section concluding with a brief overview of the gap in literature associated with the role played by job satisfaction on the core self-evaluations and withdrawal intentions relationship. Literature on intent to migrate, its antecedents, and its consequences are considered in Section 2.2.4 after which the chapter is concluded.

2.1 DEPENDENT VARIABLES

2.1.1 **Intent to quit**

Higher educational institutions are seen as valuable intellectual assets (Caraquil et al., 2016) that contribute significantly towards poverty alleviation, and the building of less dependent, and stable self-sustaining societies (Tettey, 2006). In South Africa, higher education institutions play an important role in knowledge creation and in social and educational upliftment (Van Den Berg et al., 2008). While the most valuable asset for any such institutions is people (Caraquil et al., 2016), an emerging concern of today's organisations is employee turnover (Sachdeva, 2014).

Globally, employee turnover is a topical issue for researchers in a number of academic institutions. It is an important concern for organisations around the world and can negatively affect progress towards achieving pre-determined goals and objectives (Al-khrabsheh et al., 2018). Previous studies (Bluedorn, 1982; Griffeth & Hom, 1988; Mobley et al., 1978; Steers & Mowday, 1981) have found that the precursor to actual turnover is intent to quit. Intent to quit is defined as an employee's deliberate desire to leave their employing organisation (Boshoff et al., 2002).

In previous studies, intent to quit has been expressed in various forms including the intention to quit, intent or intention to leave, and turnover intention (Belete, 2018; Hayes et al., 2006; Takase, 2010). While intent to quit is significantly linked to turnover, the two concepts differ in meaning (Haque, 2018). Turnover is defined as an individual's action of actually quitting the organisation (Ncube, 2016) or actual withdrawal from work (Bludorn, 1982). Boshoff et al. (2002) explain that an employees' intention to leave or

stay with an employer begins with the individual examining their current situation and then moving through different stages until he or she reaches a firm intention to quit. Unlike actual turnover or actual quitting, intent to quit therefore relates to statements about specific future behaviour and is hence not explicit (Berndt, 1981). According to Johnsrud and Rosser (2002), various studies differentiate between an employee's intent to leave and actual turnover, with a number of researchers focusing on intent to leave.

A considerable amount of research has found that the immediate precursor to actual turnover behaviour is intent to quit (Bluedorn, 1982; Griffeth & Hom, 1988; Hayes et al., 2006). Intention to quit is therefore viewed as predictive of subsequent turnover (Callister, 2006) with high turnover intention rates likely to lead to high turnover (Bwowe, 2020). According to Bwowe (2020), turnover intention can impact the sustainability and quality of academic institutions. Bowen and Schuster's (1986) view is that the excellence of higher education institutions is dependent on the kind of employees it is able to enlist and retain on its faculties. However, a topic of ongoing concern within the higher education community is the flow of academics in and out of higher education institutions (Zhou, 2003).

In this study the choice is made to investigate intent to quit instead of actual turnover due to unavailable information about actual turnover. Ochola (2008) contends that investigating actual turnover is difficult as faculty members that leave their institutions are not easy to locate and their survey response rate is often low. Mabaso (2017) similarly argues that once employees have implemented the behaviour to quit, understanding their prior situation is difficult as there is little likelihood of gaining access to them. For the current study, I will use Ochola's (2008) definition of intent to quit as academics' self-initiated intention to leave their employing institutions.

As noted above, previous studies (Bluedorn, 1982; Lee & Mowday, 1987; Mobley et al., 1978; Peters et al., 1981; Steers & Mowday, 1981) have consistently found intention to leave one's job as a good proxy indicator of actual turnover. Takase (2010) explains that intention to quit is a process with multiple stages, triggered by negative psychological responses which lead to withdrawal behaviour and eventually results in an employee voluntarily leaving a current job. This makes it necessary for employers to study and

understand the reasons behind intention to quit and how to control or minimise its impact (Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012).

Werbel and Bedeian (1989) highlighted the need for organisations to deal with turnover intentions of present employees to prevent dysfunctional turnover rather than dealing with turnover on a post hoc basis with employees that have left. In Mobley's (1977) turnover model, intent to exit was conceptualised as the final stage in the psychological decision making process before one leaves the organisation. Since then, intent to quit has been been viewed as the strongest predictor of actual turnover (Griffeth & Hom, 1988; Griffeth et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2017; Smart, 1990; Steel & Ovalle, 1984). A review of turnover studies by Bluedorn (1982) concluded that there is a significant positive association between an employee's leaving intentions and actual leaving behaviour. Similarly Steel and Ovalle's (1984) large scale meta-analysis of the relationship between behavioural intentions and employee turnover indicated that there's a consistent relationship between the two variables.

The validity of studying intention to quit in higher education institutions can be drawn from Khan et al.'s (2014) study on antecedents of intention to leave among academicians. Khan et al. (2014) argue that special actions are required to address this critical leading intention to quit problem that exists in every higher education institution. Over the years, a number of researchers have attempted to answer the question of what makes employees intend to quit by investigating its possible antecedents (Carmack & Holm, 2013; Chhabra, 2018; Firth et al., 2004; Joarder et al., 2015; Mxenge et al., 2014; Razzaghian & Ghani, 2014; Rosser, 2004; Shields & Ward, 2001). However, although it is reasonable to argue that an accurate indicator of subsequent turnover behaviour is intentions, the actual determinants of such intentions remain unknown (Firth et al., 2004). Ponjuan (2005) similarly argues that while consensus about the intention to leave definition exists, little consensus has been reached on factors that affect the variable particularly in higher education research.

In spite of this and other limitations, job dissatisfaction, perceived organisational support, organisational commitment, and work related stress are among factors that have been consistently found to impact intention to quit (Firth et al., 2004). Other studies have found

most departure intentions to be due to career affective commitment (Mohamed et al., 2006), job redesign (Ugboro, 2006), personality (Allen et al., 2005), work opportunities (Aladwan et al., 2013), intent to relocate (Weng et al., 2018), and job satisfaction (Amah, 2009; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Tsai & Wu, 2010). Intent to quit has also been found to be associated with variables such as job engagement (Ro & Lee, 2017), ethical climate (Barimani et al., 2019), leadership (Lim et al., 2017), organisational commitment (Joo, 2010; Jano, 2019), work-life balance (Jaharuddin & Zainol, 2019), employee burnout (Santhanam & Srinivas, 2019), and professional identity (Wang et al., 2020).

Other studies have reflected a concern to include individual characteristics when examining faculty intent to quit (Ochola, 2008). Joo et al. (2015) argue that despite a large body of literature, research has mainly focused on attitudinal and behavioural aspects and less on personal factors that predict turnover intention. Zimmerman (2008) further notes that a research focus on environmental causes of employee turnover has resulted in the underemphasis of individual or personal differences' impact on turnover decisions. McNall et al. (2011) suggest that the way an individual reacts and responds to situations is likely affected by personality. Among personal factors that have been found to impact intention to quit are core self-evaluations (Joo et al., 2015). However no study so far has examined the dual impact of core self-evaluations on academics' intention to quit and intent to migrate within the South African context or the world over.

According to Ferris et al. (2012), core self-evaluations is conceptualised as a higher order personality construct that consists of four broad and evaluative traits, namely, self-esteem, locus of control, generalized self-efficacy, and neuroticism (also known as emotional stability). Previous studies have shown that individuals with higher levels of core self-evaluations may be better equipped with cognitive or psychological resources needed to cope under stressful situations and view the workplace with more optimism (Harris et al., 2009; Judge & Bono, 2001). Chang et al.'s (2012) meta-analysis found a negative relationship between core self-evaluations and turnover intention. They suggested that results were consistent with approach/avoidance theme that those high on core self-evaluations tend to focus on aspects of the environment that are positive and are less sensitive to stimuli that is negative. On the contrary, Harris et al.'s (2009) investigation found no association between core self-evaluations and turnover intention.

Results also showed that core self-evaluations buffer the social stressors' effects on job satisfaction, and turnover intentions.

Other researchers have suggested that intent to leave one's job primarily reflects dissatisfaction with the job in which case less satisfied employees are more inclined to want to leave their current positions (Mabaso, 2017; Steel & Ovalle, 1984). Consistent with this view, Griffeth et al. (2000) argue that a general decision to leave is often initiated by job dissatisfaction. According to Callister (2006), job satisfaction is an important construct that has generated thousands of empirical studies. In recent years, researchers examining turnover within the workplace have based their models on the assumption that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are predictors or play a mediating role in an employee's withdrawal intentions (Semmer et al., 2014).

Gomomo (2014) studied the effect of job satisfaction and organisational commitment on the intention to quit of faculty at the University of Fort Hare. The study included 309 academics and administrative staff from three campuses of the University of Fort Hare. A quantitative research design was used and data was analysed using multiple regression and Pearson correlation analyses. Results showed a negative significant relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave. No substantial relationship was found between organisational commitment and intent to leave.

Another quantitative study by Shafique et al. (2018) found that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between ethical leadership and employees' turnover intention. Shafique et al. (2018) investigated the impact of ethical leadership on employees' job satisfaction, job performance, and turnover intention. The study sample included 240 employees at an international aviation organisation. Pearson correlation and multiple regression techniques were used to analyse data. Results further showed that job satisfaction mediates the job performance and turnover intention relationship (Shafique et al., 2018).

Although a number have studies have consistently found job satisfaction to predict turnover intentions, less attention has been paid to how the relationship between work attitudes and overall subjective evaluations of life impact intention to quit (Rode et al., 2007). Rode et al. (2007) examined the effect of job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and

conflict between work and non-work domains of life on intent to quit. The sample size included 1086 air force personnel, and structural equation modeling was used to analyse data. Results showed that life satisfaction is a significant predictor of intent to quit after controlling for job satisfaction, Results also showed that both job and life satisfaction mediated the effects of role conflict between work and non-work on air force employees' intent to quit.

Other researchers (Akhtar et al., 2017; Haar et al., 2016; Tumwesigye, 2010) argue that intention to quit is linked to perception of organisational support by employees. In a quantitative study conducted by Tumwesigye (2010), it was found that perceived organisational support and organisational commitment had a negative effect on turnover intentions. Tumwesigye (2010) examined the role of organisational commitment on the perceived organisational support and turnover intentions relationship. A sample size of 297 postgraduate students from Uganda management institute working in different sectors in Uganda was used. Data was analysed using structural equation modelling. Results further showed that the relationship between perceived organisational support and turnover intentions is mediated by organisational commitment. Individual characteristics such as demographics have also been found to affect intent to quit.

According to Hayes et al. (2012), employees' demographic characteristics are among variables that have been advanced as predictors of withdrawal in a number of turnover models. Previous research has therefore explored demographic factors in relation with academics' intent to quit (Adebiyi et al., 2020; Aquino et al., 2018; Monged, 2019; Van Hoek et al., 2019). Multiple studies have indicated that an employee's age is strongly associated with intent to quit (Adebiyi et al., 2020; Aquino et al., 2018; Alausa, 2012). Other demographic variables such as gender, career age, marital status, tenure, and educational qualifications have also been found to have a significant relationship with intent to leave (Callister, 2006; Caraquil et al., 2016; Werbel & Bedeian, 1989). Kim et al. (2013) found salary and discipline to have no significant effects on intent to leave. Khan et al. (2013) however argue that monitory rewards are especially regarded as playing a vital role in faculty intent to quit.

Implications associated with the effects of the above discussed variables vary and may

include high turnover rates, loss of intellectual capital, high cost for conducting searches for new hires, or economic loses to the institution (Gomomo, 2014; Kim et al., 2013). However, differing opinions on factors that impact employees' quitting intentions and whether such factors are adequate in explaining withdrawal cognitions are among concerns raised with researchers' theoretical models (Wang et al., 2010). Zey-Ferrell's (1982) view is that the lack of inclusiveness is possibly the major weakness in various explanatory models. Although reviewed literature shows that core self-evaluations, perceived organisational support, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction are among factors that affect intent to quit, there seems to be no research conducted to investigate the combined effects of this study's predictor variables within the context of higher education institutions in South Africa. Robyn and Du Preez (2013) argue that investigating employee's intention to quit is important as it helps the human resources take a proactive approach to retention strategies within an organisation which may in turn decrease the turnover intention.

A further concern for a number of countries is the migration of highly skilled workers that has led to various interpretations, disputes and an expression of fear (Bhorat et al., 2002). While the migration of academics from Africa is not unusual, the majority of individuals that leave never return (Alemu, 2014; Beets & Willekens, 2010).

The argument I make in this study is that determinants of turnover intentions are not different from determinants of migration intentions and that withdrawal intentions result from academics' low core self-evaluations. It is also assumed in the current study that the relationship between core self-evaluations and academics' withdrawal intentions is mediated by perceived organisational support and job satisfaction, and moderated by satisfaction with quality of life. I now discuss intent to emigrate.

2.1.2 **Intent to emigrate**

A growing concern for policy makers in South Africa is the ongoing migration of educators to other countries (Mlambo & Adetiba, 2020). According to Chindarkar (2012), a critical debate associated with migration in recent years relates to the flow of skilled professionals from developing to developed countries. Over a decade ago, two-thirds of highly skilled professionals in South Africa were reported to have considered relocating

to other countries (Lee & Sehoole, 2015). Sehoole et al. (2019) argue that the outward mobility of highly skilled labour is not a new to Africa. However, the majority of academics and students that travel abroad never return home (Alemu, 2014; Beets & Willekens, 2010).

According to Nunn and Price (2005), the loss of skilled labour undermines the ability of education systems to function effectively and is a barrier to economic growth, poverty reduction, and development. Brain drain is a term used for the migration or outflow of educated elite in terms of the human capital transfer of resources from one country (developing country) to another (developed country) on a scale that threatens the needs of a developing nation in the long term (Jałowiecki & Gorzelak, 2004). Despite the massive migration and turnover of academics in South Africa, there remains a lack of studies identifying and describing factors that impact intent to migrate in the country's higher education institutions. Teichler (2015) similarly argues that the basis of information associated with migration and mobility of academics remains weak.

With increased media coverage on the migration topic, a continuously raised question in South Africa relates to migration statistics (Bhorat et al., 2002). A number of researchers argue that the impact of brain drain is difficult to quantify due to the poor quality of available data on international migration (Adams, 2003; Nunn & Price, 2005). Lowell and Fidlay's (2001) view is that systems for recording skilled emigration in South Africa do not exist. To remedy deficiencies of emigration national data that is unreliable, Bhorat et al. (2002) used selected data coming from countries that are major receivers of South African human capital. Results showed that emigration is much higher than that recorded by South African official data (Bhorat et al., 2002).

Receiving country census data also indicated that 120 000 of the estimated 520 000 South Africans who migrated between 1989 and 2003 had professional qualifications and that the number was growing by 9% yearly (Department of Home Affairs, 2017). By 2011, South Africa had lost approximately 20% of its skilled labour to migration (Rasool & Botha, 2011). While South Africans continue to speculate about the extent of intellectual diaspora, minimal studies have been conducted (Kaplan, 1997) to identify factors that influence faculty intent to migrate. In previous studies, researchers have used migration

intentions as a predictor variable of future migration flow (Migali & Scipioni, 2018; Van Dalen et al., 2005).

However, considerable debate is ongoing in migration literature about whether there is a link between migration intentions and actual behaviour (Grossutti, 1990; Van Dalen & Henkens, 2008; Williams et al., 2018). Van Der Hoek et al. (2007) define an individual's intention as one's desires that he or she is committed to achieve. On the other hand, Kearney and Beserra (2004) define migration as movement of people across a significant border that is characterised and maintained by some political regime in a manner that crossing it affects the identity of those that cross. In this current study, I define intent to emigrate as an academic's intention to move to another country. As previously mentioned, intent to migrate and intent to emigrate are considered to be synonymous for purposes of this study due to an overlap in literature.

Factors that influence a person's intention to migrate have long been a question of primary interest for both academics and policy makers (Ivlevs, 2015). Over the last decade, there has been a growing interest in academic communities on the intentions to migrate, and what their determinants and eventual consequences are (Migali & Scipioni, 2018). According to Joarder et al. (2015), the answer to why employees intend to quit or migrate has many implications for retaining employees and for organisations' ability to attract talented individuals. In South Africa, migration literature spans across various disciplines and aspects of research literature (Posel & Casale, 2003). Nunn and Price (2005) contend that the key to understanding the scale and impact of academic migration from developing countries lies in understanding factors that drive it.

Brewer and Kovner (2014) argue that the process that leads to international migration is similar to the turnover process. For example, migration factors similar to turnover factors that have been found to drive individual intentions and decisions to migrate include job dissatisfaction (Gödri & Feleky, 2016), personality (Paulauskaitė et al., 2010), subjective well-being (Cai et al., 2014), and demographics (Asadi et al., 2017). According to Migali and Scipioni (2018), those who intend to migrate are predominantly male and young, and, generally tend to report less satisfaction with life. Other factors found to drive individual decisions to migration include aspiration for better pay and job opportunities (Mullet &

Neto. 1991), salary, and career advancement (Wazir et al., 2017). High cost of living and the labour market are also among factors cited as the biggest push that lure South Africans to migrate ("Why South Africans are leaving", 2015). While previous research has focussed on socio-demographic, attitudinal, and contextual variables that impact the decision to migrate (Ivlevs, 2015), Paulauskaitė et al. (2010) argue that minimal research that takes personal factors such as psychological characteristics into consideration has been conducted. Contrary to this view, Campbell (2019) contends that a number of studies have investigated the relationship between personality and migration behaviour with mixed findings.

In a study aimed at investigating the relationship between personality and intention to migrate, Paulauskaitė et al. (2010) hypothesised that high scores on neuroticism, a personality trait (which is also a component of core self-evaluations) will be negatively associated with migratory behaviour. Lundell et al. (2017) describe neuroticism as a life-long consistent tendency to experience every day events as negative. Neuroticism has also been linked to feelings of nervousness, anxiety, and depression (John & Srivastava, 1990), characteristics which Paulauskaitė et al. (2010) suggest inhibit intentions to migrate due to tendencies of avoidance of potentially uncomfortable situations. The sample included 176 students at the Vytautas Magnus University in Kaunas, Lithuania. Results showed that there is a link between two personality traits (conscientiousness and openness to experience) and intentions to migrate. Results however indicated no relationship between neuroticism and intentions to migrate. The researchers also hypothesised a positive relationship between extraversion, which relates to high self-esteem (another component of core self-evaluations) and intention to migrate. This hypothesis was not confirmed (Paulauskaitė et al., 2010).

Speare et al., (1982) conducted a study to determine the relationship between an individual's disposition to migrate and satisfaction with the job, place of residence, and social bonds. Results indicated a weak non-significant relationship between job satisfaction and migration. Another study by Dubas-Jakóbczyk et al. (2020) examined the effect of career satisfaction on migration intentions among 396 physicians working at three university hospitals in Poland. Their quantitative and qualitative study used thematic analysis to analyse data for the qualitative aspect of the study and statistical

package for the social sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse quantitative data.

Results showed a significant association between career satisfaction and migration intentions. This result is consistent with Regts and Molleman's (2013) view that employees who are satisfied with their jobs tend to be loyal and stay in the institutions. While dissatisfaction is a condition that is necessary for an individual to consider moving, Regts and Molleman (2013) argue that it is not sufficient as dissatisfaction can be alleviated by adjustment such as a change in employment which does not require moving out of the current location.

Another study conducted by Chindarkar (2012) investigated the relationship between life satisfaction and intention to migrate. The study used data from the 2004 Peru poverty assessment tool which was collected by the IRIS centre at the University of Maryland. Multivariate regression analyses were used to analyse data. A significant negative association was found between high life satisfaction and intention to migrate suggesting that individuals that have high satisfaction with their lives may not intend to migrate (Chindarkar, 2012). A positive association was however found between highly educated individuals who reported low life satisfaction and intention to migrate abroad. Results also indicated that individuals that are highly educated have a higher likelihood to consider migrating abroad if their wages are low (Chindarkar, 2012).

Within the South African context, Mlambo and Adetiba (2020) conducted a qualitative study in which factors associated with the migration of educators out of South Africa were investigated. Mlambo and Adetiba (2020) used a strict textual analysis of relevant literature with results indicating a failure by South Africa to reduce emigration of educators due to poor working conditions. The researchers asserted that this failure had led to developed countries aggressively recruiting educators from the country.

While intention to migrate is a reliable indicator of an individuals' actual future migration behaviour (Tjaden et al., 2019), a review of literature suggests that little to no research has been conducted to investigate whether personal characteristics affect intent to emigrate within higher education institutions. Research on the intention to quit and intention to migrate of South African academics has implications for how higher

education mobility of academics is theorised, implemented, and managed. However, studies investigating antecedents of intent to emigrate are conducted either within organisational contexts (Milner et al., 2002), beyond South African borders (Grabner-Kräuter et al., 2021), or within the healthcare sector (Dovlo, 200), with some primarily focusing on students (Piguet et al., 2022) or migrant workers (Wanner, 2021). Insufficient attention has therefore been paid to the influence of personality on academics' intent to emigrate in South Africa. Research on the effect of job satisfaction, perceived organisational support, and satisfaction with quality of life on the core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate relationship is also seemingly absent.

This study seeks to fill the void on this topic and provide additional insight into academics withdrawal cognitions and how these are impacted by personal, attitudinal, and environmental factors within the context of South African higher educational institutions. Examining intentions to emigrate and its antecedents is key to understanding actual migration decision making processes considering the suggestion by empirical evidence of a strong relationship between intended and actual decision (Van Dalen & Henkens, 2008). Findings from the present study may guide steps to prevent and reduce academics' withdrawal intentions. Predictor variables investigated in this study are now considered.

2.2 PREDICTOR VARIABLES

2.2.1 Core self-evaluations

An important factor found to influence turnover intentions is personality (Allen et al., 2005). A review of literature suggests that increased attention is being paid to the hypothesis that factors within a person, separate from job attributes affect the degree of satisfaction (Judge et al., 1998b) and withdrawal cognitions experienced by employees within the workplace (Jenkins, 1993). Over the years, a number of researchers have focussed attention on a broad personality trait known as core self-evaluations (Bono & Judge, 2003). Judge et al. (2003) define core self-evaluations as underlying fundamental assessments that people make about themselves and the manner in which they function in the world.

Judge et al. (2005) however define core self-evaluations as a single, broad personality trait representing fundamental self-appraisals made by people about their competence, capabilities, and self-worth. Drawing from several literatures, Judge et al. (1997) introduced the core self-evaluations construct in 1997. The actual term (core self-evaluations) was first conceptualised in a paper linking the concept, as an integrative personality trait to job satisfaction (Judge et al., 1997). The purpose of the paper was to investigate the effects of core self-evaluations on job and life satisfaction (Judge et al., 1997). Results of their study indicated that core self-evaluations have a direct and indirect relationship with job and life satisfaction.

In the original development of the core self-evaluations concept, Judge et al. (1997) initially identified self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy, and neuroticism as indicative of core self-evaluations. The inclusion criteria used to identify core evaluations was that each trait had to be fundamental, self-evaluative, and broad (Chang et al., 2012). To meet the fundamentality criteria, the core traits had to be the source or core of all other more specific evaluations of the self as opposed to surface traits (Ferris et al., 2012). Meeting the self-evaluative criteria required the core traits to involve evaluations about the self and not just descriptions of one self (Ferris et al., 2012). To meet the broad criteria, the core traits needed to be wide in scope as opposed to a specific single ability. Judge et al. (2005) later suggested adding locus of control in subsequent research as part of the four well established traits in personality literature.

The core concept in the core self-evaluations theory is therefore indicated by the four traits (Chang et al., 2012) namely self-esteem, locus of control, generalized self-efficacy, and neuroticism (also known as emotional stability). In a number of studies, these traits are studied in isolation, however, theory suggest that they operate in a similar manner (Judge et al., 2003). While the focus of this research is core self-evaluations, defining the component concepts in isolation may be important in aiding understanding and providing insight into the core self-personality trait as a unitary construct of all four traits.

Emotional stability or neuroticism is defined as one’s ability to adapt and cope under different situations and environments and is the most studied personality concept (Judge et al., 2004). Neuroticism which is the polar opposite of emotional stability is

characterised by constructs such as hostility, impulsiveness, depression, anxiety, as well as vulnerability to stress (Hlatywayo et al., 2013). People that are neurotic often dwell in negative emotions and are usually moody, and anxious. They also lack self-confidence which results in an inability to enjoy work (Hlatywayo et al., 2013).

On the other hand, emotionally stable people have an ability to control emotions which is why previous research has found emotional stability to be positively associated with job satisfaction (Gull et al., 2020; Foulkrod et al., 2010; Judge et al., 2004; Judge et al., 2008), perceived organisational support (Huang et al., 2020; Sears, & Han, 2021; Soh et al., 2016), and negatively associated with intent to quit (Mayende & Musenze, 2014; Zimmerman, 2008). Emotional stability as an emotion-related personality trait has also been linked to locus of control as a factor that contributes to its formation (Chiang et al., 2019).

Locus of control is defined as assumptions that people make about sources of reinforcements and events in their lives (Spector & Michaels, 1986). Individuals who attribute the source of events to themselves are said to have internal locus of control while those that attribute sources to fate or outside agents are said to have an external locus of control (Bono & Judge, 2003). Individuals with internal locus of control therefore have a tendency to feel strongly that they can control circumstances in their lives while those with low locus of control believe they cannot (Chiu et al., 2005). Both concepts have implications for how one behaves or perceives events within the workplace. In a study conducted to examine the effect of locus of control on employees' actual turnover and intention to quit, Spector and Miichaels (1986) found no relationship between locus of control and turnover. Their results however showed that people with external locus of control have higher intentions to quit. Another study conducted in Nigeria by Afolabi (2005) investigated the impact that perceived organisational climate and locus of control have on job satisfaction and turnover intentions of commercial bank workers in the country. Results of this study showed that locus of control is associated with both job satisfaction and intent to quit (Afolabi, 2005).

Generalised self-efficacy refers to one’s belief in their ability to cope with adversity under stressful or challenging situations (Luszczynska et al., 2005). Judge et al. (1998a) define

generalised self-efficacy as an individual's perception of their ability to perform across a broad variety of settings. The generality of this concept therefore indicates the extent to which one's expectation of success and perseverance is achieved across situations that are similar (Hadley, 2003). This is unlike specific self-efficacy which is constrained to a particular task at hand. Individuals with a low sense of self-efficacy are associated with high levels of anxiety, depression, and helplessness (Grau et al., 2001) while those with a high sense of self-efficacy are viewed as highly motivated and competent (Hadley, 2003). Generalised self-efficacy is viewed as a precursor of one's self-concept development (Fitzmaurice, 2012) and is assumed to predict thoughts, emotion and action (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003). The variable has also been found to predict a number of important work-related outcomes such as job satisfaction (Kwok et al., 2015), occupational stress (Grau et al., 2001), performance attainments (Bandura, 1999), and job performance (Hadley, 2004).

Self-esteem is a key psychological construct as it is a central component of one's daily experiences (Kernis, 2003) and is the most central component of the core self-evaluation traits (Judge et al., 1997). Self-esteem is defined as the evaluative component of self-concept which is a broader representation of the self (Blascovich et al., 1991). It refers to the way people feel about themselves which in turn affects their ongoing transactions with their environment and those around them (Kernis, 2003). According to Orth and Robins (2014), the self-esteem concept is ubiquitous in contemporary life as it is viewed as critical to all forms of success in different life domains. People with high self-esteem self-regulate more efficiently because their positive belief in their capabilities enables them to achieve set goals (Luszczynska et al., 2005). On the other hand, individuals with low self-esteem focus on their weaknesses, which potentially results in a demoralised state of mind especially when they experience failure (Bennett, 2003). Evidence linking self-esteem to several work outcomes such as job satisfaction, perceived stress (Alavi & Askaripur, 2003; Liu et al., 2017), perceived organisational support, subjective well-being (Yu et al., 2019), life satisfaction (Hawi & Samaha, 2017), and intent to leave (Mone, 1994) has been found.

Because a strong correlation among these defined four psychological concepts has been found, Judge et al. (2002) conclude that the traits should be treated as indicators of a

single common construct. Therefore, when these traits are combined together, they form a broad dispositional construct that influences how people perceive their work roles as well as their family roles. Hiller and Hambrick (2005) argue that besides evidence showing all four component traits load highly on the core self-evaluations construct, research also shows that this broad dispositional construct is more predictive of a number of job behaviours and outcomes than the four individual component traits.

In recent years, several researchers have validated and applied the core self-evaluations construct, and have found it to be linked to a variety of outcomes such as job satisfaction, job performance (Bono & Judge, 2003), perceived organisational support (Leupold et al., 2020; McNall et al., 2011), stress (Best et al., 2005), life satisfaction (Kong et al., 2014; Smedema et al., 2015), salary attainment (Tims & Akkermans, 2017), motivation (Erez & Judge, 2001), coping processes (Kemmerer-Mueller et al., 2009), and intent to quit (Joo et al., 2015). According to Judge et al. (2005), previous research has mostly focused on the association between core self-evaluations and job satisfaction. Results from such research have suggested that individuals with a positive self-concept are more satisfied with their jobs (Judge et al., 1998b; Judge et al., 2000; Judge et al., 2005).

While previous research has recognised the critical role played by core self-evaluations in predicting job satisfaction (Wu & Griffin, 2012; Zhang et al., 2014) the integrated core self-evaluations has not been as extensively investigated in its relationship to turnover intentions (Joo et al., 2015). Meta-analysis results also show that personality traits do have an effect on employees' turnover intentions while others have suggested that this relationship is mediated and moderated (Treglown et al., 2018; Zimmerman, 2008). However, little research has been conducted to identify factors that mediate or moderate the core self-evaluations and withdrawal intentions relationship which makes it a worthwhile construct to investigate. Especially considering results of a meta-analysis conducted by Javed et al. (2014) in which they found no relationship between core self-evaluations and turnover intentions.

Javed et al. (2014) investigated the combined effects of core self-evaluations and perception of organisational politics on turnover intention. Core self-evaluations was also used as a moderator in the relationship between perception of organisational politics and

turnover intention. Javed et al.'s (2014) study sample included 100 doctors and nurses from the health sector of Faisalabad in Pakistan. Findings indicated that there is no relationship between core self-evaluations and turnover intention. A significant relationship was however found between perceived organisational politics and turnover intentions (Javed et al., 2014). Core self-evaluations have also been found to be redundant in work places where employees' institutional support is high (McNall et al., 2011).

McNall et al. (2011) investigated the effect of core self-evaluations and perceived organisational support on work-to-family enrichment, and whether these variables interact in predicting work-to-family enrichment. Their study consisted of 220 employed adults from an internet database known as StudyResponse that consists of data on individuals with an expressed interest in participating in academic research. Hierarchical regression analysis was used to analyse data. Results showed that regardless of one's core self-evaluations, employees reported high work-family-enrichment in highly supportive work environments. McNall et al. (2011) concluded that having high core self-evaluations may be redundant in a work environment that is very supportive. Other studies that investigated the core self-evaluations and perceived organisational support relationship found contrary results.

Joo et al. (2015) conducted a study to determine the effects of personal antecedents (core self-evaluations and proactive personality) and contextual antecedents (job characteristics, developmental feedback, and perceived organisational support) on turnover intention. The study sample included 291 knowledge workers in a Korean conglomerate and hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to analyse data. With the exception of proactive personality, results showed a modest yet significant association between core self-evaluations (and other tested variables) and turnover intention. Contextual factors were particularly found to be stronger predictors than personality factors (Joo et al., 2015).

Consistent with Joo et al.'s (2015) finding, results of a study by Chhabra (2020) indicated that there is a significant negative association between core self-evaluations and turnover intentions. Chhabra's (2020) study investigated the effect of core self-evaluation and work role stressors on job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour and turnover

intentions. The study sample included 347 professionals from 5 sectors namely education, service, information technology, manufacturing, and healthcare employed in Delhi and the National Capital Region in India. Results of the hierarchical multiple regressions also indicated that core self-evaluations is positively associated with job satisfaction (Chhabra, 2020). Within the South African university context, investigations on core self-evaluations have mostly focused on university students. In migration literature, studies conducted have mostly focussed on core self-evaluations relationship to migrant workers.

In a study conducted by Xiaoming et al. (2016), the effect of core self-evaluations on the relationship between migrant workers job security and two types of entrepreneurial intentions (part-time entrepreneurship intention and full-time entrepreneurship intention) was investigated. The study sample included 403 migrant workers form Shandong, Jiangsu, and Fujian provinces in China. Multiple regression analyses were used to analyse data. Results showed core self-evaluations to negatively moderate the relationship between job security and part-time entrepreneurial intention such that when their core self-evaluations were low, the positive relationship between the two variables was stronger (Xiaoming et al., 2016).

Oher studies have focused their investigations on aspects of core self-evaluations such as self-esteem (Friedlander et al., 2007), self-efficacy (Chemers et al., 2001), locus of control (Conley & You, 2014; Ng et al., 2006), and emotional stability (Judge et al., 2004) within and beyond organisational contexts. Kemmerer-Mueller et al. (2009) however argue that the overall core self-evaluations measure as a unitary construct is a more effective predictor of behavioural and other outcomes.

Although the popularity of core self-evaluations is evidenced in its appearance in organisational domains and in domains outside the organisational sciences (Salajegheh et al., 2015), its impact and popularity in migration literature is yet to be established. Further, a review of literature reveals that the effect of core self-evaluations' interaction with variables such as job satisfaction, perceived organisational support, and satisfaction with quality of life on intent to quit, and on intent to emigrate have seemingly not been investigated within the context of higher education institutions the world over. This study aims to contribute to the broader turnover and migration research through a critical

evaluation of core self-evaluations and its association to academics' withdrawal intentions. It is hypothesised in this study that academic staff's core self-evaluations are associated with the decision to leave the university and the country.

2.2.2 **Perceived organisational support**

Perceived organisational support is an important precursor of turnover intention (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Wayne et al., 1997). Employees high in perceived organisational support are less likely to leave their organisations (Eisenberger et al., 1997). As such, identifying and providing adequate support and resources to employees may be key in reducing employee turnover for organisations (Maertz et al., 2007). Heffernan and Heffernan (2019) similarly argue that the number of academics intending to leave can be halved if university administrators can provide academics with necessary support. Perceived organisational support plays a significant role in its influence on turnover intentions and is viewed as an important contextual factor to understand (Treglown et al., 2018). According to Rhoades et al., (2001), employees ascribe human-like characteristics to their organisation and infer the extent to which the organisation cares about their well-being to the organisation's practices, policies, and treatment they receive.

This view is supported by Loi et al. (2006) who argue that employees see the care and respect accorded to them by employers as a consequence of fair organisational procedures and outcomes which in turn results in employees developing a stronger attachment to the organisation. Social exchange theory proposes that the reciprocity norm obliges a person treated well by another to return the favourable treatment (Gouldner, 1960). Based on this theory, employees with a high level of perceived organisational support tend to respond in a manner that is favorable in that they express stronger feelings of commitment and loyalty to their employers (Loi et al. 2006). Employees that are committed have reduced absenteeism, higher levels of performance and have a less likelihood to quit (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Perceived organisational support is defined in this study as an employee's estimation associated with the importance of their inputs and the extent to which the organisation cares for the employee's well-being (Riggle et al., 2009). Eisenberger et al. (2001, p. 42) define perceived organisational support as an "experience-based attribution concerning

the benevolent or malevolent intent of the organisation's policies, norms, procedures, and actions as they affect employees". In spite of the subjective nature of perceived organisational support, previous research has found that human resource practices (such as organisational awards or training), favourable work conditions, and work experience predict perceived level of support by employees (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Researchers have provided evidence that perceived organisational support is associated with a number of variables such as core self-evaluations (McNall et al., 2011), job satisfaction (Ahmad & Yekta, 2010; Eisenberger et al., 1997; Mabasa & Ngirande, 2015; Riggle et al., 2009; Stamper & Johlke, 2003), subjective well-being (Caesens et al., 2016), and withdrawal behaviour (Allen et al., 2003; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Previous research further shows that the variable is associated with other important outcomes such as performance, affective commitment (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), and organisational commitment (Aube et al., 2007; Mabasa & Ngirande, 2015; Moideenkutty et al., 2001).

In turnover literature, conflicting results on the nature of relationship between perceived organisational support and intention to quit have been found. While a negative association has been found between perceived organisational support and intention to leave (Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002; Van Schalkwyk et al., 2011), a study by Fortuin (2017) found a significant positive relationship between the two variables. Further, a meta-analysis by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found a small to moderate relationship between perceived organisational support and turnover intention. A study by Zhao et al. (2007) however found that perceived organisational support is strongly associated with intent to quit and not related to turnover. Another study by Maertz et al. (2007) found perceived organisational support to be a key predictor of turnover intention.

Joo et al. (2015) argue that researchers have overwhelmingly focused on the effects of individual characteristics on employees' decision to either stay or leave and have not adequately investigated the impact that organisational factors have on such decisions. An extensive search of literature however yielded several studies that have investigated the direct relationship between perceived organisational support and intent to quit. Evident in these studies is a lack of investigations on the effect that perceived organisational support

has on academics intention to emigrate. Further, research on the mediating role played by perceived organisational support on the core self-evaluations and withdrawal intentions (intent to quit and intent to emigrate) relationship is seemingly absent.

In a slightly similar study to this current research, Treglown et al. (2018) examined the relationship between individual differences (dark personality), situational factors (perceived organisational support), and intention to quit. The role played by perceived organisational support on the relationship between dark personality and intention to quit was also investigated. Structural equation modeling was used to analyse data and a sample size of 451 ambulance personnel was used. Findings indicated that perceived organisational support plays both a mediating and moderating role in the relationship between dark personality and intention to quit (Treglown et al., 2018). Another study found that at high levels of perceived organisational support, the relationship between core self-evaluations and perceived organisational support ceases to exist (McNall et al., 2011).

McNall et al. (2011) investigated the effect that core self-evaluations, and perceived organisational support have on work-to-family enrichment. They also examined the interaction effect of core self-evaluations and perceived organisational support on work-to-family enrichment. The study sample included 220 employed adults and hierarchical regression analysis was used to analyse data. Results indicated that in work environments that are highly supportive, employees report increased levels of work-to-family enrichment regardless of core self-evaluations (McNall et al., 2011). On the other hand, when the work environment is not highly supportive, individuals with high levels of core self-evaluations report higher work-to-family enrichment compared to those with low core self-evaluations. McNall et al. (2011) concluded that having high core self-evaluations may be redundant when employees work in an environment that is highly supportive. Perceived organisational support has also been found to mediate the relationship between organisational commitment and intent to quit.

In a study by Loi et al. (2006) the mediating role of perceived organisational support on the relationship between employees' procedural justice perceptions, and intent to quit, and between organisational commitment and intention to quit was investigated.

Hierarchical regression analysis was used for data analyses and 514 practising solicitors in Hong Kong were sampled. Results showed that perceived organisational support is a strong mediator in the relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit. Both procedural and distributive justices were found to have a huge impact on organisational commitment and intention to leave. Loi et al. (2006) also found that perceived organisational support has a strong direct effect on intention to leave. The implication of Loi et al.'s (2006) finding is that if employees' perceive a lack of support or care by their organisation, their attitudinal reaction may be such that they start looking for alternative employment.

Contrary to Loi et al.'s (2006) finding of a strong relationship between perceived organisational support and turnover behaviour, a study by Allen et al. (2003) found that perceived organisational support has a weak relationship with turnover behaviour and that this relationship is mediated though organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Allen et al.'s (2003) study aimed at investigating antecedents of perceived organisational support and the role that the variable plays in the voluntary turnover process. The researchers sampled 215 department store sales people and used structural equation modelling in analysing their data. Allen et al. (2003) concluded that perceptions of supportive human resources practices contribute to the development of perceived organisational support.

Within the South African context, a study by Engelbrecht and Samuel (2019) investigated the mediating role of perceived organisational support and organisational justice on the relationships between transformational leadership and intent to quit. A survey research design using a quantitative research was employed (Engelbrecht & Samuel, 2019). The study sample included 207 employees in organisations in both public and private sectors in the Western Cape, Eastern Cape, and Gauteng provinces of South Africa. Results indicated that perceived organisational support is a significant mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership and intention to quit (Engelbrecht & Samuel, 2019). A significant association was also found between perceived organisational support and intent to quit.

However, this finding is contrary to findings in another study conducted within the higher education context in South Africa. Fortuin (2017) examined the impact of perceived organisational support and organisational commitment on turnover intention among academics at selected higher education institutions in the Western Cape Province of South Africa. Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 23 and structural equation modelling were used to test predicted relationships. The study sample included 140 academics. Results showed a significant but negative relationship between perceived organisational support and organisational commitment. A significant positive relationship between perceived organisational support and turnover intentions was also found. This finding is not consistent with previous findings as existing literature suggest a negative relationship between perceived organisational support and turnover intentions (Fortuin, 2017). In migration literature, perceived organisational support has mostly been investigated in relation to migrant workers and self-initiated expatriates with little to no research conducted to examine the variable's role on the core self-evaluations and emigration intentions relationship.

For example, Cao et al. (2014) investigated the impact that perceived organisational support has on self-initiated expatriates' intention to stay in the host country. The sample included 112 self-initiated expatriate employees in Germany and data was tested using hierarchical regression analysis. Results showed a significant negative indirect association between perceived organisational support and intention to stay (Cao et al., 2014). While an association has been found between perceived organisational support and intent to quit, in previous studies, there seems to be no studies conducted, particularly within the South African higher education context, to investigate the nature of relationship between perceived organisational support and intent to emigrate. A review of literature further suggests conflicting findings on the nature of relationship between perceived organisational support and intent to quit. The role that the variable plays on the core self-evaluations and withdrawal intentions relationship also appears to not have been investigated.

Previous research reviewed in this study however shows that personality has an effect on individuals' ability to cope with difficult life events (Bolger, 1990; Bolger & Schilling, 1991). Further, literature suggests that perceived organisational support triggers feelings

of trust, obligation and identification with the organisation (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) and fosters a strong intention to stay among employees (Engelbrecht & Samuel, 2019). The assumption therefore in the current study is that core self-evaluations will work through perceived organisational support to overcome the negative work contexts associated with an unsupportive institutional environment and in turn reduce withdrawal intentions. While this assumption has not been fully tested in previous studies, this thesis aims to fill this gap and add to existing literature on antecedents of academics' withdrawal intentions. In the next section, I review literature on job satisfaction.

2.2.3 **Job satisfaction**

A prominent theme in literature is the belief that an association exists between most attitudes and behavioural intentions (Judge et al., 2001). Researchers began to see attitude as the predictor of behaviour when psychologists Thomas and Znaniecki first viewed attitude as one's mental processes that lead to actual and potential behaviours (1918, as cited in Allport, 1935). Job satisfaction is viewed as an attitudinal variable in terms of the predominant perspective and how it is generally assessed (Spector, 1997). It is also viewed as a key component in turnover models (Martin & Roodt, 2008).

Job satisfaction is a multidimensional phenomenon with multiple antecedents such as satisfaction with work, co-workers, supervision, promotion, opportunities, and pay (Robyn & Du Preez, 2013). The job satisfaction concept has therefore been used by different scholars to identity a combination of employee feelings towards different aspects of job satisfaction that relate to the nature of the work itself (Abdulla et al., 2011). Mughal et al. (2016) define job satisfaction as how an employee feels about the job and its different aspects. According to Spector (1997) job satisfaction is the extent to which employees like their work. However, Cass et al. (2003) argue that defining job satisfaction in an inclusive and conclusive manner is difficult due to a variety of conceptualisations of the construct in the literature.

A number of researchers (Donthu et al., 2018; Gamboa et al., 2009; Giauque et al., 2014; Rizwan et al., 2014) have investigated different variables to determine how job satisfaction is created and how it affects other work outcomes (Brown & Peterson, 1993). Judge et al. (2003) have linked core self-evaluations to job satisfaction and shown that

this relationship is mediated by intrinsic job characteristics. Grant and Wrzesniewski (2010) similarly argue that core self-evaluations were originally used to predict employee differences in job satisfaction.

According to Shields and Ward (2001), job satisfaction is the single most important determinant of quitting intentions among the National Health Service nurses in the United Kingdom. Previous studies have confirmed that the causality in this relationship runs from job satisfaction to quitting intentions (Shields & Ward, 2001) and that the higher ones' job satisfaction, the lower their intention to leave (Martin & Roodt, 2008). However, De Moura et al. (2009) argue that the job satisfaction and turnover relationship may not be stable across various organisations and that satisfaction may relate closely to short term variables rather than long term variables such as turnover intentions.

While job satisfaction's empirical relationship with turnover intentions has been established through numerous studies (Dechawatanapaisal, 2018; Lichtenstein et al., 2004; Madigan & Kim, 2021; Yukongdi, & Shrestha, 2020), minimal research has examined its role in the core self-evaluations and withdrawal intentions (intent to quit and intent to emigrate) relationship. A review of literature reveals that two studies (Chhabra, 2016; Greaves et al., 2015) have investigated the mediating role played by job satisfaction in the core self-evaluations and intent to quit relationship.

Chhabra (2016) examined the mediating role of job satisfaction on the relationship between core self-evaluations and two employee outcomes (organisational citizenship behaviour and turnover intention) in Indian organisations. A sample size of 347 professionals from five sectors (education, service, information technology, manufacturing, and health care) working in Delhi and the National Capital Region (NCR) was used. Data was analysed using multiple regression analyses. Findings showed that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and turnover intention, and between core self-evaluations and organisational citizenship behaviour (Chhabra, 2016). Greaves et al. (2015) found similar results in a study conducted across three different countries.

Greaves et al. (2015) examined the effect of core self-evaluations and supervisor support on care givers' turnover intentions. Two sets of data were obtained from 57 employees from Australia, and 66 employees from the United States and India. Data was analysed using hierarchical multiple regression. Findings indicated that employees' job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion from their care work mediates the negative relationship between core self-evaluations and turnover intentions when supervisor work support and care support is high. A negative relationship was also found between core self-evaluations and subsequent turnover intentions.

While the mediating role of job satisfaction on the core self-evaluations and intent to quit relationship has been investigated, these investigations have not been conducted within the context of higher education institutions. Particularly not within the context of South African higher education institutions that has been experiencing ongoing restructuring and transformational changes (Ntisa, 2015). Transformation of higher education institutions is about transforming the culture within the institutions and developing new shared values (Fourie, 1999). It results in changes in the composition of staff and students, and may include changes in governance structures as well as course content. Ntisa (2015) however argues that such rapid changes could have a potential negative impact on the behaviour of academics staff.

Martin and Roodt (2008) similarly argue that there's growing number of literature suggesting that changes happening within South African higher education institutions may impact academics' job satisfaction as well as commitment. Martin and Roodt (2008) investigated the direct effect of job satisfaction and organisational commitment on turnover intention. The sample included 367 employees at the University of Johannesburg in Gauteng province of South Africa. Analysis of variance was used to analyse data. Results showed that there is a significant negative association between job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Another study by Ntisa (2015) examined the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment, absenteeism, work performance, and turnover intention, amongst academics at the Universities of Technology. The study sample included 600 academic staff from South African Universities of Technology. Statistical package for

social sciences (SPSS) was used for data analysis. No relationship was found between organisational commitment and work performance. Job satisfaction was found to have a significant association with organisational commitment, absenteeism, and turnover intentions (Ntisa, 2015). The job satisfaction and intention to quit relationship has also been extensively investigated within educational settings outside South Africa.

Carmack and Holm (2013) conducted a study on 111 forensic educators to investigate the effect of burnout, stress, and job satisfaction on intention to leave. The sample was obtained from a website that lists colleges and universities with competitive programs in individual events, International Parliamentary Debate Association (IPDA), American Parliamentary Debate Association (APDA), etc. An online questionnaire was used for data collection. Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse data. Carmack and Holm (2013) found that emotionally exhausted educators had thought about leaving. The study also found female educators to have reported more stress compared to their male counterparts. A further finding indicated that although a number of educators felt stressed and had thought about leaving, they were satisfied with their jobs (Carmack & Holm, 2013). No significant differences in job satisfaction between educators who had thought about leaving and those who had not were found (Carmack & Holm, 2013).

Job satisfaction is also among several variables that have been fund to impact people's decision to migrate (Speare et al., 1982). However, a review of literature on the role played by job satisfaction in the core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate relationship within higher education contexts appears to not have been investigated. Further, with the exception of one study by Kamali et al. (2020) in which job satisfaction effects on emigration intentions were investigated, it appears no other studies have investigated the direct relationship between these two variables.

Kamali et al. (2020) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and the desire to emigrate among the nurses in Tehran. The study sample included 450 nurses working in 6 hospitals in Tehran. Data was analysed using statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS). Results showed a significant relationship between nurses' desire to emigrate and their job satisfaction. In particular, nurses had less satisfaction with aspects of the job such as salary, benefits, and the work environment.

With the aim to analyse and report on the medical migration phenomenon between high-income countries, Clarke et al. (2017) examined predictors of trainee doctors' emigration intentions from Ireland. The sample included 523 trainee doctors. Eighty four percent of them were from Ireland, 6% from another European country, 6% from Asia, and 4% from other non-European countries. For data analyses, logistic regression from STATA 14 (statistical software for data package) was used. Results showed that job dissatisfaction (dissatisfaction with work-life balance and dissatisfaction with training) is the discriminating factor that predicts those who are likely to leave versus those who stay (Clarke et al., 2017).

According to Spector (1997), job satisfaction is to a certain extent a reflection of fair treatment and can be considered an indicator of psychological and emotional well-being. Mobley (1977) argues that the process of evaluating one's existing job results in an emotional state that may lead to employees having withdrawal cognitions. Nord's (1977) view is that researchers investigating job satisfaction have limited themselves to a biased set of dependant variables which are incomplete. In the current study, an extensive search of literature suggests that few studies have investigated the role played by job satisfaction in the core self-evaluations and intent to quit relationship particularly in the higher education context in South Africa. Further, while a number of investigations on migrant workers' job satisfaction have been conducted, the true nature of the relationship between job satisfaction and academics' intent to emigrate remains unresolved. This study aims to fill this gap in literature. I now discuss satisfaction with quality of life.

2.2.4 **Satisfaction with quality of life**

An assumption in behavioural sciences is that one's behaviour is guided by their goal of attaining a higher level of quality of life, and that actual behaviour should be viewed as the reflection of that (Rahman et al., 2003). Since the 1970's, quality of life, which is concerned with overall societal well-being has gained prominence in social research (Susniene & Jurkauskas, 2009). As an area of study, the concept has attracted an ever increasing amount of interest in a number of scientific fields (Ruževičius, 2014). Quality of life is defined as one's perception of life in relation to their living standards, goals, expectations, and concerns (The World Health Organisation, 1996).

Psychologists have used terms such as satisfaction or happiness in reference to quality of life (Rahman et al., 2003). Quality of life has also been used interchangeably with well-being by scholars (Uysal et al., 2016). Other terms such as standard of living, human well-being, and welfare have also been used to represent the concept (Rahman et al., 2003). Owing to the complexity of defining the quality of life concept, popular literature tends to equate quality of place as a synonym to quality of life (Møller, 2001). However, considering that the quality of life concept is seen as referring to different aspects of an individual's life, and is determined by a number of interacting factors, in the current study, I will use the term to refer to satisfaction with quality of life as relates to the availability of affordable goods and services in the country, satisfaction with income, and satisfaction with cost of living.

Brewer and Kovner (2014) argue that turnover results from an individual's decisions associated with perceptions of the work and personal environments. However, while both internal and external factors play an important role in faculty intent to leave (Matier, 1990), a number of studies (Al Zamel et al., 2020; Almalki et al., 2012; Faraji et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2013) have focused investigations on the relationship between quality of work life and intent to leave. An extensive review of literature appears to show no studies conducted to examine the role played by a general satisfaction with quality of life on the core self-evaluations and withdrawal intentions relationship.

In previous studies, quality of life has been found to be associated with core self-evaluations, (Lee et al., 2020), intention to leave (Khatatbeh et al., 2022), job satisfaction (Marques-Duarte & Pureza, 2019), work environment (Santos et al., 2018), and work ability (Dos Santos et al, 2018). In a study conducted by Lee et al. (2020), the mediation effect of core self-evaluations on the relationship between stress and quality of life was examined. The study sample included 219 adult women with multiple sclerosis. Data was analysed using multiple regression analysis. Core self-evaluations were found to mediate the relationship between stress and quality of life, suggesting that stress works through core self-evaluations to impact quality of life (Lee et al., 2020). A negative association was found between stress and quality of life, and between stress and core self-evaluations. Results also revealed that core self-evaluations is positively associated with quality of life

suggesting that people with high core self-evaluations also report having a higher quality of life (Lee et al., 2020).

Khatatbeh et al. (2022) investigated the relationship between quality of life and nurses' intent to leave. The moderating effect of hospital type on this relationship was also investigated. The sample included 225 paediatric nurses and a cross-sectional and correlational design was used. To analyse data, the statistical package for the social sciences software (SPSS) was used. Results revealed that the quality of life of nurses is negatively associated with intent to leave. Hospital type was also found to moderate the relationship between the two variables (Khatatbeh et al., 2022).

A similar study by Perry et al. (2017) examined the effect of quality of life on workforce intention to leave of nurses and midwives. The sample included 4592 members of the nurses and midwives association in Australia. The statistical software for data package (STATA) was used to analyse data. Results showed a significant association between quality of life and intention to leave. The relationship between quality of life and job satisfaction has also been investigated. A study by Cimete et al. (2003) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and the quality of life of nurses. A sample size of 501 nurses from two university hospitals in Istanbul was used. Results indicated a positive correlation between quality of life and job satisfaction. Results also showed that job satisfaction and quality of life levels differ significantly based on marital status, age, position of work, duration of employment, economic level and social functioning (Cimete et al., 2003).

According to Mowday et al. (2013), the general economic environment in which organisations operate can have powerful short-term and long-lasting effects on employees and on their working environment. Zimmerman's (2008) view is that individual differences and environmental factors have an effect on intention to quit. While previous studies have broadly investigated the effects of quality of life and its impact on various aspects of economic activity (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Guyatt, Feeny, & Patrick, 1993), an extensive search of literature seems to show no research conducted to determine how the variable interacts with core self-evaluations to impact academics' intent to quit, and intent to migrate. This study aims to fill this gap in literature and

contribute to the limited number of studies conducted on environmental and individual factors that affect withdrawal intentions of academics within the South African higher education context.

2.3 CONCLUSION

In this chapter intent to quit was introduced first and discussed in relation to the variables under study and previous literature. Following this, literature associated with intent to emigrate was reviewed and located within the South African context. Core self-evaluations was introduced next after which its associations with other variables were outlined then discussed in relation to previous research. After this, perceived organisational support, its potential consequences, and mediating roles identified in previous studies were considered. A review of literature on job satisfaction and its relationships with other variables was outlined following this. In the final section, quality of life was discussed and located within the context of the previous literature and within the South African context. In the next chapter, an overview of the methodological detail including the steps taken to address this study's research questions and hypotheses is provided.

CHAPTER 3 - METHODOLOGY

3 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, a review of literature was provided. In this current chapter, the research methodology and statistical analyses that were employed in the study are introduced and discussed. Kothari (2004) defines research methodology as the manner in which a research problem is systematically solved. Similarly, Sileyew (2019) defines research methodology as a path through which a researcher conducts their study and a guide to how research problems and objectives are formulated. The following section outlines the layout of sections in this current chapter.

The research paradigm that was chosen for this study is presented and justified in Section 3.1 of this chapter. In Section 3.2, I discuss the research design which highlights the process and manner in which this study was conducted after which the sampling procedure associated with this study's selected sampling technique is outlined in Section 3.3. Information pertaining to population, and sample characteristics are considered in Section 3.4, following which sample size and related information on the statistical technique used to determine an acceptable sample size is discussed in Section 3.5. Following this, the selected data collection technique utilised is discussed in Section 3.6 after which measuring instruments that were used to collect data are considered in Section 3.7. In Section 3.8, the data collection procedure that was followed is discussed following which data analyses including all statistical techniques that were used to evaluate data in this current study are considered in Section 3.9. The process that was followed for testing hypotheses is outlined in Section 3.10. Following this, ethical considerations observed in this study are considered in Section 3.11. Finally, I conclude the chapter with a brief overview of information covered in each section of this chapter in Section 3.12.

3.1 PLACEMENT OF THE RESEARCH: PARADIGMS

Derived from Thomas Kuhn's work (2003, as cited in Morgan, 2007), the word paradigm is used to describe a particular way of seeing the world. It also provides a way for summarising shared belief systems that influence knowledge sought by researchers and their interpretation of collected evidence. The word paradigm as derived from Kuhn's work constitutes a common way of thinking that is long held by a scientific community (Kornai, 1998). According to Coe (2021), inconsistencies or anomalies in normal science

sometimes become troublesome and trigger a scientific revolution in which old paradigms are replaced by new paradigms. However, there is no higher logic or set of values by which the merit of different paradigms can be compared as they do not have a common standard of measurement, and provide different ways of understanding the world (Coe et al., 2021).

A paradigm consists of different components such as epistemology, ontology, methodology, and methods (Morgan, 2007). Proponents of different paradigms base their beliefs relative to their own ontological and epistemological assumptions (Scotland, 2012). According to Morgan (2007), every researcher is required to take a position with regards to their perceptions of how things really are and how things operate. Therefore, this current study was underpinned by certain interrelated assumptions. These assumptions are associated with epistemology (the manner in which what is assumed to exist can be known) and ontology (assumptions about the nature and form of that which is to be explored) (Slevitch, 2011). The ontological and epistemological aspects of paradigms is concerned with what is termed as an individual's worldview (i.e. objectivistic or constructivist) which significantly impacts on the perceived relative importance of different aspects of reality (Slevitch, 2011). Therefore, while these different ways of viewing the world have repercussions in certain academic areas, none is considered to be superior to the other (Scotland, 2012).

The current study adopted the post-positivist approach which Hammersley (2019) argues was derived from positivism during the 20th century and is rooted in objectivist worldviews. Post-positivism emerged in response to critiques of the naive realism and dualism of positivism (Cooper, 1997). According to Sukamolson (2007), post-positivists aim to access their truths by way of understanding the world of that which is researched, Proponents of the post-positivism perspective claim that post-positivistic knowledge is highly certain and objective than knowledge which originated from other paradigms (Scotland, 2012). The ontological and epistemological beliefs associated with post-positivism are similar to positivism (Scotland, 2012). However, the post-positivist approach is characterised by its assumption that truth produced by the scientific paradigm is simply one’s belief in the truth of the current tested hypotheses.

Because human intellectual mechanisms are flawed, the assumption is that reality exists but only in an imperfectly apprehendable manner as it cannot be perceived with complete accuracy (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Post-positivism therefore reveals a mistrust in the notion that truth is absolute and assumes that there are a number of ways in which the truth can be acquired, and that there may be more than one actual truth (Vosloo, 2014). Having located the research in relation to other paradigmatic perspectives, I now discuss the research design of the study.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The main purpose of a research design is to provide a fitting and an appropriate framework for a study (Sileyew, 2019). Ncube (2016) defines research design as a blue print or plan of how a researcher intends to conduct a study. While the research design process involves a number of interrelated decisions, determining what research approach to use is a significant aspect of the process as it provides a guide for how relevant information for a study will be obtained. According to Williams (2007), there are three common approaches used by researchers to conduct research namely quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods. The qualitative approach is chosen for research questions requiring textural data, and the mixed methods approach is selected for research questions that require both numerical and textural data (Williams, 2007). When responding to research questions requiring numerical data, researchers typically choose the quantitative approach. Research questions require numerical data because this allows for the measurement of participant responses thereby facilitating comparison and statistical aggregation of collected data (Yilmaz, 2013).

Because this study sought to respond to research questions requiring numerical data, a quantitative cross-sectional non-experimental research design was applied. Therefore, this study was conducted from an empirical perspective as it sought to answer research questions about the direct and indirect relationships between the study variables and academics' withdrawal cognitions via statistical analysis. Walliman (2017) defines statistics as the science by which quantitative data is analysed using a variety of tests that can be applied according to the nature of the data and what one wants to examine it for. This involves computing a statistic, such as a correlation coefficient used to represent a hypothesized relationship between theoretical constructs and thus confirm a statement

that is true for the population (Drummond & Tom, 2011). Quantitative research design therefore seeks to validate a theory and statistically establish significant conclusions about an entire population by studying a representative sample of the population (Lowhorn, 2007).

The advantage of using this research design is that it is relatively inexpensive and respondents' information can be measured at a single point in time (Mann, 2003). Other advantages are that it indicates the extent, to which certain attitudes are held by people, provides estimates of the population at large, enables comparison between various groups on the basis of statistics, and is accurate, definitive, and standardised (Sukamolson, 2007).

3.3 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

A sampling procedure is a technique that a researcher uses in selecting a subset of respondents (sample) from the target population (Blanche et al., 2006). Sampling techniques are often classified into two categories namely probability and non-probability sampling (Acharya et al., 2013). Acharya et al. (2013) further note that in probability sampling, every individual in the population has an equal chance of being selected while in non-probability sampling, the probability that an individual is selected is unknown which may result in selection bias in the study. Non-probability sampling techniques include but are not limited to convenience/purposive sampling, quota sampling, and snowball sampling. For the current study, convenience/purposive sampling, a non-probability sampling technique was used to obtain the sample.

Purposive sampling can be defined as sampling which not only depends on the availability and willingness of participants but also on selecting the sample based on characteristics typical of the population (Blanche et al., 2006). It is the most commonly used technique and its advantages are that it is less expensive and a list of all the elements of the population is not needed (Acharya et al., 2013). A disadvantage is that it may not be a good representation of the population, but is especially useful when randomisation is not possible (Etikan et al., 2016). In this current study, the selected sample consisted of respondents (full time academics from five higher education institutions in South Africa) who voluntarily participated in the study and were willing and available to participate. This method of non-probability sampling was also utilised because of monetary

constraints, the lack of a sampling frame, and is less time consuming.

3.4 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

According to Sukamolson (2007), the goal of quantitative studies is to generalise findings about the samples to the population. Walliman (2017) defines population as a collective term that is used to describe the total quantity of cases that are the subject of a particular area of study. A sample is defined as a number of people, or collection of items taken from a larger population (Bineham, 2006). A sample is therefore part of a population and is often chosen in a manner that reflects the population's characteristics (Christensen et al., 2011). Christensen et al. (2011) further argued that in carefully analysing the sample, the researcher can acquire knowledge about the wider population. Sukamolson (2007) concluded that while researchers are typically not able to study the entire target population that interests them, quantitative research allows them to quantify attitudes, behaviours, and opinions, and find out how members of the population feel about a certain issue.

In this current study, the target population from which the empirical sample was drawn comprised of full time academics across a number of disciplines (i.e. departments, schools, and faculties) at five higher education institutions in South Africa namely the University of Pretoria, the University of the Witwatersrand, the University of Cape Town, the Central University of Technology, and the University of Fort Hare.

3.5 SAMPLE SIZE

Acharya et al. (2013) define a sample as a subcomponent of the population, selected on the basis that it can be representative of the larger population. According to Bornstein et al. (2013) conducting a study on an entire population is practically impossible hence researchers are forced to resort to sampling. An appropriate sample size should be estimated to ensure clinically relevant differences in the target population are detected (Faber & Fonseca, 2014). Charlesworth and Morley (2000) argued that conducting a survey requires the researcher to ensure the sample is sufficiently large and representative of the target population as the confidence in the results largely rests on these two factors.

Faber and Fonseca (2014) however noted that samples used need not be too big or too small as both sizes may have limitations that can negatively impact the conclusions drawn from the conducted studies. According to Lenth (2001), very small samples produce results that are not useful and are therefore a waste of resources, while too big a sample produce statistically detectable results in spite of the effect being of little scientific significance. Altman (1991) similarly argued that when a sample is too small, it may prevent any conclusions on findings, whereas too large a sample may amplify the detection of differences, emphasizing statistical differences that are not clinically relevant. To determine the desired sample size, an acceptable degree of accuracy (margin of error) as well as the confidence level (p-value), and the desired power for the study must be specified (Okeh, 2008). Lenth (2001) argued that a sample size determination is an important aspect of planning a statistical study and requires the researcher to obtain an estimate of one or more error variances and indicate a specific effect size of importance. Jawale (2012) therefore noted that a researcher should not determine a sample size based on intuition but should use established statistical methods for meaningful results.

In the current study, a sample size calculator (Raosoft statistical software) and formula $n=Nx/ ((N-1)E^2+x)$ by Raosoft.com (2004) was used to determine a recommended sample. When determining the sample size, the Raosoft statistical software sample size calculator takes the target population, the margin of error, the confidence level, and response distribution into consideration (Raosoft.com, 2004). With an official target population size of 5573, a margin of error of 5%, and a confidence level of 95%, the minimum recommended sample size that was determined by the Raosoft sample size calculator was 360. Based on this, and with a required response distribution rate of 50%, I deemed a sample size of 419 as sufficient for this current study. This calculation assumes that the researcher has more than 30 participants in a sample and is based on the normal distribution curve (Raosoft.com, 2004).

As noted earlier, a researcher must know and should be able to assess the extent to which results from the sample will be representative of the wider population from which the sample is taken (Christensen et al., 2011). They further argued that the extent to which results of a study can be generalised to the entire target population is associated with the methods of sample design and sampling method or technique, and data collection.

Because convenience sampling which is a non-probability sampling procedure was used in the current study, I was not able to generalise findings to other academic populations or settings beyond the current study. Data collection is now discussed.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION

Data is the basic material that researchers work with in conducting their studies (Durrheim, 2006). Researchers should have good data to analyse and interpret so as to draw valid conclusions from a research study (Durrheim, 2006). When a researcher makes a decision to collect information or data through primary sources, they also have to make a decision on what kind of data collection method to use. Primary data include field observations, informal discussions, and interviews for qualitative sources, and survey questionnaires and interview question for quantitative data sources (Sileyew, 2019). Survey questionnaires have been identified as probably the most widely used technique for data collection within the social sciences field (Latkovikj & Popovska, 2019). This is the technique that was therefore used for data collection in the current study.

3.7 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

Data collection instruments are fundamental components of the research process, as they provide the basis for analysing data to obtain answers to a given research problem (Moyo, 2017). In a number of studies, one of the most valuable and most used instruments is a questionnaire (Christensen et al., 2011). In cross sectional surveys, a questionnaire can be used as a sole research instrument (Boynton & Greenhalgh, 2004). Charlesworth and Morley (2000) define a questionnaire as a succession of questions that are designed to provide information that is accurate from every member of the sample. Instruments that are inappropriate result in poor quality data, and conclusions that are misleading (Boynton & Greenhalgh, 2004). To ensure appropriate results, a researcher should be clear about what kind of information they are seeking, why, and how it will be interpreted as well as analysed (Lancaster, 2007). A researcher should also ensure that the questionnaire is appropriate for data collection (Lancaster, 2007). Selected scientifically validated instruments that were used for data collection in the current study are now discussed.

3.7.1 **Intent to Quit Scale**

To assess academic intent to quit, I used a five item measure adopted from Walsh et al. (1985). The instrument measured academics' intent to leave on a five point response scale anchored at extreme poles from one (disagree strongly) to five (agree strongly). As the original measure was designed to measure pharmaceutical company sales people's intent to leave, I modified the scale slightly to delete any specific reference to sales or company.

For example, in a statement: "I often look to see if sales positions in other companies are open", I replaced the word "sales" with "lecturer" and "companies" with "university" by stating "I often look to see if lecturer positions in other universities are open". In another statement: "I intend to leave this company within the next six months", I replaced the word "company" with "university" by stating "I intend to leave this university within the next six months". To ensure that the measure fit modern day vocabulary context, I replaced the word "recruiter" with "an online job website" in a statement modified to state, "I am thinking about placing my CV on an online job website". Other items in the scale included "I often think about leaving my job" and "I am starting to ask my friends and contacts about other job opportunities".

Walsh et al.'s (1985) study using this scale produced a Cronbach alpha value of .90. Another study by Shapira-Lischshinsk (2009) in which the researcher conducted a study to identify factors that may reduce teachers' intent to leave yielded a Cronbach alpha value of .92. The alpha value for Rosenblatt and Inbal's (1999) study on Israeli teachers using this scale was .90. These studies provided evidence that this scale is a reliable measure.

In this current study, a Cronbach alpha value for this scale was found to be .86. Questions for the intent to quit scale are presented in the appendix (see Appendix 9.3.1). However, model fit discrepancies due to multicollinearity during the process of data analysis (confirmatory factor analysis) resulted in the removal of two items in this scale. These included item one "I often think about leaving my job" and item three "I am starting to ask my friends and contacts about other job opportunities". According to Cenfetelli and Bassellier (2009), multicollinearity has the potential to create unstable indicator weights and may result from a conceptual overlap among items in a measure. While an indicator

or item may be removed if there's a conceptual overlap, a researcher must ensure that the conceptual meaning of the construct is not affected. After removing the two items, the scales' reliability test was conducted again. The Cronbach alpha value for the three item intent to quit scale used in the final analysis was .76 (see Appendix 9.3.1 for the questionnaire). In a study conducted by Greaves et al. (2015), only one item was used to measure turnover intentions. Therefore, measuring intent to quit with three items is viewed as reasonable in the current study.

3.7.2 **Intent to Emigrate Scale**

To measure academic staff's intention to emigrate, I used an intention to emigrate scale developed by Milner et al. (2002). Items the researchers included in the scale were generated from their awareness of life in the contemporary South African context and a survey of literature. The single scale (no sub-scales) consists of 24 items measured on a five point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). An example of items in the scale included, "I have no desire to leave South Africa", "I feel forced to emigrate due to conditions in South Africa", and "I would sacrifice my standard of living in order to emigrate" (see Appendix 9.3.2 for these scale items). A high alpha coefficient of .95 was found for the full scale in a previous study by Milner et al. (2002). The current study also found a high alpha value of .94 for this scale.

However, as indicated in the previous section, model fit discrepancies emerged during confirmatory factor analysis due to multicollinearity. A total number of 13 items were removed from the scale that may have conceptually tapped into other constructs in the overall measure. Eleven items were used in the final analysis some of which include "I have a desire to leave South Africa", "I am proud to be a South African", "I am positive about the future of South Africa" and "I think that my quality of life would be better overseas". Some of the removed items included "I would advise an emigrant from South Africa to return", "I view emigration as an alternative to living in the country with a high crime rate", "I talk about this country with pride", and "I would emigrate despite the financial cost". Following the removal of the twelve items, the scales' reliability test was conducted again with a Cronbach alpha value for the eleven item intent to emigrate scale found to be .92. Therefore, the removal of items did not reduce the scale's content validity and added substantially to internal consistency of the scale. (See Appendix 9.3.2)

3.7.3 **Core Self-Evaluations Scale**

The core self-evaluations scale is a broad measure developed by Judge et al. (2003). I used this scale to measure academics' evaluations of themselves. This scale had been used previously by Dodd and Snelgar (2013) and by Maree (2004) within the South African context. It measures the core self-evaluations which include self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy, emotional stability, and locus of control (Abikoye & Sholarin, 2012). Other researchers that used the core self-evaluations scale found Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .85 (Geng et al., 2021), .78. (Zuo et al., 2020), and .77 (Ding & Yu, 2020) for the scale.

The scale consisted of 12 items in a Likert-format and contained response options that range from one (strongly disagree) to five (strongly agree). Of the 12 items in the scale, six were reverse scored. In this study, a high sore on the measure was indicated by a high score on one's core self-evaluations and a low score equalled low core self-evaluations. Some of the questions contained in the scale included, "I determine what will happen in my life", "Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work", and "I am confident I get the success I deserve in life" (see Appendix 9.3.3). Evidence from previous research suggests that compared to component scales used in isolation, the higher order core self-evaluations scale is a better construct (Hiller & Hambrick, 2005).

Among the researchers that have verified the validity of the core self-evaluations scale are Judge et al. (2004), and Kemmerer-Mueller et al. (2009). Evidence from previous studies suggests that the scale has acceptable levels of internal consistency and has met the condition for test-retest reliability (Kemmerer-Mueller et al., 2009). Furthermore, Cronbach alpha values for the scale have been found to be acceptable.

A study conducted by Maree (2004) within the South African context using the core self-evaluations scale produced an acceptable alpha value of .71 for the full scale. Gardner and Pierce's (2010) study found a Cronbach alpha value of .82 for the full scale. Another study conducted in Nigeria by Abikoye and Sholarin (2012) produced a coefficient alpha of .89 also for the full core self-evaluations scale. An alpha value of .85 was found for this scale in the current study.

To reduce multicollinearity in the overall measure used in the structural equation modelling (SEM) analysis and improve its internal consistency (Thompson & Phua, 2012), the core self-evaluations scale needed to be trimmed following a confirmatory factor analysis process. In total, four items were removed from the scale and eight were retained for use in the final analysis. Some statements read “Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless.”, “Overall, I am satisfied with myself”, “I determine what will happen in my life”, “Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work”, “I am capable of coping with most of my problems”, and “There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me”. The combined eight items used in the final SEM analysis produced a Cronbach’s alpha value of .83. The core self-evaluations scales are presented in Appendix 9.3.3.

3.7.4 **Job Satisfaction Scale**

To measure job satisfaction, I used the overall job satisfaction scale developed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951). While the measure uses 18 items, previous research has provided evidence of the validity and reliability for a six item version (Agho et al., 1992; Aryee et al., 1999). Response options for the scale ranged from one (strongly disagree) to five (strongly agree). While some statements were worded positively, one is worded negatively. Examples of items in the scale included: “Most days I am enthusiastic about my job” and “I find real enjoyment in my work”. Cronbach alpha values for the 18 item measure have ranged from .88 to .99 (Moorman, 1993; Shore et al., 1990) and from .83 to .90 for the six item measure (Agho et al., 1993; Aryee et al., 1999; Judge et al., 1998). In a study conducted by Adiguzel et al. (2020), the six item scale was used with reliability results showing a Cronbach alpha value of .87. A Cronbach alpha value of .87 was found for the six item scale in the current study. One item (“I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job”) was however removed due to multicollinearity as indicated in the previous sections. The five item scale used in the final model for analyses produced a Cronbach alpha value of .86. Questions for the job satisfaction scale are presented in Appendix 9.3.6.

3.7.5 **Perceived Organisational Support Scale**

To measure perceived organisational support, I used items from the survey of perceived organisational support developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986). The six items have been used in a previous study by Rhoades et al. (2001). The items are in a Likert-format and

contained response options that range from one (strongly disagree) to seven (strongly agree). Of the six items, one is reverse scored. Acceptable alpha values have been found ranging from .80 for the six item scale (Rhoades et al., 2001; Nielsen, 2006) and .97 for the full survey (Eisenberger et al., 1986). In the current study, a high alpha value of .94 was found for the six item scale. All the items in this scale were used in the final model for analyses. An example of items in the survey included: “The institution shows very little concern for me (R)”, “The institution is willing to help me if I need a special favour”, and “The institution really cares about my well-being”. Items for this scale are provided in Appendix 9.3.5.

3.7.6 **Satisfaction with Quality of Life in South Africa Scale**

In this study, I used the satisfaction levels in the country survey developed by Mattes and Richmond (2000) and adapted by Brink (2012) as a measure of satisfaction with the quality of life in South Africa. Using a Likert scale, respondents were questioned on their levels of satisfaction in South Africa. I asked academics to tick a box on a 16 item instrument using a five point scale to indicate their degree of satisfaction associated with listed factors relating to safety, government policies, and health care in South Africa.

The ranking was recorded on Likert type scales that ranged from one (high degree of satisfaction) to five (high degree of dissatisfaction). Examples of the statements included in the scale are, indicate the degree of satisfaction you feel about: “Level of taxation”, “Your family’s safety”, “Level of income”, and “Your prospects for professional development”. The combined alpha value for this scale was .86 in this current study. Problems with multicollinearity in the measurement model (see Figure 5) however resulted in the removal of 13 items in the scale with only three items used in the final model. These include, degree of satisfaction with “cost of living”, “level of income”, and “the availability of affordable and quality products”.

Multicollinearity is harmful and results from high correlation between two or more predictor variables in a multiple regression which leads to incorrect magnitude parameter estimates (Van Steen et al., 2002). One way of mitigating the negative effects of multicollinearity is to delete offending items from the regression model which is done on the basis that one or more items are redundant (Van Steen et al., 2002). Others have

argued that measures with multiple items are not always necessary and can be replaced by measures that use a single-item in a number of cases (Alexandrov, 2010).

The three items that were used in the final analysis included satisfaction levels with “Cost of leaving”, “Level of income”, and “The availability of affordable/quality products”. Some of the removed items included degree of satisfaction with “Security of your job”, “Your prospects for professional development”, “Level of taxation”, and “The ability to find a good school for your children”. The three items used in the final model for SEM analysis produced a Cronbach’s alpha value of .63. While the internal consistency of this scale reduced, the validity of the final measurement model was improved (see Appendix 9.3.4 for the scale items). The use of three items to measure satisfaction with quality of life is not uncharacteristic and follows precedent in previous studies (Cheung & Lucas, 2014; Lea et al., 2007). For example, Cheung and Lucas (2014, p. 6) investigated the criterion and construct validity of a single measure of life satisfaction which read “In general, how satisfied are you with your life?” Their single item measure was compared to the satisfaction with life measure (SWLS) which is a highly established multiple-item measure. A significant association was found between their single item measure and the satisfaction with life scale. Results further showed no systematic difference between the single item measure and the multiple item measure (Cheung & Lucas, 2014).

3.7.7 **Covariates**

The questionnaire used in the study also incorporated demographic questions that relate to age, race, gender, place of birth, and number of dependents that were used as covariates in the SEM analysis. Demographic characteristics are among variables found to play a role in employee mobility decisions (Campbell et al., 2012). Wöcke and Heymann (2012) argue that demographic variables should be examined to extend contemporary turnover models in South Africa. Social desirability was also measured and included as a covariate to account for its unobserved influence on academics’ withdrawal cognitions. Including covariates (such as race, gender etc.) when conducting a SEM analysis ensures that the influence of the covariate on the dependent variables is removed thereby controlling for the effects of extraneous factors (Schneider et al., 2015). In this

section, I give a brief overview of some studies in which the importance of these control variables has been explored particularly for studying faculty turnover.

Age

The age of employees has been found to have a significant effect on a number of work related outcomes such as voluntary turnover (Heymann, 2010; Jo, 2008), job satisfaction (Khan et al., 2020), and intent to quit (Blomme et al., 2010). According to Heymann (2010), age is arguably one of the most significant factors that play a role in employee retention (Heymann, 2010). Cron and Slocum (1986) attributed this to the different stages employees go through where certain aspects of their work and organisational environment are prioritised in relation to their personal lives. In a study investigating the relative impact of individual attributes and other variables on faculty intent to quit, Smart (1990) found that younger faculty members were more likely to quit while Aarons et al. (2009) found older age to be associated with a reduced risk of employee turnover in a study in which staff retention in a children's services system was examined. Similarly, Yucel and Bekats (2012) argue that older teachers have high levels of organisational commitment due to limited employment opportunities and only remain with the institutions due to scarcity of available alternatives. In the current study, a direct question ('How old are you?") was asked to determine the age of each academic.

Gender

In a study conducted at different research institutions to investigate and compare job satisfaction rates of faculty members across gender, Sabharwal and Corley (2009) found a significant difference in years of experience with male faculty members having more years of experience and higher likelihood to be tenured. Male faculty members were also found to have significantly higher salaries than female faculty, and higher levels of overall job satisfaction and job security across all disciplines (Sabharwal & Corley, 2009). Weisberg and Kirschenbaum (1993) found that women had greater rates of actual turnover than men, but no differences in turnover intentions were found. Another study by Waljee et al. (2015) aimed at examining differences in faculty position and professional satisfaction among academic physicians found that men were more likely to quit due to leadership opportunities and that women were less satisfied than male faculty. To determine academics' gender, participants had to answer the question "What is your

gender?" by selecting from a range of options that include "male", "female", "other", or "rather not say".

Race

A number of studies have investigated the effect that race has on various work related outcomes such as turnover (Heymann, 2010), job satisfaction (Doede, 2017), work commitment (Maume et al., 2014), and promotion rate (James, 2000). While unfair labour practices have had a substantial impact on the psychological contract associated with loyalty to an institution in South Africa (Heymann, 2010), the Employment Equity Act has been used in the country to transform and dismantle the legacy of apartheid through the enforcement of values and cultures deemed equitable to society, particularly in the context of work. However, given high levels of diversity among South African lecturers, it is likely that historical factors may still persist in their influence on decision making processes. It is possible that experiences of disadvantage by some, or unfair labour practices by others may negatively influence behaviour and decision making, such that they may choose to act in a manner that reflects self-cognitions associated with core self-evaluations. Levels of job satisfaction have also been found to differ by gender and by race. Liu and Ramsey (2008) found that females had lower job satisfaction than males and that levels of job satisfaction in the minority (defined as non-White) was lower compared to Whites. For the finale SEM model, I treated race dichotomously with a rating of one assigned to White academics and zero to the rest of academics.

Dependants

In literature, one's number of dependants is viewed as representing family responsibilities (Syce, 2012). Therefore, the assumption is that the greater the family responsibilities for an employee, the less likely they are to leave (Syce, 2012). According to Rhnima and Pousa (2017), the interference between family life and work life represents a significant explanation for withdrawal behaviours in employees that have many dependants. A study by Chimanikire et al. (2007) in which factors affecting job satisfaction among academic professionals at tertiary institutions in Zimbabwe was examined found that employees with a larger number of dependants were less likely to be satisfied with their current jobs. In a study by Wöcke and Heymann (2012), no difference in turnover was found between those with higher years of work service and number of dependants. In the current study, I

determined academics number of dependants using a single question which stated “How many dependants do you support in your family”.

Country of birth

The workforce in different regions of the world is increasingly becoming diverse in respect of country of birth or origin (Köllen et al., 2020). According to Köllen et al. (2020), the diversity associated with place or country of birth may trigger turnover behaviour. In previous research, individual variables such as race and citizenship have been found to be associated with faculty intent to leave and with those that are undecided (Kim et al., 2013). In a study conducted by You (1995) to examine Mobley's (1977) psychological turnover model, and the role of ethnicity in the turnover process, country of origin was found to have a significant association with thoughts of quitting. Another study conducted by Weisberg and Kirschenbaum (1991) to investigate turnover intentions in Israel however found that ethnic origin (measured as country of birth) had no significant impact on turnover intentions. Conflicting findings on the role played by country of birth have therefore been found. To determine if academics who participated in the study were born in South Africa, a dichotomous question requiring a yes or no response was asked in the current study. The question read, “Where you born in South Africa?”

Social Desirability

Concerns associated with response bias arise whenever research is conducted using self-report measures (Paulhus, 2017). According to Dodaj (2012) a key strategy in reducing response distortion on questionnaires is in using scales of socially desirable responding which include a number of either desirable but false statements or undesirable statements that are true. Paulhus (1984) defined socially desirable responding as an unconscious tendency to see oneself in a favorable light, or deliberate distortion of self-presentation. Socially desirable responding results in measurement error and therefore needs to be controlled for or eliminated (Dodaj, 2012). To measure social desirability in the current study, the six item social desirability-gamma short scale developed by Kemper et al. (2014) (as cited by Nießen et al., 2019) was used. Items in the scale included “In an argument, I always remain objective and stick to the facts”, “Even if I am feeling stressed, I am always friendly and polite to others”, “It has happened that I have taken

advantage of someone in the past", "I have occasionally thrown litter away in the countryside or on to the road", and "Sometimes, I only help people if I expect to get something in return". All six items in the scale were used.

3.8 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Firstly, I submitted my research proposal to the ethics committee of the Witwatersrand University in February 2019. The proposal was approved on the 9th April 2019 and permission to conduct research was granted. Following this, I contacted 22 higher education institutions in South Africa to obtain permission for participation in the study. Of the 22 institutions contacted, 15 responded and five granted ethics permission for their academics to be sampled. The sampling protocol requires that scales used in the study needed to be tested in piloting. The instrument was therefore piloted and principles of reliability and validity were used to guide data collection and data analysis processes. All potential respondents (full time academics) from five higher education institutions were directly invited to participate via e-mail with a link to an electronic survey questionnaire which was used to collect data. The purpose of the questionnaire was to sample demographic information as well as information obtained from the scales discussed under the instruments section. SurveyMonkey was used to host the electronic questionnaire. Academics were made aware that participation in the study would be taken as consent.

Because of their potential to reduce survey work expenses, existing literature suggests that computer-administered electronic surveys are more attractive to both academic and commercial researchers (Boyera et al., 2002). In Latkovikj and Popovska's (2019) view, the most obvious advantage of electronic questionnaires which has attracted a number of researchers, is that it is less expensive and is time efficient, and has a potential large, geographically diverse number of people associated with the process. They further argue that the disadvantage of the online approach to conducting research especially for quantitative research approaches is the limited levels of control associated with online technical issues, such as various hardware and software configurations and as network traffic performance (Latkovikj and Popovska, 2019).

According to Boyera et al. (2002), electronic surveys have been found to have advantages such as the ability to include detailed descriptions to questions, ensuring more precisely

tailored questions, and it allows for the inclusion of picture and colour formatting. Latkovikj and Popovska (2019) argued that online surveys can be conducted in a number of formats which may include sending an e-mail with an embedded survey or sending an e-mail with a link to a survey URL (Uniform Resource Locator).

Four hundred and seventy one participants responded from the five higher education institutions that granted permission. This includes 135 from the University of Pretoria, 254 from the University of the Witwatersrand, 48 from the University of Cape Town, three from the Central University of Technology, seven from the University of Fort Hare, and 24 were unspecified as they did not include the names of the universities that they were employed at. Therefore, the total number of academics (sample) who responded and participated in the survey questionnaire was 471. While the email sent to academics clearly stated that only full time academics could voluntarily participate, 42 respondents indicated that they did not work on a full time basis at the universities at which they were employed and 10 had missing data. Because this study's focus was on fulltime academics, the final sample included in this study consisted of 419 respondents. The 42 part time academics and the 10 who had missing data were therefore excluded from the study.

3.9 DATA ANALYSES

The word data can be defined as known things, or presumed facts and figures that one can draw conclusions from (Taylor, & Cihon, 2004) According to Brandt and Brandt (1998), different branches of experimental science are concerned with quantitative studies of the phenomena of interest such as measurements. Other than designing research studies and conducting experiments, an important task in conducting research is data analysis which involves the conversion of data into information (Taylor & Cihon, 2004). Data analysis is therefore a process of accurately evaluating the obtained data (Brandt & Brandt, 1998). In this study, data analysis focused on numerical or quantitative data analysis.

3.9.1 **Missing data**

In the first stage of analysis, the quantitative data were collected from the primary data source via questionnaires and was coded using Windows 8 Microsoft Excel 2010 spreadsheet. This process involved identifying, classifying, and then assigning a character

symbol (numeric) to the data. This process was applied to all the questions that required this treatment. I then did case screening in rows and removed ten rows that had missing data of over 20% in the data set. Of those removed, one case had also displayed a lack of engagement as the respondent answered using the same response to different statements in the Likert scales (i.e., consistently answered with option four). In total, 10 cases were removed. This resulted in a reduced sample size of 461 from 471. Because this study's focus was on fulltime academics, 42 respondents who indicated that they were not employed on a fulltime basis were also removed resulting in a sample size of 419. To maintain the accuracy of results, I also checked for missing data in the columns. Results of all analyses undertaken to identify outliers and missing values are discussed in Section 4.1.1 of chapter four.

3.9.2 **Outliers and extreme values**

Following missing data screening, preliminary data analysis (Cook's distance analysis) was conducted to determine if outliers that could potentially influence the results of the study were present. Measurement indicators in the analysis output were inspected to identify data points that were significantly different from other data points within the data set.

3.9.3 **Descriptive statistics**

Post data screening, all coded data was entered into SPSS to carry out the data analysis to meet the assumptions for SEM. First a process of univariate analysis was conducted to provide an insight into the quantitative sample's attributes or characteristics and to summarise the quantitative data collected. Park (2008) defines univariate analysis as a procedure that computes various statistics and produces descriptive information that offers a way to summarise and organise data in a manner that is efficient and meaningful. For Bryman and Cramer (2012), univariate analyses provide different ways in which information from a single variable can be analysed, summarised, and presented.

Descriptive statistics that include measures of frequency distribution, central tendency, and dispersion were conducted to summarise data. Ho (2013, p. 1) notes that "descriptive statistics are used to describe a set of data in terms of the frequency of occurrences, its central tendency, and dispersion". In Whitley and Ball's (2001) view, quantitative data is

often summarised by calculating the averages, frequency distributions as well as percentage distributions and can be presented using histograms, boxplot, whisker plots, bar and pie charts, frequency polygons, line graphs and scatterplots.

Summarised data may include various demographic characteristics, actual responses to questionnaires, and variables which are then tabulated in terms of the frequency of occurrence in the sample. Dispersions (standard deviation) and the central tendency of the dependent and independent variables as measured by the mean, mode, and median were determined. Central tendency describes the centre of a frequency distribution of observations (Park, 2008).

To ensure scientific rigour, the normality of residuals were tested sing the Shapiro-Wilk tests. As indicated above, the univariate data is represented in the frequency distribution and the histogram and normal probability plots were checked to determine if data were normally distributed. All biographical variables were assessed in this manner and included: age, gender, years in South Africa, country of birth, first language, ethnic origin, work experience, years as an academic, highest educational qualification, job title, relationship status, number of dependents, average class size supported in family, years of education and university employed at.

3.9.4 **Univariate analyses**

Correlations

Pearson Correlation is used to test the strength and direction of a linear relationship between two continuous variables to determine whether a statistically significant relationship exists between the two (Bonett, 2008). Pearson correlation was conducted with results presented in Table 5.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) and Bartlett's test of sphericity

The appropriateness of the data for factor analysis of this study's measurement scales (core self-evaluations scale, job satisfaction scale, satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa scale, perceived organisational support scale, intent to migrate scale and

intention to quit scale) was determined using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) and Bartlett's test of sphericity and applying these to the inter-item correlation matrix of the measurement instruments. The KMO test measures the degree to which variables in a measure inter-correlate (Field, 2009).

3.9.5 **Multivariate analyses**

After the univariate analyses, I undertook multivariate analyses to test the study's stated hypotheses. Abdi (2003) defines multivariate analysis as a set of techniques whose purpose is to analyse data sets that have more than one variable. Data are therefore indicated as multivariate (or multivariable) when a sample survey results in the measurements of more than one variable in every sampling unit (Kenkel, 2006). Statistical techniques employed in the multivariate analyses are now discussed.

Statistical Techniques

The statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the univariate data and Analysis of Moment Structures Software (AMOS) for the multivariate analysis. SPSS is the most popular of the many statistical packages and can be defined as an integrated system of computer programs designed for purposes of analysing social sciences data (Ho, 2013). Ozgur et al., (2015) argue that SPSS is well suited to statistical analyses as it links data that is numerically coded to its original meaning with most data being electronically stored in numerical form. SPSS is easy and quick to learn, and can handle large amounts of data (Sewall, 2019). The use of SPSS is therefore justified because it permits a lot of flexibility in data formatting, has a comprehensive set of procedures that allow for data analysis, transformation and manipulation, and provides a large number of statistical analyses (Hall, 2013)

Structural equation modelling (SEM)

SEM, which included tests of the hypothesised relationships (tests of the full structural model) as well as tests of mediation and moderation were performed using multi-group analysis in AMOS SPSS (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). Byrne (2016) defines SEM as a statistical method which adopts a confirmatory approach to the analysis of structural theory bearing on some phenomena. As a term, it conveys two important aspects: the assumption that causal processes under study are represented by a series of structural equations such as regressions, and that these structural relationships can be represented in

a pictorial form to allow for a clear conceptualisation of theory (Byrne, 2016).

The use of SEM is justified as the methodology is appropriate for testing theories that are complex and involves direct and mediating relationships that generate multiple variable observations (Aragon, 2001). On the basis of these analyses, the study sought to provide a holistic perspective of the relationship between core self-evaluations and academics' intent to quit, and intent to emigrate.

3.9.6 **Reliability**

Tests of composite reliability and average variance extracted (AVE) were conducted to meet the structural equation modelling assumptions. An important requirement of a measurement instrument is its ability to be replicated and to produce scores that are consistent (Bolarinwa, 2015). An instrument's reliability therefore indicates consistency of the scores acquired from the instrument (Oktavia et al., 2018). Hammersley (1987) argues that a measure that is reliable should display internal reliability, stability, and inter-observer consistency. According to Singh (2017), a Cronbach's alpha test is the most commonly accepted method of testing of reliability. In the current study, Cronbach's Alpha tests of reliability were used to test the scales' reliability and assured internal consistencies. Results of these reliability tests are reported under the instruments section.

3.9.7 **Validity**

The term validity denotes the degree to which an instrument measures what it purports to measure (Oktavia at al., 2018, p. 2). Information relating to convergent and discriminant validity was carefully noted and considered. The test of average variance extracted (AVE) was conducted to measure the scales' convergent validity, discriminant validity, and internal consistency thereby ensuring that the measurement model was validated (Dos Santos & Cirillo, 2021). Dos Santos and Cirillo (2021) define average variance extracted as the average amount of variation explained by the latent construct in the observed variables to which it is theoretically related. "Convergent validity is the degree of confidence of the property measured in a good level by its indicators, while the discriminant validity is the degree of measurement of different properties that are unrelated to each other" (Dilekli & Tezci, 2019, p. 947).

3.9.8 **Pilot study**

Hazzi and Maldaon (2015) define a pilot study as an important initial step in every research study and is a cornerstone of good research designs. It is conducted to test research methods and procedures on a smaller scale and to determine if a study can be conducted on a bigger scale, and how (In, 2017). A pilot study is therefore necessary for the identification of problem areas that may impact the main study, and as such can lead to an improvement in the quality and efficiency of the full scale study (Hazzi & Maldaon, 2015). In this current study, a pilot study was conducted to identify if there were any issues with the measurement instrument and procedures. Following this, corrections were made prior to conducting the full-scale study. For example, the satisfaction with life scale (SWLS) by Diener et al. (1985) was dropped as it was similar to the Satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa scale that was used in the large scale study. A social desirability scale was also added to the measure to control for socially desirable responses that create false relationships between variables and hence reduce validity in measuring instruments (Van de Mortel, 2008). A problem with response rate was also identified (only 11 academics responded and were used in the pilot study) which resulted in an improvement in the procedure for inviting participants.

3.9.9 **Confirmatory factor analysis**

Confirmatory factor analysis was undertaken as the first step of the SEM. Model fit analysis was also conducted during the confirmatory factor analysis. Stapleton (1997) defines model fit in terms of how well one's proposed model or the model of the factor structure accounts for the correlations among variables in the dataset. When scale-items have been measured using a single electronic questionnaire survey and at a single point in time, there is the possibility that the tested relationships among the constructs might be distorted due to the effect of common method variance (Rodríguez-Ardura & Meseguer-Artola, 2020). The bias that is caused by common method variance is also known as common method bias which occurs when the estimated relationship between two constructs might be enlarged or inflated (Rodríguez-Ardura & Meseguer-Artola, 2020). This may lead to model fit discrepancies. Podsakoff (2003) argues that method bias results in measurement error and threatens the validity of the conclusions about relationships between items in a scale.

To control for common method bias, I used covariance based SEM to do a confirmatory factor analysis (Gaskin, 2012). Sun (2005) defines confirmatory factor analysis as the first step in the testing strategy and involves separately testing for evidence of fit within each group or factor. Brown and Moore (2012) define it as a type of measurement model for structural equation modelling that specifically deals with the relationships between observed measures or indicators such as test items, behavioural observation ratings and latent variables of factors. The goal of latent variable measurement model (i.e. factor analysis) is to determine the number and nature of factors responsible for the variation and co-variation among factors.

A number of goodness-of-fit indexes were used to evaluate the fit of the final model. First, I used the chi-square test to assess the goodness of-fit between the constrained model (were the regression weights were constrained to zero) and unconstrained model. Covariance correlation matrixes were observed. Other additional tests of fit: Comparative Fit Index (CIF), Tucker–Lewis index (TLI), the goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) residual were also observed. CIF and TLI values of .95 or higher were viewed as acceptable (Anderson et al., 2013). Goodness-of-fit index values of .90 or higher indicate an adequate fit (Lichtenstein et al., 2004) and an RMSEA value of .06 to .80 or smaller with confidence levels of less than .60 indicate a close fit with the data (Schreiber et al., 2006). The resulting trimmed model only includes paths that best explain the dynamics affecting the intent to quit and intent to emigrate of full time academics at five higher education institutions in South Africa. After assuming a reasonably good fit model, I proceeded to do configural, metric, and scaler invariance which are discussed in the following section.

3.9.10 **Measurement invariance**

According to Şeref and Pektaş (2020) it is important to ensure measurement invariance when doing research were measurements are used to compare group means. “When we want to compare different groups, it should be proven that the scores obtained from the scale are not biased” (Şeref & Pektaş, 2020, p. 28). According to Cieciuch and Davidov (2015), measurement invariance is a precondition for comparing indicators measured using data collected either online or offline. Borsboom (2006) posits that measurement invariance contributes to validity issues were invariance does not hold because scores

from an instrument are either biased or lack fairness. Measurement invariance (configural, matric, and scaler invariance) was conducted using AMOS SPSS to examine if the model fit for different groups in the analyses (i.e., male and female).

3.9.11 **Multicollinearity**

Multicollinearity seems to be a concern in studies that focus on modeling because it is a huge threat to SEM (Radzi et al., 2017). According to Bacon and Bacon (2001), multicollinearity occurs from asking the same respondents for multiple answers within the same context. This may result in low discriminant validity which in turn leads to multicollinearity (Radzi et al., 2017). I examined correlation coefficients in a multicollinearity test in SPSS. The variable inflation factors (VIF) for collinearity statistics were inspected in the output table to see if values stayed within the threshold of less than 10.

3.9.12 **Testing Hypotheses**

An important aspect of the research strategy is the formulation and testing of the research hypothesis about the target population (Ho, 2013). When research is conducted, the measurement of variables forms the basis of the research hypotheses. In the current study, research questions were derived from literature and the four overarching research questions were:

1. To what extent are core self-evaluations related to intent to quit, and to intent to emigrate?
2. To what extent does perceived organisational support mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit, and between core self evaluations and intent to emigrate?
3. To what extent does job satisfaction mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit, and between core self evaluations and intent to emigrate?
4. To what extent does satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa moderate the effect of core self-evaluations on intent to quit and effect of core self evaluations on intent to emigrate?

From these core research questions, subordinate research questions and hypotheses were

derived, and tested thereafter. As mentioned earlier, a significance level of 5% (α = .05) that relates to a confidence level of .95 was used to accept or reject the tested hypotheses. Each hypothesis tested is introduced in the sections below and the methods of analysis used for each hypothesis are discussed. The sections below are structured around the different hypotheses for the purpose of clarity and to ensure a coherent structure that corresponds with the reporting of results in the next chapter.

Hypothesis 1.

Null Hypothesis: ***There is a no significant negative association between core self-evaluations and intent to quit.***

Alternative Hypothesis: ***There is a significant negative association between core self-evaluations and intent to quit.***

To test this hypothesis, Pearson correlation was conducted first to determine empirical associations between core self-evaluations and other study variables including intent to quit. A confirmatory factor analysis was then conducted to determine model fit via construct validation and the evaluation of measurement invariance (configural invariance, metric invariance, and scalar invariance) (Brown & Moore, 2012). Following this, a Cook's distance analysis was conducted to identify and deal with any influential outliers. A test for multicollinearity was also conducted to examine variable inflation factors that may impact predictors (Shrestha, 2020). The conducted test ensured that SEM assumptions were met prior to the analysis.

Gunzler et al. (2013) define the direct effect is the pathway from the independent variable to the outcome variable while controlling for a mediator. SEM was conducted to examine the direct relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit in the presence of a mediator. Age, race, gender, place of birth, and dependents were controlled for in the structural equations in the structural model. Social desirability was also included as a covariate.

Hypothesis 2.

Null Hypothesis: ***There is no significant negative association between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate.***

Alternative Hypothesis: ***There is a significant negative association between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate.***

To test this hypothesis, Pearson correlation was also conducted to determine associations between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate. Model fit determination was conducted through confirmatory factor analysis. During this process, construct validation and measurement invariance tests were conducted (Brown & Moore, 2012). Similar to test conducted for hypothesis 1, a Cook's distance analysis and test for multicollinearity were conducted. Following this, SEM was conducted to examine the direct relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate in the presence of indirect paths (mediators). The same demographic covariates including social desirability used in testing hypothesis 1 were used in the analysis for this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1a.

Null Hypothesis: ***Perceived organisational support does not mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit.***

Null Hypothesis: ***Perceived organisational support mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit.***

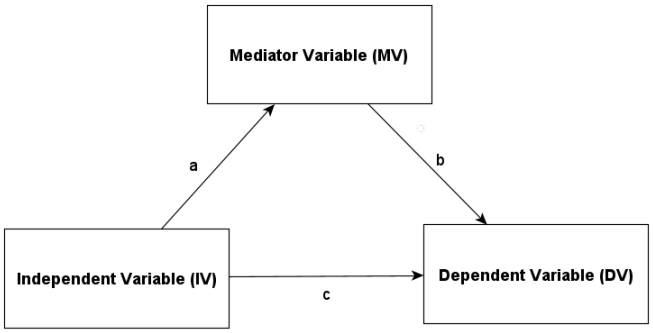
A mediator is an intermediary, a link in a causal chain and is used to assess hypotheses in which the independent variable works through the mediator to impact the dependent variable (Woody, 2011). Prior to testing the hypothesis, multivariate normality of error terms was assumed. It was also assumed that error terms were uncorrelated. To test the hypothesis, Pearson's correlation was conducted to determine the empirical relationship between core self-evaluations and other study variables. The direct effect of core self-evaluations on perceived organisational support, and perceived organisational support on intent to quit was tested using a bootstrap analysis of mediation in AMOS SPSS SEM. According to Gunzler et al. (2013), SEM is a powerful multivariate technique which provides a very general, flexible framework for performing mediation analysis. The

purpose of a bootstrap analysis of mediation was to obtain significance level for the direct and indirect effects. Bootstrapping is also important as it provides means to get confidence intervals (CI) and p-values (Woody, 2011).

According to Gunzler et al. (2013), the direct effect is the pathway from the independent variable to the outcome variable while controlling for the mediator. The indirect effect describes the pathway from the independent variable (core self-evaluations) to the outcome variable through the mediator (Gunzler et al., 2013). The indirect effect of perceived organisational support on the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit was tested using a SEM bootstrap analysis of mediation in AMOS SPSS. User defined estimands were pre-defined and estimated in which case the paths of interest were tested and results for the defined paths were provided in a separate table in the analysis output.

Tests of mediation in this study followed Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation model shown in Figure 2 below. Baron and Kenny (1986) suggested four steps in a mediation analysis process. First the independent variable should significantly affect the dependent variable. Thy also suggested that for a variable to function as a mediator within a statistical analysis, it should meet three conditions (these also account for the last three steps): (a) the independent variable (see Figure 2) should significantly affect the mediator; (b) the mediator should significantly affect the dependent variable; and (c) complete mediation occurs when the effect of core self-evaluations on the outcome variable (intent to quit) is alleviated by the influence of perceived organisational support such that a previously significant relation between the independent and dependent variables is no longer significant. If the effect of core self-evaluations on intent to quit remains significant but the correlation decreases, then a partial mediating effect would have occurred.

Figure 2. Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation model



1. Total effect = c + ab = c2
2. Direct effect = c2 + c = ab
3. Indirect effect = c + c2 = ab

Hypothesis 1b.

Null Hypothesis: ***Perceived organisational support does not mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate.***

Alternative Hypothesis: ***Perceived organisational support the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate.***

Prior to testing this hypothesis, multivariate normality of error terms was assumed. It was also assumed that error terms were uncorrelated. In this hypothesis, perceived organisational support was again tested this time for its mediating effect on the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate. The 4 step process for mediation suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) was once again employed in testing the hypothesis. Pearson's correlation was conducted to determine the empirical relationship between core self-evaluations, perceived organisational support, and intent to emigrate. A SEM bootstrap analysis of mediation in AMOS SPSS was conducted to determine direct and indirect effects of perceived organisational support on the tested relationship and dependent variable. The tested path was predefined through estimated user defined estimands to ensure tailored results of the tested relationship in the user defined results output table. Direct relationships were also tested for purposes of comparing results to determine the presence of a mediating effect.

Hypothesis 2a.

Null Hypothesis: ***Job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit.***

Alternative Hypothesis: ***Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit.***

Firstly, SEM multivariate and multicollinearity assumptions were met prior to conducting the analysis. The four step process for mediation suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) was once again followed in testing this hypothesis. As in the previous hypothesis, Pearson's correlation was conducted to determine the empirical relationship between core self-evaluations, job satisfaction, and intent to quit. The mediating effect of job satisfaction on intent to quit was tested using a SEM bootstrap analysis of mediation in AMOS SPSS. User defined estimands were once again computed to ensure tailored results of the tested paths in the user defined results output table.

Hypothesis 2b.

Null Hypothesis: ***Job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate.***

Alternative Hypothesis: ***Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate.***

SEM assumptions relating to normality of error terms and uncorrelated error terms were met prior to testing this hypothesis. As in the previous hypothesis, SEM bootstrap analysis of mediation in AMOS SPSS was conducted. The use of bootstrapping provided a means to obtain significance level for the direct and indirect effects and to get confidence intervals (CI) and p-values in the output. Because there were two mediators in the model, I used AMOS' user defined estimands to detect if the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate is thorough job satisfaction. Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step process for mediation was once again followed in testing the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3.

Null Hypothesis: ***The negative relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit will not be strengthened when satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa is lower.***

Alternative Hypothesis: ***The negative relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit will be strengthened when satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa is lower.***

To test this hypothesis, I used SEM multi group analysis in AMOS to examine the moderating effect (Afthanorhan et al., 2015) of satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa on the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit. According to Black and Reynolds (2013), moderation occurs when the relationship between the independent and dependent variable changes based on the value of a moderator variable. Prior to conducting the SEM, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted for construct validation and measurement invariance (Brown & Moore, 2012). Measurement invariance tests ensure that the measurement model yields equivalent results of the same construct when the test is conducted under different conditions (Steinmetz et al., 2009).

First, the direct effect of satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa on intent to quit was tested using SEM. The relationship between the multiplicative intercept term which I named coreplussatisfaction (a combination of core self-evaluations and satisfaction with quality of life variable) and intent to quit was tested next also using SEM to determine if the moderation effect would strengthen or weaken the direct relationship between the independent and dependent variable. Coreplussatisfaction is therefore a name that was given to the moderating variable which is a multiplicative interaction term. The "plus" word that is imbedded between core and satisfaction just serves to indicate that the variable (coreplussatisfaction) is an interaction of two variables and therefore does not have a literal statistical meaning to it. The effect of core self-evaluations on intent to quit was also tested during this process.

Hypothesis 4.

Null Hypothesis: ***The negative relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to***

emigrate will not be strengthened when satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa is lower.

Alternative Hypothesis: ***The negative relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate will be strengthened when satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa is lower.***

To test this hypothesis, I again used SEM multi group analysis in AMOS. This enabled me to examine the moderating effect of satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa on the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate. A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted for construct validation and measurement invariance prior to conducting the analysis (Brown & Moore, 2012). The direct effect of satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa on intent to emigrate was tested first using SEM. Following this, the relationship between the intercept (combination of core self-evaluations and satisfaction with quality of life variable) and intent to emigrate was tested also using SEM to determine if the moderation effect would strengthen or weaken the direct relationship. I also tested the direct relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate for purposes of results comparison and detection of moderation effect.

3.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The research proposal and ethics application forms were submitted to my university's ethics committee, and to ethics committees of other higher education institutions in the country for approval. Ethical clearance and permission for data collection was therefore obtained prior to the administration of the questionnaire. Participants in the study were invited to participate, and participation was voluntary. Participants were fully informed about the aims and objectives of the study and any hint of refusal was unconditionally and immediately respected. Ethical principles were followed in an uncompromising manner and no details of the academics sampled were divulged to anyone. Responses were stored in a manner that ensured anonymity and the laptop on which such responses (data) were stored was kept under lock and key when not being used. Entry into the computer was protected by a password. Additionally, a telephone number and an email address were provided to participants in case they had further questions about the study and their participation in it.

3.11 CONCLUSION

A detailed research methodology that was used in the current study was provided first in this chapter. A review of literature on this study's research paradigm was outlined after which I discussed the research design. Following this, the sampling procedure, then population sample, and sample size were considered. Data collection, then measuring instruments was considered next. Following this, the data analysis process employed in the current study including statistical techniques used to analyse data were outlined. The process of testing the hypotheses was considered next after which ethical considerations observed in the study were highlighted in conclusion. In the next chapter, results from testing hypotheses tests are discussed.

CHAPTER 4 - RESULTS

4 RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The research design and methodology underlying the current study were discussed in the previous chapter. In the current chapter, results of the hypotheses testing process outlined in the methodology section are presented and discussed.

Results of tests conducted to identify outliers and missing values are discussed first after which results of descriptive statistics including measures of normality, central tendency, dispersion, and frequency distribution are considered. The derived means, medians, modes, variance, and standard deviations are reported and results from the measures of skewness and kurtosis are also provided. Following this, Pearson's correlation analysis results and results of Cronbach's alpha tests conducted to illustrate the validity and internal reliability of the utilised scales are reported after which tests of convergent and discriminant validity results are also reported. Confirmatory factor analysis and common methods bias tests are reported next. Results of the assumption testing relating to the SEM analyses are reported last after which a summary of results is provided.

4.1.1 **Outliers and missing values**

The first sets of analyses undertaken were to identify outliers and missing values. Cook's distance analysis was used to determine the existence of any (multivariate) influential outliers that could have influenced the results of this study. Results indicated that there were no data points that were significantly different from other data points within the data set. No case of Cook's distance greater than one was observed. I also undertook a visual check for missing data. The percentage of missing data was 1.8% for intent to quit (ITQ), 8.1% for intent to emigrate (ITE), 3.8% for CSE (core self-evaluations), .5% for JS (job satisfaction), .7% for perceived organisational support (POS), 4.8% for satisfaction with quality of life (SWQL), and 4.3% for social desirability (SD). These missing values were replaced (imputed) using the mean value of the items in the latent factors.

4.1.2 **Descriptive statistics: Sample characteristics**

Table 1 provides a summary of the demographic details of the sample. As seen in the table, the largest proportion of the sample (30.10%) fell within the range of 30 to 39 years of age with those over 60 years of age amounting to *N* = 48 (11.3%). Seventeen academics fell within the 20 to 29 years age range making up the least number of respondents at a small percentage of 4%. The ethnicity of the sample emerged as majority White at *N* = 287 (68.5%) followed by Black Africans (*N* = 78, 18.6%). There were *N* =12 mixed race respondents who made up 2.9% of the sample size while the Indian/Asian respondents amounted to *N* = 28 (9.7%). The rest preferred not to say what their ethnicity was. In terms of gender, the majority of respondents were female (N = 226) and made up 53.9% of the total sample. Male participants were *N* = 193 and accounted for 48.1% of the entire sample. Of the 419 respondents, *N* = 301 (71.8%) academics were born in South Africa while *N* = 118 (28.2%) were born in other parts of the world.

The largest number of academics (*N* = 224, 53.5%) were from the University of the Witwatersrand with the smallest number coming from the University of Fort Hare (*N* = 6, 1.4%) and Central University of Technology (*N* = 3, 0.7%). The highest level of qualifications held by the majority of academics (*N* = 314, 74.9%) was a PhD (Doctor of Philosophy degree) and only one academic held an Honour's degree. The majority of academics (*N* = 242, 57.7%) had 1 to 3 dependents while the smallest number of academics (*N* = 2, 0.4%) had more than 10 dependents. One hundred and twenty seven academics (30.3%) had no dependents.

The average class size for respondents was 164 with 2 being the smallest class size, and 1100 being the largest. Most academics (*N* = 293, 45.8%) had more than 100 students per lecture with 11.2% (*N* = 47) having more than 400 students per lecture. One hundred and twenty two (29.1%) respondents had an NRF rating. Fourty eight percent (*N* = 182) taught more than they researched compared to 30.1% (*N* = 126) that did research and taught equally. Academics that taught at both the post graduate and under graduate levels made up the largest grouping of respondents (*N* = 308, 73.5%). This was followed by those that lectured only at post graduate level *N* = 62 (14.8%), and those that lectured at the under graduate level made up the smallest grouping of respondents (*N* = 47, 11.2%). The majority (25 %) of respondents had up to 10 years of work experience in academia

followed by those (22%) that had 20 years of work experience. More descriptive statistics pertaining to demographic characteristics and frequencies are shown in Table 1 below and in Appendix 9.5.1.

Table 1: Demographic characteristics of respondents

Demographic Characteristics	Frequencies	Percentage
Age		
20 - 29	17	4.00%
30 - 39	126	30.10%
40 - 49	121	28.90%
50 -59	107	25.50%
60+	48	11.30%
Gender		
Female	226	53.90%
Male	193	46.10%
Born in South Africa		
Yes	301	71.80%
No	118	28.20%
Years of Work Experience		
1 to 10	117	27.70%
11 to 20	131	31.30%
21 to 30	97	23.30%
31 to 40	62	13.90%
41+	12	2.20%
Institution employed at		
University of the Witwatersrand	224	53.50%
University of Pretoria	128	30.50%
University of Cape Town	46	11.00%
University of Fort Hare	6	1.40%
Central University of Technology	3	0.70%
Number of Dependents		
0	127	30.30%
1 to 3	242	57.70%
4 to 6	44	10.50%
7 to 9	4	0.90%
10+	2	0.40%
Highest Level of Education		
PhD	314	74.90%
Masters	103	24.60%
Honours	1	0.20%

Average Class Size		
Over 100	293	45.80%
Over 200	129	30.80%
Over 300	79	18.90%
Over 400	47	11.20%

The normality of demographic data distributions was examined to determine the suitability of tests that were used in the analysis (Bursa & Cengelci, 2020). Skewness and kurtosis normality tests output and histograms were examined for this purpose. The normality distributions of respondents' age, gender, years of work experience, years at institution, and average class size are provided in Table 2 below. Skewness refers to whether data is either skewed to the left or right while kurtosis refers to a measure of the combined weight of a distribution's tails in relation to the centre of the distribution (Bono et al., 2020). A symmetrical (normal) distribution is presented by a value of zero for skewness and a value of three indicates a standard normal distribution for kurtosis (Castro-Costa et al., 2008). According to Field (2009), skewness coefficients that are further away from zero may indicate that data is not normally distributed.

Evident from results in Table 2, skewness coefficients for the covariates are within the range of +1 to -1 (Huck, 2012). This range falls within Huck's (2012) criterion for a normal distribution that permits parametric tests to be used. Kurtosis coefficients are also within acceptable ranges. The exception being years at institution, number of dependents and average class size whose coefficients fall outside recommended ranges. Kim (2013) however argued that if the sample size is greater than 300, a researcher needs to only consider absolute values of skewness greater than two, and kurtosis values larger than seven for substantial non-normality. Based on Kim's (2013) view, all collected data satisfies the assumption for normality of data. Statistics for univariate analysis for biographical data are reported in the Table 2 below.

Table 2: Skewness, kurtosis, means, standard deviation and variance output for demographics data

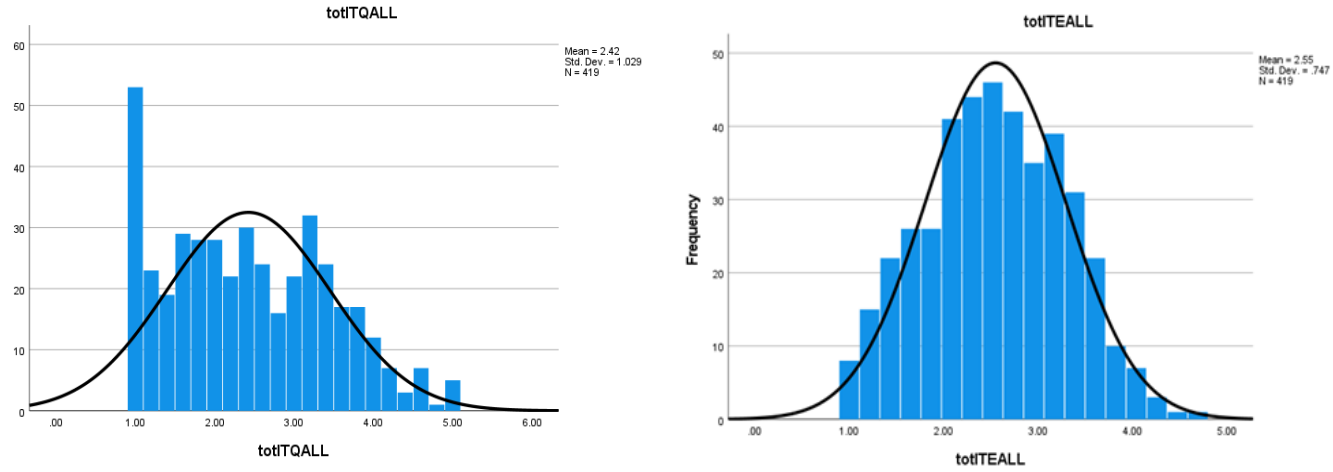
		Age	Gender	Years of Work Experience	Years at Institution	Dependents	Average Class Size
N	Valid	419	419	419	419	419	419
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		45.48	0.46	19.0777	11.7127	1.66	164.47
Std. Deviation		10.347	0.499	10.83149	8.65517	1.645	176.404
Variance		107.054	0.249	117.321	74.912	2.705	31118.46
Skewness		0.17	0.159	0.37	1.042	1.661	1.997
Kurtosis		-1.019	-1.984	-0.862	0.508	5.945	4.64

Table 3 below shows skewness coefficients for the dependent variables. Skewness coefficients for intent to quit are .33, and .02 for intention to emigrate. Both of these scores are close to zero and indicate that data collected using these scales are within the normal distribution range of +1 to -1 (Huck, 2012). Kurtosis coefficients in Table 3 are also within acceptable ranges of less than 3.30 (Sposito et al., 1983). A visual inspection of the histograms for intent to quit and intent to emigrate presented in Figure 3 indicate that these latent variables' data is normally distributed (Kim, 2013). Descriptive statistics pertaining to measures of academics' withdrawal cognitions which include intent to quit and intent emigrate are presented in Table 3 below. Histograms for both of these dependent variables are presented in Figure 3.

Table 3: Skewness, kurtosis, means, standard deviation and variance output for dependent variables

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
Intent to Quit	2.424	1.028	1.058	0.337	-0.775
Intent to Emigrate	2.552	0.746	0.557	0.022	-0.569

Figure 3: Histograms of intent to quit and intention to emigrate



Skewness coefficients for the independent variables as indicated in Table 4 are within Huck's (2012) normal distribution range of +1 to -1. Kurtosis coefficients are also within acceptable ranges of less than 3.3 (Sposito et al., 1983). Descriptive statistics pertaining to the predictor (core self-evaluations), mediators (job satisfaction and perceived organisational support), and moderator (satisfaction with quality of life) variables are presented in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Skewness, kurtosis, means, standard deviation and variance output for predictor, mediator, and moderator variables

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
Core Self-Evaluations	3.455	0.595	0.354	0.132	0.016
Job Satisfaction	3.94	0.697	0.486	-0.675	0.665
Perceived Organisational Support	3.906	1.564	2.449	-0.097	-0.977
Satisfaction with Life in Country	2.98	0.554	0.307	-0.096	0.671

The conclusions based on data outputs in Table 1 to 4 and Figure 3 is that all data satisfy the assumption of normality.

4.1.3 **Correlations**

A Pearson's correlation analysis was applied, correlating core self-evaluations with intent to quit, intention to emigrate, perceived organisational support, job satisfaction, and satisfaction with quality of life (in South Africa). The correlation tests between core self-evaluations and all study variables yielded significant relationships, with the smallest correlation (intent to emigrate and core self-evaluations) found to have an *r* value of -.22 (N = 419, p < .01). Core self-evaluations were also found to have a significant and negative association with intent to quit (r = -.33, N = 419, p < .01). A significant and positive association was found between core self-evaluations and job satisfaction (r = .51, N = 419, p < = .01) perceived organisational support (r = .52, N = 419, p < = .01), and satisfaction with quality of life (r = .46, N = 419, p < = .01). Among demographic variables, an association was also found between core self-evaluations and age (r = .09, N = 419, p < = .02), and social desirability (r = .28, N = 419, p < = .01). Results suggest that high core self-evaluations are associated with low intention to quit and intention to emigrate. See Table 5 below for more correlation results.

Table 5: Correlations among study variables

	Age	ITQ	ITE	POS	CSE	SL	JS	SD	ACS	YI
ITQ	-0.019									
ITE	-0.030	.578**								
POS	-0.061	-.486**	-.294**							
CSE	.097*	-.336**	-.224**	.522**						
SL	-0.039	-.458**	-.260**	.514**	.464**					
JS	0.027	-.527**	-.318**	.542**	.514**	.454**				
SD	0.048	0.046	-0.046	.143**	.284**	-0.006	.153**			
Age	1	-0.019	-0.030	-0.061	.097*	-0.039	0.027	0.048		
ACS	-.271**	0.042	0.002	-0.017	-0.059	0.000	-0.053	0.024		
YI	.640**	-0.047	-0.033	-0.068	0.051	0.016	0.001	0.036	-.147**	
YWE	.887**	-0.036	-0.008	-0.057	0.078	-0.020	0.020	-0.007	-.240**	.644**

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

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

Notes. This table reports correlations of scale/continuous variables. Abbreviations: CSE = Core self-evaluations; ITQ = Intent to Quit; ITE = Intent to emigrate; POS = Perceived organisational support; JS = Job satisfaction; SD = Social desirability; SL = Satisfaction with quality of life; YWE = Years of work experience; ACS = Average class size; YI = Years at Institution

4.1.4 **Reliability**

Estimates of reliability were examined for each variable of interest in the current study. Cronbach's alpha results indicated acceptable internal consistency (reliability) values for all scales. While it is usual to consider alpha values ≥ .70 as adequate (Taber, 2018), Kline (2011) suggests that alphas can be as low as .60 for psychological constructs. According to Hinton et al. (2004), Cronbach alpha values over .70 to .90 indicate high internal reliability and indicate moderate reliability from .50 to .70. Bonett and Wright (2015) however argue that while there are numerous reports were manuscripts are rejected because the sample value of Cronbach's alpha was below .70, there is no universal minimally acceptable reliability value.

The intent to quit scale was .86, intention to emigrate scale was .94, core self-evaluations scale was .85, job satisfaction scale was .87, perceived organisational scale was .94, and satisfaction with quality of life (in South Africa) scale was .86 (see Table 6). Following a process of measurement model testing and modifications (discussed in later sections) some of the scales used in the final analysis had reduced items. The scales' reliability test was conducted again and the results for the modified scale are presented in Table 7. Results in this table indicate good reliability Cronbach alpha values greater than .70 for all scales except the satisfaction with quality of life in SA scale which is still reasonable at .63.

Table 6: Reliability estimates for original scales

Variables	No. of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Intention to quit	5	0.861
Intention to emigrate	23	0.941
Core self-evaluations	12	0.850
Job satisfaction	6	0.875
Perceived organisational support	6	0.940
Satisfaction with quality of life	5	0.863

Table 7: Reliability estimates for scales in the final modified model

Variables	No. of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Intention to quit	3	0.756
Intention to emigrate	11	0.915
Core self-evaluations	12	0.826
Job satisfaction	4	0.862
Perceived organisational support	6	0.940
Satisfaction with quality of life	3	0.634

4.1.5 **Tests of convergent and discriminant validity**

Average variance extracted (AVE) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) test was performed to examine the convergent and discriminant validity associated with items included in the measurement scales. For AVE, the suggested threshold was ≥ .50. However, Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggested that the AVE of .40 is acceptable. While composite reliability values of greater than .70 were achieved for all latent factors, results of the AVE test (see Table 8 below) indicated that convergent validity of the model was not fully achieved. The implication of this is that findings in this study had to be interpreted with caution. In the total sample (N = 419), the AVE values for all but two subscale were equal to or exceeded .50. The intent to quit latent factor had an AVE value of .50, intent to emigrate has .50, perceived organisational support has .73, and job satisfaction has .56.

A marginally sufficient AVE value of .42 was found for satisfaction with quality of life and core self-evaluations were found to have a low AVE value of .39. Discriminant validity was reasonable based on the square root of the AVE being greater than any correlations between latent variables. Maximum Shared Variance (MSV) was lower than the AVE for all the constructs (Alumran et al., 2014). According to Hair (2010), the MSV values for each latent factor should be lower than .50 to achieve discriminant validity. Average variance extracted (AVE) values and Composite Reliability (CR) scores are shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Validity table for the final model

	CR	AVE	MSV	ITQ	ITE	CSE	JS	POS	SL
ITQ	0.75	0.50	0.328	**(0.71)**					
ITE	0.91	0.50	0.215	.573**	**(0.70)**				
CSE	0.83	0.39	0.273	-.331**	-.242**	**(0.61)**			
JS	0.86	0.56	0.293	-.527**	-.347**	.523**	**(0.75)**		
POS	0.94	0.73	0.293	-.486**	-.311**	.507**	.542**	**(0.85)**	
SL	0.69	0.42	0.238	-.450**	-.464**	.396**	.377**	.488**	**(0.67)**

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Note: Square root of average variances extracted is shown on diagonal in bold.

Abbreviations: CR- Composite reliability; AVE- Average Variance Extracted; MSV - Maximum shared variance; ITQ - Intent to quit; ITE - Intent to emigrate; CSE - Core self-evaluations; JS – Job satisfaction; POS - Perceived organisational support; SL – Satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa

4.1.6 **Confirmatory factor analysis**

To create a measurement model for path analysis and to assess whether the measurement (hypothesised) model was a good fit to observed data (Figure 4) a goodness of fit confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using SEM in AMOS SPSS. Levine (2005) defines CFA as a statistical tool for examining the nature of relationships among latent variables and provides information about scale dimensionality as well as scale validity. CFA therefore belongs to the SEM family and is used as an analytical instrument

for assessing construct validity and evaluating factor invariance across groups and time (Kyriazos, 2018).

The model's fit was assessed using a chi-square comparison test and fit index comparisons. Acceptable cut off levels for fit indices were used in the study: .08 or smaller for root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) *(*Schreiber et al., 2006), .90 or higher for goodness-of-fit index (GFI), and adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) (Lichtenstein et al., 2004), .95 or higher for comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) (Anderson et al., 2013), .08 or smaller for standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) (Hu & Bentler, 1999). RMSEA indicates the degree to which the hypothesised model fits the data or model-data misfit and is considered as a measure of effect size (Xu et al., 2017). A study by Campbell (2017) produced an RMSEA value of .04 which was viewed as acceptable. According to Kyriazos (2018), using multiple fit statistics fosters highly reliable and conservative evaluations. If the vast majority of the fit indexes indicate a good fit, then the model is probably a good fit to data.

Initial results of the six factor model (see Figure 4) with social desirability included as a bias variable indicated factor loadings between latent variables and corresponding items that ranged from weak to strong: core self-evaluations (.49 to .72), intent to quit (.68 to 80), intent to emigrate (.39 to .87), perceived organisational support (.66 to .93), job satisfaction (.46 to .87), and satisfaction with quality of life (.39 to .63). See standardised and unstandardised parameter estimates in Table 9. Results of the CFA suggested that the model did not fit Hu and Bentler's (1999) fit criteria well, with a *CFI* of .72, *TLI* of .72, *RMSEA* of .07, and an *SRMR* of .09. Both *GFI* (.64) and *AGFI* (.62) fell below the .90 cut of criteria. Model fit discrepancies also resulted in an inflated chi-square value of 7608.95 and a *df* value of 2606.00. Following this initial CFA analysis, I removed all items with regression weights under .50. Three items were removed from the core self-evaluations latent variable, seven from intent to emigrate, and eight from the satisfaction with quality of life variable.

Because hypothesised models do not provide a perfect reproduction of the observed covariance matrix, AMOS SPSS allows for the calculation of modification indexes. After removing items with low regression weights, guidelines from the modification indexes in

Amos SPSS were used to covary items in Figure 4 that were highly correlated for purposes of model fit improvement, results of which are shown in Figure 5. These actions are justified in that the removed items belonged to large latent reflective factors and were in a way redundant (Gaskin, 2019). Figure 5 results therefore indicated an improvement in the statistical significance for all fit indices (see Table 10 for the goodness-of-fit indices for all the tested models and the chi-square difference tests of improvements). Following an inspection of each item's regression weight, one item from the latent variable intent to quit (ITE1) was observed to have an inflated regression weight (1.07) which was > 1 and was therefore removed. Another from the latent variable satisfaction with quality of life (SL6) was removed due to a low regression weight (.46).

The model was reanalysed with results for Figure 6 showing a good fit between the trimmed model and data (*CFI* is .92, *TLI* is .91, *RMSEA* is .05, and *SRMR* is .07). The obtained chi-square value was 1256.228 and the *df* was .58. Both *GFI* (.85) and *AGFI* (.83) are close to .90, indicating that the fitting quality of the model was good (see Table 10). This modified model was assumed to be a reasonably good fit to data and was therefore adopted for final analysis. Following this, we proceeded to do measurement invariance tests whose results are discussed in the following section.

Figure 4: Six factor measurement model (Social Desirability is included as a bias variable)

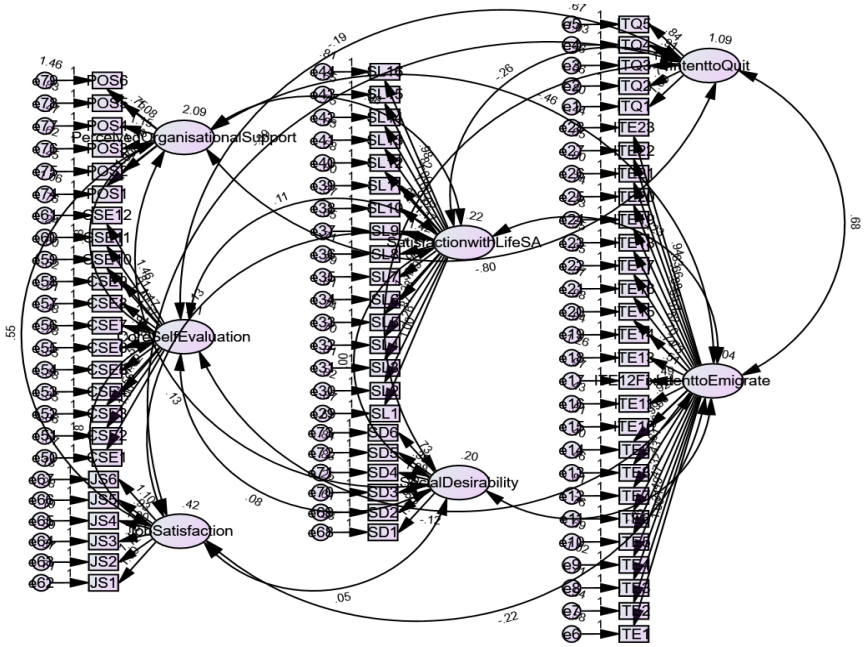


Table 9: Standardised and unstandardised coefficients for CFA

Observed Item	Latent Variable	Standardised Estimates (β)	Unstandardised Estimates (B)	SE B
CSE1	Core Self-Evaluations	0.495	0.464	0.046
CSE2	Core Self-Evaluations	0.611	0.716	0.055
CSE3	Core Self-Evaluations	0.413	0.27	0.033
CSE4	Core Self-Evaluations	0.594	0.694	0.055
CSE5	Core Self-Evaluations	0.364	0.231	0.032
CSE6	Core Self-Evaluations	0.643	0.735	0.053
CSE7	Core Self-Evaluations	0.532	0.435	0.039
CSE8	Core Self-Evaluations	0.621	0.673	0.05
CSE9	Core Self-Evaluations	0.601	0.541	0.042
CSE10	Core Self-Evaluations	0.72	0.791	0.049
CSE11	Core Self Evaluations	0.597	0.37	0.029
CSE12	Core Self-Evaluations	0.612	0.674	0.052
ITQ1	Intent to Quit	0.759	1.045	0.059
ITQ2	Intent to Quit	0.706	0.748	0.047

ITQ3	Intent to Quit	0.864	1.166	0.055
ITQ4	Intent to Quit	0.686	0.953	0.062
ITQ5	Intent to Quit	0.73	0.875	0.052
ITE1	Intent to Emigrate	0.802	1	
ITE2	Intent to Emigrate	0.392	0.307	0.038
ITE3	Intent to Emigrate	0.512	0.492	0.045
ITE4	Intent to Emigrate	0.431	0.473	0.053
ITE5	Intent to Emigrate	0.368	0.321	0.042
ITE6	Intent to Emigrate	0.448	0.428	0.046
ITE7	Intent to Emigrate	0.57	0.612	0.05
ITE8	Intent to Emigrate	0.824	0.962	0.049
ITE9	Intent to Emigrate	0.848	0.994	0.048
ITE10	Intent to Emigrate	0.788	0.897	0.049
ITE11	Intent to Emigrate	0.821	0.919	0.047
ITE12	Intent to Emigrate	0.454	0.491	0.052
ITE13	Intent to Emigrate	0.419	0.506	0.058
ITE14	Intent to Emigrate	0.632	0.732	0.053
ITE15	Intent to Emigrate	0.624	0.736	0.054
ITE16	Intent to Emigrate	0.686	0.698	0.045
ITE17	Intent to Emigrate	0.672	0.816	0.054
ITE18	Intent to Emigrate	0.801	0.969	0.051
ITE19	Intent to Emigrate	0.55	0.552	0.047
ITE20	Intent to Emigrate	0.724	0.883	0.053
ITE21	Intent to Emigrate	0.605	0.665	0.05
ITE22	Intent to Emigrate	0.722	0.825	0.05
ITE23	Intent to Emigrate	0.825	0.942	0.048
POS1	Perceived Organisational Support	0.814	0.843	0.035
POS2	Perceived Organisational Support	0.932	1	
POS3	Perceived Organisational Support	0.905	0.976	0.03
POS4	Perceived Organisational Support	0.924	0.965	0.028
POS5	Perceived Organisational Support	0.864	0.913	0.032
POS6	Perceived Organisational Support	0.665	0.629	0.037
JS1	Job Satisfaction	0.608	0.644	0.049
JS2	Job Satisfaction	0.766	0.723	0.04
JS3	Job Satisfaction	0.614	0.486	0.036
JS4	Job Satisfaction	0.873	0.772	0.035
JS5	Job Satisfaction	0.751	0.597	0.034
JS6	Job Satisfaction	0.858	0.707	0.033
SL1	Satisfaction with Life	0.449	1.227	0.188
SL2	Satisfaction with Life	0.543	1.539	0.212
SL3	Satisfaction with Life	0.42	1.088	0.173
SL4	Satisfaction with Life	0.606	1.656	0.217
SL5	Satisfaction with Life	0.613	1.733	0.226

SL6	Satisfaction with Life	0.527	1.457	0.204
SL7	Satisfaction with Life	0.457	1.188	0.18
SL8	Satisfaction with Life	0.549	1.452	0.199
SL9	Satisfaction with Life	0.635	1.74	0.224
SL10	Satisfaction with Life	0.584	1.43	0.191
SL11	Satisfaction with Life	0.398	1.012	0.167
SL12	Satisfaction with Life	0.491	1.124	0.163
SL13	Satisfaction with Life	0.505	1.221	0.175
SL14	Satisfaction with Life	0.474	1.22	0.181
SL15	Satisfaction with Life	0.428	1	
SL16	Satisfaction with Life	0.461	1.216	0.183

Figure 5: Measurement model showing correlations among latent variable items

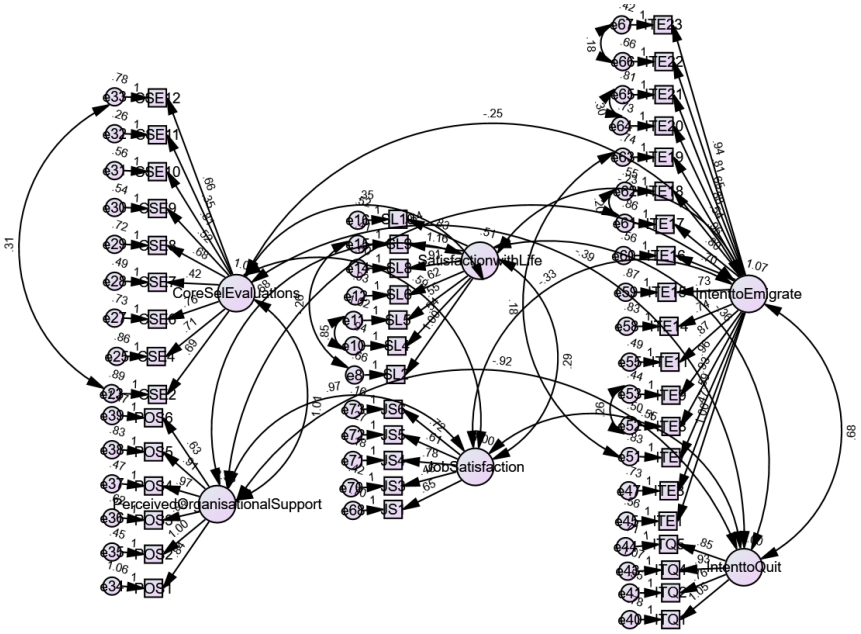


Figure 6: Final modified model

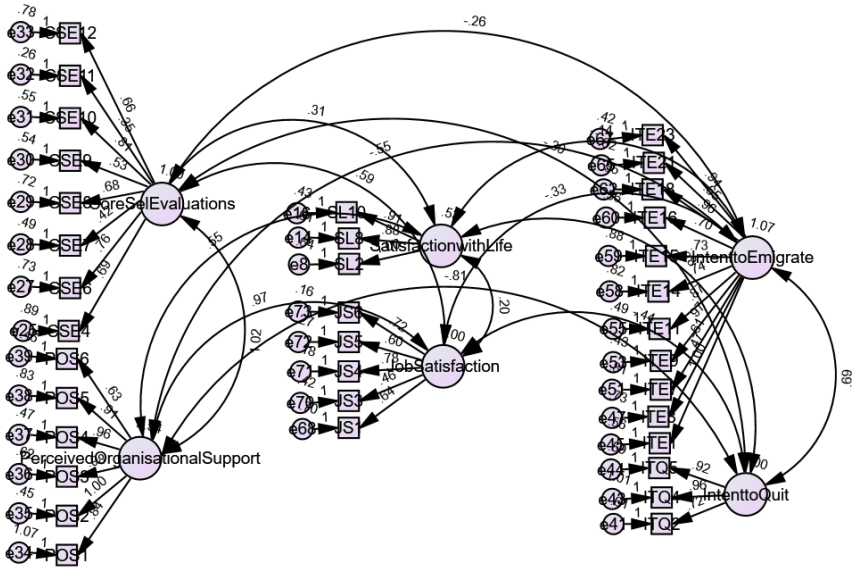


Table 10: Goodness of-fit indices for the tested models

Measure	Chi-Square	*df*	*RMSEA*	CFI	TLI	SRMR	GFI	AGFI
1	6901.069	2195	0.072	0.74	0.714	0.098	0.645	0.62
2	1443.014	650	0.054	0.909	0.902	0.08	0.843	0.821
3	1256.228	579	0.053	0.918	0.911	0.074	0.854	0.833

Acceptable parameters for model fit: Chi-square probability greater than or equal to 0.05.

df ≤ 2 or 3

Comparative fit index CFI ≥ .90 for acceptance

RMSEA <0.05 good fit

RMSEA < .06 to .08 with confidence interval < .06 is acceptable

Tucker–Lewis index TLI ≥ .90

SRMR ≤ .08

4.1.7 **Measurement invariance**

Prior to hypothesis testing, a multi group analysis in AMOS SPSS was used to examine the equivalence (measurement invariance) of the measurement model across gender (male and female) to see if the model fit differently for each group. The invariance criteria used as an indication of good fit were CFI ≤ .95 and RMSEA ≤ .06 (Suss, 2011). Following precedent from previous studies (Hernandez-Sanchez et al., 2017; Rhudy et al., 2020) the measurement model was first tested separately in each group (gender invariance) then a simultaneous test of equal factor pattern or structure (configural invariance) was conducted. The equality of factor loadings (metric invariance) were assessed next after which the equality of intercepts (scaler invariance) was tested (Rhudy et al., 2020).

As indicated above, gender invariance of the six factor measurement model was first tested separately in each gender group, as a baseline model (males, N = 199 versus females, N = 226). This model had an acceptable fit for males (*Chi-square* 1023.93, df = 614, $p \leq .01$, *RMSEA* = .06, *CFI* = .89 and *TLI* = .88, and sufficiently good for females (*Chi-square* 1107.56, df = 614, $p \leq .01$, *RMSEA* =. 06, *CFI* = .90, and *TLI* = .89). Following this, the baseline model was tested in both gender groups concurrently. Results indicated that configural invariance was good as evidenced by satisfactory model fit measures or values calculated for both groups simultaneously when estimating the two groups freely without any constraints (*Chi-square* 2131. 52, df = 1228, $p \leq .01$, *RMSEA* = .04, *CFI* = . 90, and *TLI* = .89).

Metric invariance was good as evidenced by a non-significant chi-square difference test between the constrained and unconstrained models where the regression weights were constrained. Changes in the model fit showed that there was equivalence in the two models hence metric invariance was met. Scaler invariance was achieved as evidenced by a non-significant chi-square difference test in which intercepts in the comparison model (M3 in Table 11) were constrained. Overall, non-significant differences in latent means between the two genders were observed. Therefore, measurement invariance across gender was evidenced for the measurement model (see Table 11 for measurement invariance fit statistics).

Table 11: Measurement invariance output

CFA		Fit Indices				Model Comparison					
Model	X2	*df*	*CFI*	*TLI*	*RMSEA*		ΔX2	Δdf	Δ*CF*I	Δ*TLI*	Δ*RMSEA*	Decision
Baseline Male	1023.930	614	0. 890	0.880	0. 059							
Baseline Female	1107.558	614	0. 899	0.890	0. 060							
M1: ``Configural Invariance	2131.520	1228	0.895	0.886	0.042							
M2: Matric Invariance	2153.503	1246	0.894	0.887	0.042	M1:	21,983	51	0.001	0.001	0.00	Equivalence or Invariant
M3: Scaler Invariance	2212.769	1284	0.892	0.888	0.042	M2:	59.266	38	0.002	0.001	0.00	Equivalence or Invariant

Notes: $\chi 2$ = chi-square value

df = degrees of freedom

p. value is < 0.01 for all models

N = 419; group 1(Male) n = 193; group 2 (Female) n = 226.

*p ≤ .05.

**p ≤ .01.

4.1.8 **Common method bias tests**

Because this study's data for independent and dependent variables was collected using the same instrument, common methods bias was conducted to determine whether a method bias would affecting the measurement model's results (Singh & Sharma, 2016). A zero constrained and constrained models were tested with social desirability included in both models to act as a bias variable (Gaskin, 2019). Results indicated that the zero constraint model (or unconstrained model) was significantly different from the constrained to zero model indicating that there is more than zero % bias present in the model (see Table 12). The chi-square test in both models was significant with a *p-value* of less than .05 indicating that measurable bias was detected.

Results indicated that the impositioning of the equality constraints on the one model yielded a worsening fit suggesting that some factor loadings were non-invariant (Gaskin, 2019). Therefore, the matric (unconstrained) model held for further analysis. This means that the unconstrained model with social desirability included (to act as a specific bias marker) was retained for further analysis as the constrained model was a worse fit or not a better fit. I was not able to obtain full invariance with the core self-evaluations latent variable as its validity was compromised when I accounted for specific bias but I kept it in the model. Further, because tests for common method bias broke the model and compromised the validity of the core self-evaluations latent variable, I was not able to account for the bias by way of creating factor scores as suggested by Gaskin (2019) but instead reverted to the model in Figure 6 (final model after modifications) that had not been compromised.

Table 12: Common methods bias comparison tests results

	Chi square	*df*	Delta	*p-value*
Unconstrained	1474.419	756	$X^2 = 200.061$ DF =42	.000
Constrained	1674.480	798		

4.2 DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS

4.2.1 Multivariate SEM, mediation and moderation analyses

A SEM path analysis of intent to quit and intent to emigrate was performed using AMOS SPSS. The analysis was based on data from 419 full time academics from five higher education institutions in South Africa. Structural equation modelling allowed for the evaluation of this study's measurement model by simultaneously identifying direct and indirect paths to the dependent variables (intent to quit and intent to emigrate). First, to see if the data met the assumption of collinearity, I examined variable inflation factors for study predictors on the two dependent variables and observed no VIF values greater than 10 and Tolerance values were above .20 (see Table 13 and 14).

For intent to quit I found the following results: Core self-evaluations (Tolerance = .64, VIF = 1.60); Perceived organisational support (Tolerance = .57, VIF = 1.74): Job satisfaction (Tolerance = .61, *VIF* = 1.63): Satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa (Tolerance = .66, *VIF* = 1.50). For intent to emigrate, I found similar results: Core self-evaluations (Tolerance = .57, *VIF* = 1.74); Perceived organisational support (Tolerance = .57, VIF = 1.74): Job satisfaction (Tolerance = .61, *VIF* = 1.63): Satisfaction with quality of life in SA (Tolerance = .66, *VIF* = 1.50): and Core self-evaluations (Tolerance = .62, *VIF* = 1.60). Had the *VIF* value exceeded 10, or the Tolerance was less than .10, then concerns over multicollinearity would have been raised (Dart, 2013). These results therefore indicated that multicollinearity was not a concern and was not to be taken as a threat to results interpretation (Field, 2013). All tests of regression, mediation and moderation were bootstrapped.

Table 13: Multicollinearity coefficients for intent to quit

Coefficients

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	5.842	0.285		20.47	0		
	Perceived Organisational Support	-0.145	0.034	-0.22	-4.263	0	0.575	1.74
	Job Satisfaction	-0.496	0.074	-0.336	-6.727	0	0.614	1.629
	Satisfaction with Life in SA	-0.336	0.075	-0.216	-4.49	0	0.663	1.508
	Core Self-Evaluation	0.08	0.077	0.052	1.047	0.296	0.642	1.602

Dependent Variable: Intent to Quit

Table 14: Multicollinearity coefficients for intent to emigrate

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.392	0.275		15.948			
	Perceived Organisational Support	-0.071	0.033	-0.131	-2.173	0	0.575	1.74
	Job Satisfaction	-0.24	0.071	-0.197	-3.373	0.03	0.614	1.629
	Satisfaction with Life in SA	-0.128	0.072	-0.1	-1.768	0.001	0.663	1.508
	Core Self-Evaluation	-0.01	0.074	-0.008	-0.132	0.0768	0.624	1.602
Dependent Variable: Intent to Quit								

4.2.2 **SEM results**

This study used SEM to identify and model the relationships among the variables associated with academics' intent to quit and intent to emigrate. I evaluated the fit of the final model using multiple goodness-of-fit indexes discussed earlier. The final structural model, which displays all the significant direct paths and their standardised path coefficients with covariates included, is shown in Figure 7. The goodness of fit indices for this final model was reasonable (X^2 = 1690.52, *df =793, n* = 419; $p \leq .01$, *RMSEA* =. 052, *CFI* = .91, *TLI* = .90, GFI = .840, and AGFI = .809) suggesting that the model fit the data well. The final model was generally consistent with this study's hypothetical model. Table 15 shows SEM results of the path model. All hypotheses were tested while controlling for age, race, gender, place of birth, and number of dependents. Social desirability was also included in all the tests as a covariate. Controlling for factors that may influence the relationships between the study variables and withdrawal intentions ensured that unrelated effects were minimised and ensured robustness and validity of results (Singh & Sharma, 2016).

Figure 7: Final SEM measurement model with path coefficients

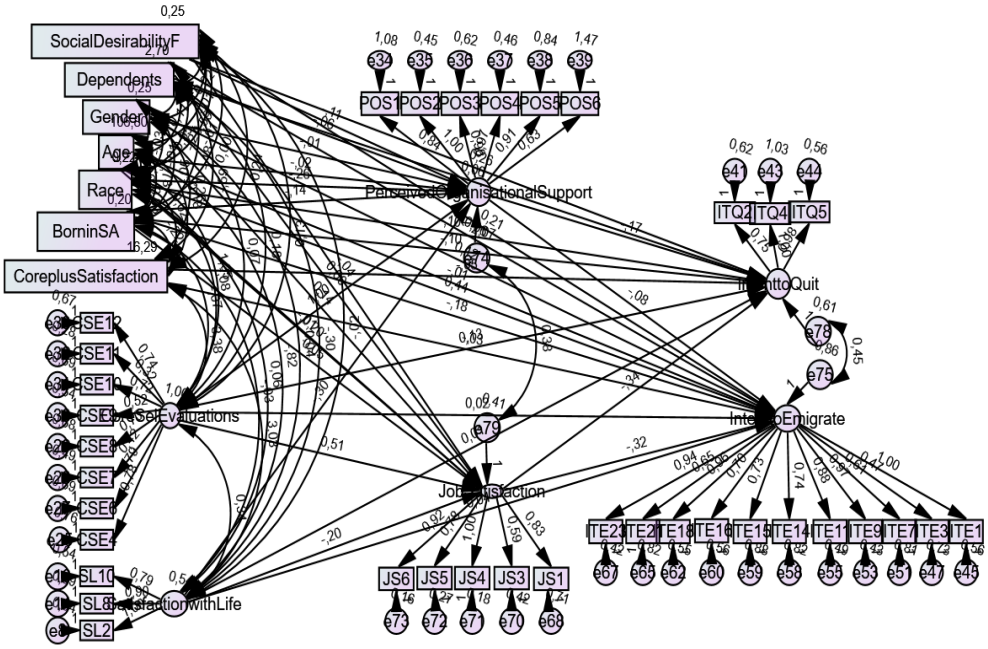


Table 15: Regression weights of path model

			Standardised Path Coefficients	S.E.	C.R.	P
Perceived Organisational Support	<---	Core Self-evaluations	0.999	0.118	8.433	***
Job Satisfaction	<---	Core Self-evaluations	0.510	0.057	8.993	***
Perceived Organisational Support	<---	Age	-0.024	0.008	-3.050	0.002
Intent to Emigrate	<---	Perceived Organisational Support	-0.077	0.039	-1.977	0.048
Intent to Quit	<---	Perceived Organisational Support	-0.171	0.038	-4.439	***
Intent to Quit	<---	Job Satisfaction	-0.344	0.092	-3.730	***
Intent to Emigrate	<---	Job Satisfaction	-0.324	0.094	-3.446	***
Intent to Quit	<---	Social Desirability	0.262	0.102	2.576	0.010
Intent to Emigrate	<---	Social Desirability	0.215	0.104	2.064	0.039

Intent to Emigrate	<---	Race	0.445	0.122	3.645	***
Intent to Quit	<---	Race	-0.102	0.114	-0.891	0.373
Intent to Emigrate	<---	Satisfaction with Life	0.040	0.063	0.631	0.528
Intent to Quit	<---	Satisfaction with Life	0.006	0.059	0.095	0.924
Intent to Quit	<---	Core Self-evaluations	0.134	0.105	1.281	0.200
Intent to Emigrate	<---	Core Self-evaluations	0.019	0.113	0.173	0.863
Intent to Quit	<---	Core Self plus Life Satisfaction	-0.048	0.019	-2.514	0.012
Intent to Emigrate	<---	Core Self plus Life Satisfaction	-0.027	0.020	-1.366	0.172

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

4.2.3 **Hypothesis testing**

In Chapter 1 and 2, a number of hypotheses were derived regarding the relationship between core self-evaluations and withdrawal intentions (intent to quit and intent to emigrate). In chapter 3, methods of testing these hypotheses were introduced and discussed. In this section, the results of hypotheses testing are provided. These results are derived from the structural equation modeling as shown in Figure 7 and results output in Table 15.

4.2.4 **Direct effects**

4.2.4.1 Core self-evaluations and intent to quit

Hypothesis 1 stated that there is a significant negative association between core self-evaluations and intent to quit. The null hypothesis stated that there is no association between core self-evaluations and intent to quit.

The direct relationship was first tested in a simple regression with covariates as part of the process to confirm or disconfirm mediation and moderation effects reported in later sections. Indirect paths were therefore excluded in testing this relationship (see Figure 8). Results of this test indicated a significant negative effect of core self-evaluations on intent to quit (path coefficient = -.163. p = .002) suggesting that the lower an academic's core self-evaluations, the higher their intent to quit (see Table 16). This result was consistent with Virga et al.'s (2017) finding in which the researchers' results indicated a negative relationship between core self-evaluation and turnover intentions.

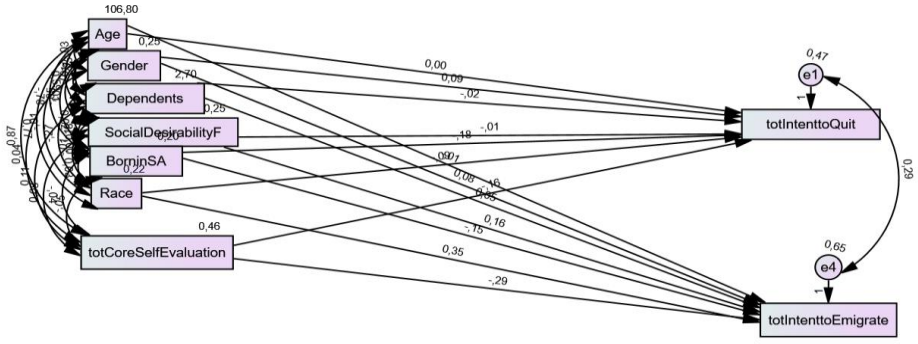
In order to support or reject this hypothesis, core self-evaluations was tested in a path model with covariates and indirect paths included. The inclusion of indirect paths (including mediators, a moderator, and an interaction variable) resulted in a non-significant effect of core self-evaluations on academic's intent to quit (path coefficient = .134, p = .200). See Table 15 for path model results. Hypothesis 1 is therefore rejected.

Table 16: Results of a regression analysis on the direct relationships between core self-evaluations and Dependent variables

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Intent to Quit	<---	Core Self-Evaluations	-0.163	0.053	-3.092	0.002
Intent to Emigrate	<---	Core Self-Evaluations	-0.291	0.062	-4.706	***

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

Figure 8: Path coefficients for core self-evaluations relationship with dependents



4.2.4.1 Core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate

Hypothesis 2 stated that there is a significant negative association between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate. The null hypothesis stated that there is no association between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate. As in the previous hypothesis, the direct relationship was tested first with covariates but indirect paths were not included (see Figure 8). Findings showed a significant negative effect of core self-evaluations on

intention to emigrate (path coefficients = -.291. p = .000) suggesting that the lower an academic's core self-evaluations, the higher their intention to emigrate (see Table 16).

To test this hypothesis, core self evaluations' effect on intent to emigrate was tested in a path model with covariates and indirect paths included (see Figure 7). The inclusion of indirect paths (mediators, a moderator, and an interaction variable) resulted in a non-significant effect of core self-evaluations on academics' intent to emigrate (path coefficient = .019, p = .863). Hypothesis 2 is therefore rejected.

4.2.5 **Indirect effects**

4.2.5.1 Mediation analysis (testing for mediation)

This study utilised mediation tests using SEM bootstrapping analyses in AMOS SPSS in order to ascertain the indirect effects of job satisfaction and perceived organisational support on the relationship between core self-evaluations and withdrawal intentions (intent to quit and intent to emigrate). The tested paths were predefined through estimated user defined estimands which ensured tailored results of the tested relationships in the SPSS user defined results output table. See Tables 18, 19, 20, and 21 in the following sections for user defined mediation results. I adopted Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach to mediation and ran a four step analysis to determine the mediating influences of job satisfaction and perceived organisational support on the study's dependent variables.

4.2.5.2 Core self-evaluations, perceived organisational support, and intent to quit

Hypothesis 1a stated that perceived organisational support mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit. The null hypothesis stated that perceived organisational support does not mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit. Four effects discussed in the previous sections were included in testing this hypothesis. See Table 21 for results of the different effects.

Results of a simple regression showed a significant direct effect of core self-evaluations on intent to quit (path coefficients = -.163. p = .002) (when tested in the absence of indirect paths, see Table 16). A significant direct effect was found between core self-

evaluations and perceived organisational support (path coefficient = .999, *p* = .000), and between perceived organisational and intent to quit (path coefficient = -.171, *p* = .000).

In the SEM multiple regression analyses, a significant negative indirect effect of core self-evaluations on intent to quit through perceived organisational support (path coefficient = -.171, *p* = < .011) was found (see Table 17 for user defined estimates). As seen in Table 15, the significant direct effect of core self-evaluations on intent to quit ceased to be significant when perceived organisational support was controlled for (path coefficient =.134, *p* = .200). This suggests that core self-evaluations works through perceived organisational support to impact academic's intent to quit. Results showed that the condition for full mediation as suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) was met. Hypothesis 1a (alternative hypothesis) was therefore supported.

Table 17: Results of user defined estimates for core self-evaluations indirect effect (through perceived organisational support) on intent to quit

Parameter	Estimate	Lower	Upper	*P*	Mediation Effect
Core self-evaluations, Perceived org support, and Intent to quit	-.171	-.278	-.092	.011	Full Mediation

4.2.5.3 Core self-evaluations, perceived organisational support, and intent to emigrate

Hypothesis 1b stated that perceived organisational support mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate. The null hypothesis stated that perceived organisational support does not mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate.

Four different effects were again included in testing this hypothesis. Results of a simple regression (see Table 16) showed that the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate is significant (path coefficient = -.291. *p* = .000). As seen in Table 15, core self-evaluations had a significant positive effect on perceived organisational support

(path coefficient = .999, p = .000) suggesting that the higher one's core self-evaluations, the higher their perceived organisational support. Results further showed that perceived organisational support had a significant negative influence on intent to emigrate (path coefficient = -.077, p = .048).

A significant negative indirect effect of core self-evaluations on intent to emigrate through perceived organisational support (path coefficient = -.077, p = < .028) was also found (see Table 18). The significant direct effect between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate observed in a simple regression ceased to be significant when perceived organisational support was controlled for in the SEM path analyses (path coefficient = .019, p = .863). Findings suggest that core self-evaluations may work through perceived organisational support to influence intent to emigrate. These results appeared to have met the condition for full mediation as suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). Hypothesis 1b (alternative hypothesis) was therefore supported and the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 18: Results of user defined estimates for core self-evaluations (through perceived organisational support) indirect effect on intent to emigrate

Parameter	Estimate	Lower	Upper	*P*	Mediation Effect
Core Self, Perceived organisational support, and Intent to emigrate	-.077	-.165	-.004	.028	Full Mediation

4.2.5.4 Core self-evaluations, job satisfaction, and intent to quit

Hypothesis 2a stated that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit. The null hypothesis stated that job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit.

Results from a simple regression showed a significant direct effect of core self-evaluations on intent to quit (path coefficient = -.163. p = .002) (in the absence of indirect paths (see Table 16). A significant positive association was found between core self-evaluations and job satisfaction (path coefficient = .510, p = .000) suggesting that the

higher one's core self-evaluations, the higher their job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was also found to have a significant negative influence on intent to quit (path coefficient = -.344, p = .000).

Results (see Table 19) also indicated a significant negative indirect effect of core self-evaluations on intent to quit through job satisfaction (path coefficient = -.175, p = .010). Further a non-significant direct effect of core self-evaluations on intent to quit while controlling for job satisfaction (path coefficient =.134, p = .200) was found. As shown in Table 21, these results seemed to have met the condition for full mediation as suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). Hypothesis 2a (alternative hypothesis) was therefore supported and null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 19: Results of user defined estimates for core self-evaluations' indirect effect on intent to quit through job satisfaction

Parameter	Estimate	Lower	Upper	P	Mediation Effect
Core self-evaluation, Job satisfaction, and Intent to quit	-.175	-.297	-.073	.010	Full Mediation

4.2.5.5 Core self-evaluations, job satisfaction, and intent to emigrate

Hypothesis 2b stated that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate. The null hypothesis stated that job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate. Based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach, four different effects were again included in testing this hypothesis.

As indicated in previous sections, core self-evaluations had a significant effect on intent to quit (path coefficient = -.163. p = .002) when tested in a simple regression (see Table 16). Core self-evaluations further had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction (path coefficient = .510, p = .000). Job satisfaction was found to have a significant negative influence on intent to emigrate (path coefficient = -.324, p = .000) suggesting that an

individual with high job satisfaction may have lower intention to emigrate. See Figure 7 and Table 15.

As indicated in the user defined estimates table (Table 20), a significant negative indirect effect of core self-evaluations on intent to emigrate through job satisfaction (path coefficient = -.165, p = .005) was found. However, a non-significant direct effect was found (see Table 15) between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate while controlling for job satisfaction (path coefficient = .019, p = .863). This suggests that core self-evaluations work through job satisfaction to impact academic's intent to emigrate. Results from this hypothesis testing suggest that the condition for full mediation as suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) was met (see Table 21). Hypothesis 2b (alternative hypothesis) was therefore supported and null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 20: Results of user defined estimates for total effects (cord self-evaluations indirect effect on intent to emigrate through job satisfaction)

Parameter	Estimate	Lower	Upper	P	Mediation Effect
Core self-evaluations, Job satisfactions and Intent to emigrate	-,.165	-.302	-.062	.005	Full Mediation

Table 21: Standardised direct, indirect, and total effects for mediation analysis

Variables	Direct DV <--- IV	Direct Mediator <--- IV	Direct DV<--- Mediator	Indirect/Total Effects DV <--- Med <-- -IV	Mediation Effect
CSE, POS and ITQ	-0.163 (p = .002)	0.999 (p = .000)	-0.171 (p = .000)	-.171 (p = .011)	Full Mediation
CSE, POS and ITE	-0.291 (p = .000)	0.999 (p = .000)	-0.077 (p = .048)	-.077 (P = .028)	Full Mediation
CSE, JS and ITQ	-0.163 (p = .002)	0.510 (p = .000)	-0.344 (p = .000)	-.175 (p = .010)	Full Mediation

CSE, JS and ITE	-0.291 (p = .000)	0.510 (p = .000)	-0.324 (p = .000)	-0.165 (p = .000)	Full Mediation

Note: DV Dependent variable; IV = Independent variable; CSE = Core self-evaluations; ITQ = Intent to Quit; ITE = Intent to emigrate; POS = Perceived organisational support; JS = Job satisfaction.

4.2.5.6 Moderating effect of satisfaction with life the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit

Hypothesis 3 stated that the negative relationship between core self-evaluations and intention to quit will be strengthened when satisfaction with the quality of life in South Africa is lower. The null hypothesis stated that the negative relationship between core self-evaluations and intention to quit will not be strengthened when satisfaction with the quality of life in South Africa is lower. To test this hypothesis, SEM in AMOS SPSS was conducted.

The path model results showed no significant direct effect between satisfaction with quality of life and intent to quit (path coefficient = .006, p = .924). As seen in Table 22, a significant negative effect was however found between the interaction variable (a combination of core self-evaluations and satisfaction with quality of life) and intent to quit (path coefficient = -.048, p = .012) suggesting that satisfaction with quality of life has a moderating effect that may strengthen or weaken the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit. Hypothesis 3 (alternative hypothesis) was therefore supported and null hypothesis was rejected.

4.2.5.7 Moderating effect of satisfaction with life the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate

*Hypothesis 4 s*tated that the negative relationship between core self-evaluations and intention to emigrate will be strengthened when satisfaction with the quality of life in South Africa is lower. The null hypothesis stated that satisfaction with quality of life has no moderating effect on the relationship between core self-evaluations and intention to emigrate. The path model results shown in Table 22 indicate no significant effect between satisfaction with quality of life and intent to emigrate (path coefficient = .057, p = .189). Further, no significant effect was found between the interaction variable (a combination

of core self-evaluations and satisfaction with quality of life) and intent to emigrate (path coefficient = -.068, p = .391) suggesting that satisfaction with life has no moderating effect that may strengthen or weaken the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit. The null hypothesis was therefore supported and alternative hypothesis was rejected.

Table 22: Moderation results

Relationship	Direct between Core self and dependent variables without Moderator	Direct between Moderator (Satisfaction with Quality Life) and Dependents	Direct with Interaction Variable (Core self and satisfaction with life) and Dependents	Moderation Effect
Core Self-Evaluations, Satisfaction with qual life and Intent to Quit	Path coefficient = 0.134 (p = 0.200)	Path coefficient = 0.006 (p = .924)	Path coefficient = -0.048 (p = .012)	Moderation
Core Self-Evaluations, Satisfaction with life in SA and Intent to Emigrate	Path coefficient = 0.019 (p = .863)	Path coefficient = 0.040 (p = .528)	Path coefficients = -0.027 (p = .172)	No moderation

4.2.5.8 Summary of hypotheses findings

Hypotheses made regarding the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit, and between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate were tested using structural equation modeling. A non-significant relationship between core self-evaluations and academics' intent to quit was found. This relationship was tested in a path model in the presence of indirect paths (mediators, a moderator, and an interaction variable). The relationship between core self-evaluations and academics' intent to emigrate was also tested in the presence of indirect paths (mediators, a moderator, and an interaction variable). Results showed no significant relationship between the two variables.

Perceived organisational support was found to fully mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit. Perceived organisational support was also found to fully mediate the core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate relationship. A significant negative indirect effect of core self-evaluations on intent to quit through job satisfaction was found. Job satisfaction was found to fully mediate the relationship between core self-

evaluations and intent to emigrate. Satisfaction with quality of life was found to moderate the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit. Results also showed that satisfaction with quality of life does not moderate the core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate relationship. Refer to the consolidated table (Table 23) of findings for direct and indirect effects below.

Table 23: Consolidated SEM table of direct and indirect effects

Hypothesis	Effect	Standardised Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Hypothesis 1 There is a significant negative association between core self-evaluations and intent to quit.	Direct	.134	.105	1.281	.200
Hypothesis 2 There is a significant negative association between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate.	Direct	.019	.113	.173	.863
Hypothesis 1a Perceived organisational support mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit.	Indirect	-.171	-.278	-.092	.011
Hypothesis 1b Perceived organisational support mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate.	Indirect	-.077	-.165	-.004	.028
Hypothesis 2a Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit.	Indirect	-.175	-.297	-.073	.010
Hypothesis 2b Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate.	Indirect	-.165	-.302	-.062	.005
Hypothesis 3 The negative relationship between core self-evaluations and intention to quit will be strengthened when satisfaction with the quality of life in South Africa is lower.	Indirect Effect	- .048	.019	-2.514	.012
Hypothesis 4 *T*he negative relationship between core self-evaluations and intention to emigrate will be strengthened when satisfaction with the quality of life in South Africa is lower.	Indirect Effect	.019	.113	.173	.863

4.3 CONCLUSION

In the current chapter, results of the hypotheses testing process were discussed. First, results of descriptive statistics including means, medians, modes, variance, and standard deviations were reported after which results from the measures of skewness and kurtosis were outlined. Results of the Pearson correlation analysis conducted to examine associations among this study's variables were reported next. Following this, Cronbach alpha values from testing the scales' reliability, and results from testing convergent and discriminant validity associated with items included in the measurement scales were reported. After this, results from testing the fit of the hypothesised model to data were reported. SEM analyses results were then considered next after with the chapter concluding with a summary of results.

CHAPTER 5 - DISCUSSION

5 INTRODUCTION

Results of the hypotheses testing process were discussed in the previous chapter. In this chapter, the literature review and results reported in the previous chapter are integrated and discussed. Included in the discussion is a brief overview of the context within which this study was conducted in Section 5.1. Following this, an overview of this study's objective is revisited and outlined in Section 5.2. A biographical profile of academics who participated in the study is briefly considered in Section 5.3. These are revisited and considered to highlight the problem addressed in this current study, and to provide a brief overview of the context within which this current study was conducted. Possible explanations of findings as they relate to the convergence and/or divergence of findings from previous literature are then explored.

5.1 BRIEF OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY'S CONTEXT

Maintaining the integrity of any academic institutions is largely determined by the extent to which academic staff is hired, supported, and retained (Winter & Logsdon, 2004). The higher education system in South Africa has emerged as one of the most unique and complex systems among many around the world, (Mapesela, & Hay, 2006). Over and above universal driving forces of change affecting higher education institutions, "a different impetus for change exists" in South Africa (Mapesela, & Hay, 2006, p.712). The country's historical background and contemporary factors combine with global development trends with the potential to impact the working environment of the country's academic staff (Portnoi, 2015). In particular, the post-apartheid era has seen South African higher education institutions experiencing profound and robust transformations (Portnoi, 2015).

As Fourie (1999) puts it, transformation of higher education institutions in South Africa is not only comprehensive but radical with daily shifts of emphasis and new issues dominating the higher education debate. Institutions have been going through changes to human resource policies, student cohort, institutional staff profiles, student representative bodies, as well as institutional governance models (Mapesela, & Hay, 2006). However, the number of changes that have occurred may have keen implications for employee attitudes and behaviours in these institutions (Pienaar & Bester, 2009). The impact of

these transformational shifts on academic staff may be more profound than generally believed (Fourie, 1999).

I started conducting this study prior to the unexpected nation-wide lockdown when all South African higher education institutions were forced into lockdown such that all operations, including teaching and learning were abruptly halted (Mncube et al., 2021). This study's data was therefore collected prior to, and in the early stages of the Covid-19-pandemic when academic participants had arguably not experienced its full impact. To date, there's no end in sight to the disruptions brought about by the pandemic which may prevail into the foreseeable future (Motala & Menon, 2020). It is possible that, had this study been conducted at the height of the pandemic, the current shifts in academic mood and activities at South African higher education institutions investigated may have affected the academics' responses in which case I would have probably yielded different results. Follow up studies could be conducted to examine academics' withdrawal intentions within the context of the current academic environment.

5.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY'S OBJECTIVES

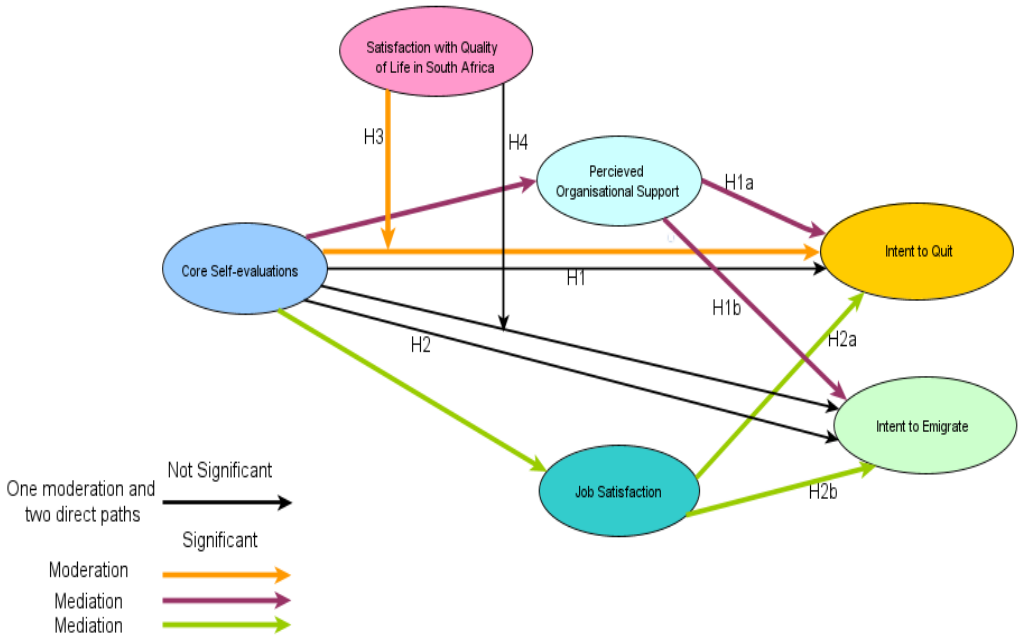
Even after decades of study, a theory and practice divide relating to what factors lead to employees quitting and the associated need for organisations to retain skilled employees continues to exist (Joo et al., 2015). While previous research on employee turnover has predicted different turnover antecedents, the focus of this thesis was core self-evaluations and its relationship with intent to quit, and intent to emigrate. In migration literature, Boneva and Frieze (2001), Brewer and Kovner (2014), Gilmartin (2013), and Kunz (1973) argue that personality, personality traits, home country conditions, and job attitudes interact with environmental factors and opportunities to produce actual migratory intentions and behaviour. Brewer and Kovner (2014) further argue that factors that lead to turnover intentions are similar to factors that lead to emigration intentions. However, there seems to be no studies conducted to investigate whether antecedents of intent to quit are similar to those of intent to emigrate within South African higher education contexts.

In addition, studies of South African higher education institutions appear to focus mainly on academics' quitting intentions (Chaacha & Botha, 2021; Janse Van Rensburg et al.,

2017; Martin & Roodt, 2008; Muleya et al., 2016; Robyn & Du Preez, 2013) while emigration intentions are neglected in this context. This current study however found that more academics are intending to emigrate than they are intending to quit. In this current study, I integrated turnover intentions and migration intentions into a single theoretical model and argued that the migration decision making process is similar to the turnover decision making processes as proposed by Brewer and Kovner (2014).

The main objective of this study was to review, integrate, and test turnover and migration theories relating to this study's variables namely, individual differences (core self-evaluations), work attitudes (job satisfaction), contextual or work environment (perceived organisational support), and external or societal conditions (satisfaction with quality of life), and to investigate their effect on academics' intent to quit and intent to emigrate. This study therefore sought to address several questions on the impact that the study variables have on withdrawal intentions. This study's proposed integrated SEM model (see Figure 9) answered the questions and supported the study's hypotheses in all but two direct structural paths, and one indirect structural path. A brief overview of this study's demographic characteristics is now considered.

Figure 9: Summary of model with all decision paths in a less complex manner:



5.3 BIOGRAGHICAL PROFILE OF PARTICIPANTS

The current study was conducted using a sample of participants from five different universities in South Africa namely University of Pretoria, University of the Witwatersrand, University of Cape Town, Central University of Technology, and University of Fort Hare. The majority of participants were between 30 to 39 years of age with the least number falling between 20 to 29 years age range. Most of the participants were White followed by Black Africans. Female participants made up the majority of the sample. Most of the respondents were born in South Africa with 28% having been born in other parts of the world. The University of the Witwatersrand had the highest number of participants while the least number come from the University of Technology. In terms of qualifications, the majority of participants had a PhD (Doctor of Philosophy degree) and only 1 had an Honours degree.

The average class size for respondents was 164 with the largest being1100. One hundred and twenty two respondents were NRF rated. The majority of participants reported teaching more than they researched while the least number engaged in both equally. Those with 11 to 22 years' of work experience made up the majority of the sample while 2.2% had more than 41 years' of work experience. The majority of participants had no intention to quit. However, 14% were undecided and 3% had quitting intentions. While the majority of academics had no emigration intentions, the number of those intending to emigrate (18%) was higher in comparison with those that were intending to quit (3%), and 37% were undecided (see Appendix 9.4.7).

Having revisited contextual information, and briefly considered this study's objective, and descriptive profile of participants, I now consider the hypotheses which will be used to structure the discussion.

H1: There is a significant negative association between core self-evaluations and intent to quit

This first hypothesis sought to investigate the extent to which core self-evaluations are associated with intent to quit among academics in higher education institutions in South Africa. As illustrated in the literature review, this hypothesis was derived from the

important role played by individual factors in their relationship with employees' decisions to leave. The research model (see figure 9) developed for this study was based on the assumption that core self-evaluations would serve as an internal resource such that academics with elevated levels would focus on positive rather than negative aspects of their environment and as such would have lower intent to quit. It was also assumed that this negative effect will continue to be significant after controlling for indirect effects.

Single path tests or tests of the direct relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit, indicated a significant negative relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit. However, while results of SEM hypotheses testing showed a positive relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit, this direct structural path was not significant when controlling for job satisfaction, perceived organisational support, and satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa (see figure 9).

This finding was unexpected and suggests that the traditional assumption made by some researchers (Javed et al., 2014; Joo et al., 2015; Kim & Lee, 2020; Virga et al., 2017) that in a path model, core self-evaluations are negatively associated with withdrawal intentions is at best only partially correct. The result of a non-significant relationship between core self-evaluations and turnover intentions is however consistent with Greaves et al.'s (2015) findings in a study conducted to examine the interactive effect of core self-evaluations and supervisor support on turnover intentions. Similarly, Javed et al. (2014) found that core self-evaluations have no effect on turnover intentions and concluded that core self-evaluations are redundant in work environments that are highly supportive. Javed et al. (2014) investigated the combined effects of perception of organisational politics and core self-evaluations on turnover intention.

Contrary to Javed et al.'s (2014) findings, and findings in this current study, results of three studies by Chhabra (2020, 2018, 2016) showed that there is a negative association between core self-evaluations and intent to quit. According to Chhabra (2020), results of her studies suggest that employees with high core self-evaluations may be robust to negative work environments and may be more satisfied with their jobs and institutions such that their intention to quit is lower. Another study by Kim and Lee (2020) aimed at validating a Korean-language version of the Work Volition Scale (WVS) found a

negative relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit. Within the university context, results of a study conducted by Islam et al. (2020) in the public sector universities of Pakistan indicated that core self-evaluations are negatively associated with turnover intentions.

Contrary to findings of a zero effect, and a negative association between core self-evaluations and intent to quit in the above mentioned studies, results of Booth et al., (2020) study showed that employees high on core self-evaluations have higher intentions to leave when their trust in workplace management is low. Booth et al. (2020) theorised that when employees have high core self-evaluations and high trust in workplace management, they are more likely to experience heightened stress and turnover intentions when undermined by their bosses.

It was assumed in the current study that the effect of core self-evaluations on decisions relating to withdrawal cognitions would be particularly salient, given the context of the country's history. As indicated earlier, the result of a non-significant relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit was unexpected. My understanding of this finding is that, in any workplace, a number of factors influence employees and they do so concurrently. In the current study, the effect of core self-evaluations as indicated earlier was tested in the presence of indirect effects to mirror what occurs in the work place in real life. The finding in this study suggests that the levels of academics' core self-evaluations may not sorely determine quitting intentions but that the variable works with other important predictors to influence their intent to quit.

Although core self-evaluations is an important direct influencer of quitting intentions, it is possible that its effect becomes redundant in an environment where other factors such as high employee work satisfaction and high institutional support are present. This finding further suggests that core self-evaluations could be operating through its effect on other factors to influence academics' withdrawal intentions. The implication of this finding therefore is that, factors through which core self-evaluations operate to impact intent to quit should be identified and enhanced to ensure reduced withdrawal intentions and increased retention of staff at higher education institutions in South Africa.

H2: There is a significant negative association between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate

According to Paulauskaitė et al. (2010), personal factors such as psychological characteristics have an effect on intention to migrate. In migration literature, Walczak (2020) found that internal dispositions represented by core self-evaluations significantly affect the strength with which employees engage in their work such that those who think better about themselves engage more in work regardless of the organisation's location. Fawcett (1985) similarly argues that an individual's decision to migrate may be shaped by psychological dispositions.

Because academics with high core self-evaluations may be robust to contextual influences, the assumption in this study was that academics that scored high in core self-evaluations could withstand negative work and life conditions such that they would have lower intentions to relocate. The finding of a non-significant negative direct structural path between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate while controlling for job satisfaction, perceived organisational support and satisfaction with quality of life was therefore unexpected.

Current findings suggest that core self-evaluations may have no effect when other factors such as job satisfaction and perceived organisational support act concurrently to impact emigration intentions. By including indirect paths in testing this relationship, I was able to get results that reflect real life situations in the workplace where academics are influenced by different factors in their daily decision making processes. This finding suggests that while core self-evaluations may enable academics to adopt a positive mind frame and see themselves as capable of coping with demanding life experiences (Judge et al, 1998), its effect may be redundant in institutions where employees perceive high support and are satisfied. Findings further suggest that ore self-evaluations may be working through other variables to affect academics' intent to emigrate.

Contrary to the finding of non-significant relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate, results from previous research (Fouarge et al., 2019; Joo, Hahn, & Peterson, 2014) showed that there is a significant relationship between personality traits and migration intentions. In particular, Fouarge et al. (2019) found that among the big

five personality traits, individuals who are more open (openness to experience) and extraverted are more likely to consider migrating unlike those that are more conscientious and agreeable. Fouarge et al. (2019) also found that individuals that are more emotionally stable are much more satisfied with their current location and less likely to have migration intentions. In their study on migrant personalities, Boneva and Frieze (2001) found that there is a specific set of personality characteristics that differentiates people who intend to emigrate from those who don't.

An interesting observation in this study however was that the non-significant result of the core self-evaluations and withdrawal intentions relationship was only evident when the variables were tested in a multiple path model (SEM) when mediators (job satisfaction and perceived organisational support), and a moderator (satisfaction with life) were controlled for as indicated above. Single path tests or tests of the direct relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit, and between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate indicated a significant negative relationship between core self-evaluations and the two dependent variables.

Further, results from a correlation analysis indicated that core self-evaluations are negatively associated with both intent to quit and intent to emigrate suggesting that when an academic's core-self evaluations are low, they are likely to have higher intentions to quit and higher intentions to emigrate. It is possible that differences in results when core self-evaluations are tested in relation to academics' withdrawal intentions directly versus in the SEM model could be because the SEM model reflects a more complex relationship where a wider range of variables are considered. Further, by testing these variables at once in the model, omitted variance bias may have been significantly reduced.

This current finding of a non-significant effect of core self-evaluations on withdrawal intentions suggests that core self-evaluations may work through mediators and moderators to impact academics' withdrawal intentions. Further, findings in this current study showing that more academics are intending to emigrate than they are intending to quit has significant implications for academic managers. The focus in higher education institutions in South Africa should be on providing interventions and support that enhance

factors through which core self-evaluations operate so that migration intentions and actual migration behaviour among academics may be reduced.

H1a: The relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit is mediated by perceived organisational support

Although a number of studies suggest that personality and personality traits have a direct impact on turnover intentions, others argue that there are important mediators and moderator variables in this relationship (Joo et al., 2014; Paulauskaitė et al., 2010; Treglown et al., 2018; Zimmerman, 2008). The argument in this research is that job attitudes such as job satisfaction and perceived organisational support may interact with different employee personalities to impact withdrawal cognitions (Brewer & Kovner, 2014). Such interactions may in turn lead to actual turnover (Brewer & Kovner, 2014) or withdrawal intentions. A further argument in this research is that when employees find themselves in difficult situations, their core self-evaluations provide a buffering effect that enables them to deal with negative situations in that the weaknesses of those with high core self-evaluations are suppressed while their strengths are enhanced (Bono & Judge, 2003). The assumption in this study therefore was that academics with high core self-evaluations would also perceived their institutions as highly supportive due to their positive outlook on life which would in turn lead to them having lower intentions to withdraw.

As expected, findings in the current study indicate that perceived organisational support fully mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and academics' intent to quit. Core self-evaluations therefore work through perceived organisational support to impact academics' intention to quit. This finding suggests that while high core self-evaluations work concurrently with perceived organisational support to influence academics' thought processes, it is their perception of support and care by their institutions that determines their quitting intentions. This finding is consistent with results in McNall et al.'s (2011) study in which they found that high core self-evaluations may be redundant if an employee works in a very supportive environment. Core self-evaluations was found to have a significant positive direct association with perceived organisational support in the current study. This finding is consistent with results in previous studies by Hsieh et al. (2019) and by Joo et al. (2015).

While perceived organisation support has been found to have multiple mediating roles in its relationship with withdrawal intentions (James & Azungah, 2019), a review of literature revealed that the actual mediating role of perceived organisational support in the core self-evaluations and intent to quit relationship has not been investigated in previous studies. However, the mediating role of perceived organisational support on the relationship between other variables and intention to leave is confirmed for example in a study conducted by Loi et al. (2006).

Loi et al. (2006) examined the relationships among employees' justice perceptions, perceived organisational support, organisational commitment, and intention to leave. Perceived organisational support was found to mediate the relationship between employees' justice perception and intent to quit. Another study by Dinç (2015) found that perceived organisational support fully mediates the negative relationship between effort-reward fairness and intention to leave. Dinç (2015) investigated the effect that perceived effort-reward fairness, perceived organisational support, and affective commitment have on intention to leave. The study was conducted in the service industries in the city of Istanbul in Turkey and included a sample size of 176 junior and middle level managers.

In line with previous research (Boateng, 2019; James & Azungah, 2019; Joo et al., 2014: Putra & Surya, 2019; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Satardien, 2014; Tumwesigye, 2010), perceived organisational support was also found to have a significant direct negative relationship with intent to quit in this study. This suggests that an academic who feels appreciated and supported by their institution has a reduced chance of thinking about seeking employment in another institution. This finding is also consistent with Joo et al.'s (2014) findings in a study in which they investigated the effects of personal and contextual factors (i.e., perceived organisational support, developmental feedback) on intent to leave. Results in Joo et al.'s (2014) study showed a significant negative association between perceived organisational support and intention to leave. Contrary to findings in this study, Heffernan and Heffernan's (2019) study results revealed that 52% of academics who felt supported still intended to leave academia. Their results also indicated that academics who felt unsupported cited poor employment circumstances.

The finding that perceived organisational support fully mediates the core self-evaluations and intent to quit relationship in this current study is a significant contribution to limited literature on the mediating role of the variable in research within higher education institutions in South Africa. Perceived organisational support is identified in this study as playing a key role in the decision making process of academics such that those who perceive a lack of support or care by their institutions may react by looking for alternative employment. On the other hand, academics that feel supported or valued may have a long term commitment to their employing institution. The implication of this is that academics that score low on perceived organisational support can be identified as being at greater risk for leaving Academic leadership could therefore pay more attention to promoting and ensuring a work environment that creates strong perceived organisational support (Leupold et al., 2020) for their academics. A further implication for academic leaders is that they may need to put in place programmes and interventions that enhance academics' perceived organisational support to ensure reduced withdrawal intentions within higher education institutions in South Africa.

H1b: The relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate is mediated by perceived organisational support

According to Paulauskaitė et al. (2010), individuals that have a clear intention to emigrate have a specific set of personality traits. Although personality traits have been investigated in relation to academics attitudes and behaviours, (Forrester, & Tashchian, 2010; Johnson et al., 2012; Robertson, & Callinan, 1998; Wille et al., 2014), minimal studies have been conducted to investigate their impact on migration intentions (Fouarge et al., 2019; Joo et al., 2014). Reviewed literature in this current study seems to show that the core self-evaluations and intent to emirate relationship within the academic context has not been investigated.

In addition, despite universities loss of academics to other countries (Bekhradnia & Sastry, 2005; Hoffman, 2009; Latova & Savinkov, 2012; Sastry, 2005; Teichler, 2015), migration intentions seem to have been overlooked in turnover models. While a few studies have used the big five personality traits to investigate the relationship between personality and migration intentions (Fouarge et al., 2019; Paulauskaitė et al., 2010) there appears to be no studies conducted using core self-evaluations in the study of personality

traits and migration intentions. In this current study, the mediation role of perceived organisational support on the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate was examined.

Considering that employees with high core self-concept may feel they have power to control and change negative work conditions owing to high core self-evaluations (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2009), it was reasonable to expect that in supportive institutional work settings, perceived organisational support would interact with high core self-evaluations to trigger feelings of obligation. The feelings of obligation and greater identification with the institution could in turn results in reduced intention to emigrate of academics. It was therefore assumed in the current study that academics with high core self-evaluations would perceive greater support from their institutions due to their high self-concept which would lead to lower intention to emigrate.

Consistent with this assumption, perceived organisational support was found to fully mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and academics' intention to emigrate in the current study. This finding supports Brewer and Kovner's (2014) view that variables that are associated with turnover are similar to those that impact migration intentions. Because no relationship was found between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate when the mediator variables were controlled for, these results suggest that the relationship between core self-evaluations and academics' intent to emigrate is not direct but that core self-evaluations operate through perceived organisational support to affect academics intent to emigrate.

The effect of perceived organisational support on the core self-evaluations and academics' intent to emigrate relationship appears to not have been investigated in previous research as earlier indicated. A few studies have however examined the direct relationship between perceived organisational support and intent to emigrate. For example, in a study by James and Azungah (2019), the effects of academic repatriates' perceived organisational support, adjustment and external employment opportunity on their intention to leave were investigated in James and Azungah's (2019) study. Consistent with findings in this study, results showed that academic repatriates with high perceived organisational support have lower intentions to leave the country. Another

study conducted by Cao et al. (2014) investigated the impact of perceived organisational support on the intention to stay of self-initiated expatriates in host countries. Results showed that perceived organisational support has a positive effect on the intention to stay of self-initiated expatriates.

The finding in this study that perceived organisational support fully mediates the core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate relationship suggests that academics with a belief that their institution cares about their well-being and values their input may have lower intentions to relocate. Findings also indicate that more academics are intending to emigrate than they are intending to quit. It is possible that quitting intentions of academics are low because they may be happy with the support and care they are receiving at their institutions. It is also possible that the high number of academics intending to emigrate may be attributed to low levels of satisfaction with economic conditions in the country within which their universities are imbedded.

The finding that perceived organisational support mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate is new and adds significantly to literature on organisational factors that affect emigration. What this finding shows is that the emigration intentions of academics may be sensitive to perceived support such that low perceptions of institutional support could lead to employees choosing to emigrate. While this finding has implications for institutions under study, the issue it raises is one that can be managed by academic leaders who may seek ways to increase staff support. Perceived organisational support therefore needs to be identified as an important factor that, if managed with appropriate interventions could enhance the commitment level of the academic staff and assist in the reduction of academics' withdrawal intentions.

H2a: The relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit is mediated by job satisfaction

Academic job satisfaction is viewed as an important aspect of higher education institutions as it is a crucial quality performance indicator (Mapesela & Hay 2006). Caraquil et al. (2016) similarly argued that higher educational institutions are important intellectual assets and a lack of job satisfaction may put them at risk of losing academics to other institutions. Especially considering that intention to quit is a function of current

job satisfaction and work-related characteristics (Shields & Ward, 2001). However, South African higher education institutions have been exposed to radical changes following the country's transition to democracy that have disrupted the status quo. These changes have not only impacted academic staff but also the different levels of the university system (Mapesela & Hay, 2006).

While the restructuring of the entire university system has resulted in the redressing of past inequalities, it has been characterised by a considerable degree of conflict relating to conflicting perceptions, rising university fees, (Walker, 2018), class boycotts, student mass action and protest marches (Fourie, 1999). On the other hand, academic staff in the country have had to engage in a drastic change in attitudes as well as institutional cultures and are now "obliged to diversify their teaching methods, restructure the curriculum, use e-learning and parallel media of instruction, learn to cope with large classes and appreciate different cultures" (Mapesela & Hay, 2006, p. 715). These changes present a huge challenge to higher education institutions considering the impact that such work environment may have on academics' perception of institutional support, job security, as well as work satisfaction.

Although the current study's aim was not to investigate the impact that institutional changes have had on academics in South Africa, I assumed that academics react differently to changes in the workplace due to core self-evaluations. As such, academics with low self-concept or self-confidence due to low core self-evaluations are expected to have low job satisfaction and less likely to cope with dissatisfying work conditions such that they may seek to terminate their membership with their current institutions. On the other hand, academics with high core self-evaluations would be more likely to have high work satisfaction and therefore may have lower leaving intentions.

In line with existing literature (Chhabra, 2016; Greaves et al., 2015), result in this study showed that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit. Because no significant effect was found between core self-evaluations and intent to quit in the SEM analysis, this result suggests that core self-evaluations work through job satisfaction to impact academics' withdrawal intentions. Considering this finding, this study's model incorporates core self-evaluations as an important antecedent

that enhances job satisfaction, which, in turn, has consequences on the turnover intentions of academics. It is therefore evident in this study that job satisfaction plays a major role in academics' quitting intentions.

A review of literature suggests that only two other studies (Chhabra, 2016; Greaves et al., 2015) have investigated the mediating role of job satisfaction in the core self-evaluations and intent to quit relationship. Consistent with current findings, results of a study conducted by Chhabra (2016) indicated that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and turnover intentions. Chhabra (2016) investigated the mediating role of job satisfaction on the relationship between core self-evaluations and employee outcomes (organisational citizenship behaviour and turnover intentions) in Indian organisations. Another study by Greaves et al. (2015) investigated the relationship between core self-evaluations, supervisor support, employee satisfaction, and turnover intentions of employees with informal caregiving responsibilities. Greaves et al. (2015) found that employees' satisfaction and emotional exhaustion from their work mediates the negative relationship between core self-evaluations and turnover intentions when supervisor work support and care support are high.

Consistent with previous research (Bono & Judge, 2003; Boyar & Mosley, 2007; Gurbuz et al., 2021; Hsieh et al., 2019; Judge et al., 2003; Smedema et al., 2018), a positive direct relationship between core self-evaluations and job satisfaction was also found in this study suggesting that academics high in core self evaluations also have higher work satisfaction than those with low core self-evaluations. This finding is supported by Judge et al. (1998b) who argued that certain characteristics or factors within an individual influence the extent to which they are satisfied with their work. A significant negative direct relationship between job satisfaction and intent to quit was also found in the current study. This result is consistent with previous findings (Azeez et al., 2016; Boyar & Mosley, 2007; Chhabra, 2018; Mobley, 1977; Eby et al., 1999; Shields & Ward, 2001) and suggests that academics who are highly satisfied with their work may have lower intention to quit.

The confirmation of the mediator role played by job satisfaction on the core self-evaluations and intent to quit relationship is significant and adds to existing literature on

factors that affect academics' quitting intentions. The finding has implications for academic leaders who should find ways to identify sources of job satisfaction in higher education institutions to ensure satisfactory work conditions for academics that motivate their continued commitment and support for employing institutions.

H2b: The relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate is mediated by job satisfaction

According to Speare et al. (1982) job satisfaction is among a number of variables that impact an individual's decision to migrate. Jewell and Kazakis (2021) argued that job satisfaction is an important parameter in an academic's career and personal life as it not only impacts an individual's performance at work but other life activities as well. A review of literature however revealed that no study has investigated the effect of personal characteristic and organisational characteristic on academics' migration intention. Similar studies discussed in the following section focused on the job satisfaction and intent to emigrate relationship. This study aimed to fill this gap in literature.

In line with previous studies (Dubas-Jakóbczyk et al., 2020; El-Jardali et al., 2009; Kamali et al., 2020), job satisfaction was found to have a negative effect on academics' intent to emigrate in the current study. Although not conducted within an academic context, a similar study by (Dubas-Jakóbczyk et al., 2020), investigated the effects of job satisfaction on intent to emigrate of physicians working in three university hospitals in Poland. Results of their study indicated that physicians with a high intention to migrate report lower levels of job satisfaction. Contrary to current findings, another study by Kamali et al. (2020) aimed at investigating the relationship between job satisfaction and the desire to emigrate among nurses in Tehran indicated that there is no significant relationship between nurses' satisfaction and desire to emigrate.

The finding that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate is new to literature and again adds significantly to factors within the institution that affect emigration. This finding has implications for academic leaders and suggests that the brain drain in South African higher education institutions can be managed if factors that improve well-being in the workplace and elevate satisfaction are

identified and implemented. The implementing of institutional support related interventions and programmes may enhance commitment and the perception of support may reduce migration intentions and lead to increased loyalty to the institution.

H3: Satisfaction with quality of life moderates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit

Quality of life encompasses the well-being of employees (Hill, 2002) and in the current study, satisfaction with the quality of life in South Africa was measured by academics' satisfaction with cost of living, level of income, and the availability of affordable and quality products. According to Smart (1990), economic and societal conditions are among factors found to affect employee turnover. Brewer and Kovner (2014) similarly argue that individual decisions that lead to turnover result from their perceptions of work and personal environments. However, there seems to be no studies conducted to investigate the role played by satisfaction with quality of life on the core self-evaluations and intent to quit relationship.

Previous studies have focused more on the relationship between quality of life and job satisfaction (Ahmat et al., 2019; Hill, 2002). Ahmat et al. (2019) found a relationship between perceived quality of life and job satisfaction in a study investigating hotel employees' overall perception of the minimum wage policy's effect on satisfaction with compensation, work behaviours, and perceived quality of life. They also found that minimum wage policy implementation impacted employees' work behaviours and quality of life. Another study by Hill (2002) found a significant relationship between quality of life and occupational satisfaction.

Considering that individuals with high core self-evaluations have positive attitudes and are confident about their abilities to cope under stressful circumstances (Chhabra, 2018), it was expected in this study that academics with elevated levels of core self-evaluations would also have high satisfaction with quality of life such that this interaction will result in lowered leaving intentions. On the basis of theory and previous studies, it was therefore assumed that satisfaction with the quality of life in South Africa would act as a buffer to weaken or strengthen the relationship between core self-evaluations and their quitting intentions.

This assumption is confirmed with findings revealing that when academics have high satisfaction with their quality of life, this results in a stronger negative relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit. It is possible that high satisfaction with quality of life may reinforce the already high core self-evaluations and in turn make academics even more resilient to withdrawal cognitions. It is also reasonable to assume that the intention to leave of academics with low core self-evaluations may be mitigated by their high satisfaction with quality of life as their positive outlook on life in the country may assist them in dealing with negative work constraints.

According to Spector (1997), employees that are dissatisfied increasingly engage in counterproductive behaviours such as workplace burnout, and withdrawal. Further, people with low core self-evaluations may perceive themselves as having no control over dissatisfying environments, and may lack confidence in their ability to cope with such changes or ability to adapt. Therefore, academics with low core self-evaluations that are not happy or satisfied with their quality of life are likely to start thinking about quitting or looking for work elsewhere. The take away from this finding is that, whether an academic's core self-evaluations are high or low, it is possible that their intentions to leave may be mitigated by the level of satisfaction with their quality of life or the economic conditions in South Africa. An important aspect of quality of life that was measured in the current study is level of income. It is therefore possible that the intention to quit of academics with low core self-evaluations, and not happy with their wages would be stronger and vice versa.

The confirmation of the moderation effect of satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa in the current study contributes to turnover literature by providing a better understanding of how the variable interacts with core self-evaluations to strengthen or weaken academics' turnover intentions. This finding has implications for the South African government, policy makers and academic leaders. The South African government and policy makers have an obligation to all employees in the country in that they should develop and implement social, political and economic policies that promote better quality of life for all within its borders. Academic leaders should also consider the impact that life events outside the workplace have on academic staff. As such, they could collaborate

with academics in identifying factors that impact their quality of life and find ways in which they could assist through research, advocacy, or activism. Considering that the quality of life concept is subjective, designing and implementing interventions that enhance academics' quality of life may be challenging. Academic leaders could also consider supporting academics by ensuring that aspects of quality of life such as work benefits are competitive (Rode et al., 200), and that working conditions such as flexible work hours are provided. Further, academic leaders could ensure that family services such as day care for children (Rode et al., 2017) and medical care support which may improve quality of life and general well-being are provided were possible.

H4: Satisfaction with quality of life moderates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit

Although satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa is identified as an important boundary condition on the core self-evaluation and intent to quit relationship, this study's findings indicate that the variable's interaction with core self-evaluations has no impact on intent to emigrate.

Because thoughts and feelings of people with high core self-evaluations are less likely to be influenced by negative events in the workplace or other external factors (Chhabra, 2018), the expectation in the study was that high core self-concept individuals would have high satisfaction with quality of life to the extent that this interaction would strengthen the negative relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate. The finding of a non-significant moderation effect of satisfaction with quality of life on the core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate relationship was therefore unexpected. Particularly because quality of life would be a more obvious moderator for intention to emigrate than a moderator for intention to quit given that quitting entails moving from one institution to another and may not result in a change in quality of life associated with a shitting countries.

It is possible that intent to emigrate may have a higher threshold than intent to quit in that the economic and intrinsic costs of changing a job may be less in comparison to costs of emigrating to another country hence the finding in this study. It is therefore likely that a mediator effect of satisfaction with quality life effect on the core self-evaluations and

intent to emigrate relationship might require a higher threshold in comparison to quitting intentions because emigrating entails a greater effort (to uproot one's family, job, etc.) than to simply move within the country form one organisation to another.

Considering that a number of relationships investigated in this study have not been investigated in previous studies, findings require further research as well as replication.

5.4 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the results of the quantitative analyses reported in the previous chapter were discussed. A brief overview of the context within which this study was conducted was considered after which an overview of this study's objective was revisited and briefly discussed. A biographical profile of academics who participated in the study was revisited and highlighted. Following this, possible explanations of findings as they relate to previous literature were outlined. In the following chapter, practical and theoretical implications, and, limitations of the study are considered.

CHAPTER 6 - PRACTICAL AND THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

6 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the current study's practical and theoretical implications are considered. Practical implications are considered first in Section 6.1 after which theoretical implications are discussed in Section 6.2. In Section 6.3, I highlight this study's limitations after which recommendations for future research are considered in Section 6.4. The chapter ends with a brief conclusion.

6.1 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Multiple reasons for why academics are intending to leave the profession have been identified in recent literature (Heffernan & Heffernan, 2019), and a number of negative consequences have been found to be associated with losing skilled employees. While exact figures relating to workforce turnover are difficult to determine, the exodus of academics results in a significant gap in institutional knowledge, lost productivity, and high costs to institutions needing to recruit, replace and train new employees (Heffernan & Heffernan, 2019). In this current study, findings suggest various practical implications for policy makers, higher education institutions in South Africa, academic leaders, and for full-time academics at these institutions.

Findings in this study provide evidence that satisfaction with quality of life moderates the core self-evaluations and intent to quit relationship. This finding suggests that the negative relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit may be strengthened or weakened based on an academic's level of satisfaction with their quality of life. Therefore, although the quality of life concept is subjective, it is significantly important not only for employees but for employers too (Lambert, 2010). Because of the subjective nature of the quality of life concept, designing and putting in place programmes and interventions for ensuring sustained satisfaction with quality of life may be challenging for universities. Especially because a number of conditions or factors associated with quality of life are beyond the control of organisations. However, universities play a critical role in society through research, advocacy, and activism all of which are critical

tools that may be utilised in collaboration and partnership with the government who could then provide a range of benefits to improve quality of life for all within the country. The South African government and policy makers in particular have a social, political and economic obligation to all employees in the country. Therefore, they should be committed to improving the quality of life for all by designing and implementing socio-economic policies that promote employees' quality of life and overall well-being. Socio-economic policies that improve quality of life and take into consideration better work-life balance for employees would likely attracts academics to want to work in the country and reduce turnover.

Findings from the current study further suggest that core self-evaluations work through perceived organisational support and through job satisfaction to impact academics' intent to quit, and their intent to emigrate. This means that when levels of perceived organisational support in employees are high, such that they feel supported or valued by their organisation (Ni & Wang, 2015), and when they are highly satisfied with their work, the chances of them having intentions to withdraw may be reduced. The conditions under which employees work are key aspects to increased work satisfaction and perceptions of support within the work place. However, work place conditions are an aspect under the direct control of university leadership. Therefore, academic leaders should put in place programmes and interventions to improve work conditions which may have a significant impact on stemming the loss of human and intellectual capital from these institutions.

Although previous studies have indicated that high core self-evaluations employees have lower intentions to quit (Chang et al., 2012; Islam et al., 2020; Kim & Lee, 2020; Ravangard et al., 2019), this study's findings suggest that effectively supporting employees and putting strategies in place that elicit feelings of gratitude, trust and obligation to the organization may be key to mitigating academics' withdrawal intentions (Treglown et al., 2018). Findings further highlight the need for academic leaders in higher education institutions in South Africa to find ways to better support academic staff by way of establishing a supportive environment that inculcates feelings of loyalty and thereby reduces their withdrawal cognitions.

Providing such support requires academic administrators to develop strategies and interventions that take into consideration the continually changing landscape of higher educational institution in South Africa. Gómez et al. (2020) similarly argued that the current competitive world environment of scientific and technological advances require academic support programmes to be conducted in a manner that takes into consideration the social, cultural, and political context of the country within which the universities are embedded. Following South Africa's transition to democracy, the transformation of higher education institutions in the country has been high on the government's agenda. Universities in the country have therefore seen a huge expansion in student enrolment (Tettey, 2009). However, political and economic pressures as well as increasing diversity among students and academics not only reflect positive social changes (Poole & Bornholt, 1998) and great strides towards transformation (Munyaka et al., 2017) but also present a huge challenge to higher education institutions.

Mapesela and Hay's (2006) view is that trends in higher education institutions such as massification, technological demands, globalisation, internationalisation, increased accountability, the use of new modes of delivery and materials, as well as dwindling government subsidies and resources combine to place substantial amount of pressure on academic staff. According to Motala and Menon (2020), the current Covid -19 pandemic has also contributed to the layer of complexity and uncertainty to an already unstable and contested higher education sector.

South African higher education institutions have been greatly impacted by the Covid-19 pandemic with detrimental effects on both academic staff and students (Hedding et al., 2020). Such effects have been experienced differently by all stakeholders with the onus placed on the employing institutions to show compassion and provide support to facilitate the continuation of both teaching and research programs (Hedding et al., 2020). The issue is that a number of academic staff at contact universities have no experience delivering courses online and have had to upskill and develop innovative ways to offer theory and practical components of courses to students online (Hedding at al., 2020).

According to Heffernan and Heffernan (2019), academic leaders need to find ways of fostering and supporting academics' careers so as to not lose them to other institutions.

An important aspect of supporting academics is to engage them in identifying sources of their job satisfaction and the type of support they may require. Academics should be provided with an opportunity to voice their concerns and to participate in decision making on academic work related matters. Further, academic leaders should find ways to offer appropriate material and non-material incentives to promote and maintain motivation within the institution.

Buyl (2017) argues that a key consideration in effectively supporting academics is diversifying and tailoring academics' development and support at different stages of their professional career. Regardless of academics' career stage, the evolving nature and uncertainty associated with academic work combine to make the university environment difficult for academics to navigate (Heffernan & Heffernan, 2019). While academics in the early stages of their career may require more support in terms of their career development that relate to basic teaching, research, and supervision skills, academics in later stages may experience restlessness in their career (Poole & Bornholt, 1998) and may require leadership skills development because they may need to take on more leadership roles in line with their career progression (Heffernan & Heffernan, 2019).

Because of the diverse nature of the academic population, a number of studies have been conducted to further identify other forms of support and ways in which academics can be supported, (Gómez et al., 2020; Heffernan, 2018; Heffernan & Heffernan, 2019; O'Farrell, 2013). These studies have explored and suggested support in the form of research and teaching focused support opportunities (Heffernan, 2018), and increased job variety and skills development (Griffin et al., 2001). Literature suggests that universities need to support academics through the development of not only structured interventions but also a holistic approach that may include writing retreats and writing groups that support academics' publication output (O'Farrell, 2013), financial support (i.e. funding for traveling costs to conferences and data collection), and support via research time (Heffernan & Heffernan, 2019).

Other suggested strategies include: encouragement of strategic support networks, and creation of workplace support structures that recognise a balance of public and private lives (Poole & Bornholt, 1998). Fourie (1999) suggested developing programmes for

academic staff that specifically focuses on transformation issues and links their training and development efforts to particular outcomes that support transformation in higher education institutions. Formal and informal mentoring support programmes (Fowler 2017) for socialisation and knowledge building may be helpful to address the needs of academics in early stages (Ferguson & Wheat, 2015). Mentoring may also contribute to academic career success as relates to research, supervision, teaching, collaboration, and networking (Buchmueller et al., 1999).

While some may regard any social media profile as risky, online peer mentoring support via twitter, LinkedIn, and chat groups could be useful sources of support for academics as these are spaces where they may actively participate while maintaining a very public part of their professional lives (Poole & Bornholt, 1998). Similarly, Ferguson and Wheat (2015) warned that although social media provides academics with opportunities for engaging beyond their institutions, it comes with risks and different forms of reputation management work. Interventions that allow academics to participate in higher education institutions' policy development may enhance communications among academics, academic leaders, and policy makers, and would help in fostering a sense of collaboration as well as perceived organisational support.

The challenge for academic leaders therefore is to ensure sufficient support and satisfactory work conditions that reduce academics' withdrawal cognitions and motivate them to stay at their institutions. Both job satisfaction and perceived organisational support should be evaluated periodically considering that the provision of quality education at universities may be driven by their academics' level of work satisfaction and perceived institutional support. When institutions have minimal resources to satisfy employees, such failure may result in employees engaging in withdrawal behaviour (Nord, 1977).

Having reflected on the practical implications of the current study, a number of recommendations for policy and practice are considered based on this study's findings and reviewed literature. To facilitate academics' development of job satisfaction and self-confidence, and to increase their perception of a supportive academic environment

(Schrubbe, 2004), recommendations for policy and practice (for academic leaders) are summarised below.

- Provide career development, and mentorship opportunities for academics
- Provide adequate resources and support for research, teaching, and learning. Academic staff teaching and conducting supervisions online need to be supported with adequate training on how to use and access learning, teaching and research resources
- Ensure proper training systems for effectively training and developing academics staff
- Develop and launch programs that identify, understand, and address academics' needs and concerns such as focus groups or suggestion programs
- Establish a climate that values flexibility, autonomy, transparency, and collegial sharing of information
- Demonstrate care and support for academics through flexible work arrangements
- Improve administrative processes
- Develop, review, and ensure reward management practices that are fair and internationally competitive. Further, develop a bonus structure that reflects academics' contributions
- Ensure promotion opportunities for staff and provide clear promotion requirements. Develop and implement promotion workshops for academic staff
- Provide adequate support to academic staff to enhance their loyalty and establish a supportive environment to enhance their commitment. A supportive academic environment with practices such as fair treatment, flexible work conditions, supervisor support may enable a satisfactory work environment in which employees can commit to, and work effectively
- Develop and implement activities that build rapport and promote overall well-being such as social functions
- Develop a system to promptly identify academics that may be at risk of quitting. For example academics that score low on job satisfaction and perceived organisational support measures may be identified as being at high risk of quitting. Quick identification of those at risk could enable academic

administrators to put in place suggested interventions that may mitigate the effects of low job satisfaction and low perceived organismal support

- Incorporate behavioural and cognitive interventions to enhance high core self-evaluations in academics with low core self-evaluations and to enhance overall well-being
- Create an academic climate in which academic staff could play an active role in managing workloads for example through championing for particular changes needed to manage workloads
- Develop a work-life balanced environment to support academics' satisfaction with life and overall well-being

6.2 QUITTING AND EMIGRATION: THE IMPLICATIONS

Universities generate a wide range of outputs including knowledge creation, technological innovation, provision of regional leadership, human capital creation, and the shaping of students through knowledge transfer (Goldstein & Renault, 2004). However, South African higher education institutions have become vulnerable to losing their knowledge workers (Ngobeni & Bezuidenhout, 2011) to turnover and migration, at a cost beyond monetary quantification (Netswera & Rankhumise, 2015). Hong and Kaur (2008) however argue that the quitting of employees may result in positive consequences for organisations that are revitalised following the replacement of employees with better performers.

In the current study, quitting was defined as an employee's deliberate decision to move from one institution to another (Ohana & Meyer, 2010). An academic may quit for purposes of joining another institution, to work in the private sector, to work on a personal business, or quit for purposes of going back into a profession. Various factors have been found to have an influence on quitting. Findings in this study provide evidence that perceived organisational support and job satisfaction are among salient job resources that interact with personality traits to affect one's intention to quit and intention to emigrate which in turn may lead to actual quitting. It is therefore possible that academics quit with the view that a desirable alternative job with greater work satisfaction and

support exists. While the decision to quit is similar to the emigration decision, quitting an organisation entails less cost and is less disruptive to an individual.

Suzana and Popa (2015) defined emigration as the act of moving from one country to another permanently. It is a consequential decision that may have many ramifications for an academic. Emigration may take the shape of an individual not only quitting work but also uprooting their life and close family, and moving to another country. In determining the extent to which academics were intending to emigrate, a number of factors such as core self-evaluations, perceived organisational support, and job satisfaction were considered in the current study.

According to Siu-Lun (1992), individuals who choose to emigrate are less satisfied either with their life conditions or jobs. Emigration may also be determined by one's perception of institutional support and the extent to which one's work duties are fulfilling. Differences in quality of life have also been found to play a significant role in why people uproot their lives to move to other countries. In a study investigating intent to emigrate and its motives, Zotova (2013) found dissatisfaction with one's social and economic environment associated with income, and a search for comfort as the most significant motives for emigration. Erdmans (1992) found occupation benefits associated with career advancement in one's profession as an important factor in emigration decisions. Based on reviewed literature, some factors that pull employees to emigrate may include perceived job opportunities, career advancement, economic conditions, better pay, and better quality of life.

Emigration however not only brings about benefits to those that affect the decision to relocate but loses too. Costs of emigration have ranged from a loss of employee benefits, private medical aid, and insurance policies associated with a job. Emigration has also been associated with high costs of travel and resettlement and may therefore depend on an academic's monetary ability to cover the costs of relocation. There are also intrinsic costs to emigration with research findings indicating that differences in personality traits may facilitate the ability to switch between countries (Van der Zee, 2016). Relocation may therefore require that one is psychologically prepared to settle and live in a country of destination. Emigration may further require one to acquire new skills and training to

ensure fit with unfamiliar demands of a new context. People's support networks of friends, colleagues, and family have also been found to be impacted by emigration (Teichler, 2015).

As an outsider in another country, one would therefore need to build new networks, and develop from scratch political capital within the new organisation. Particularly in the case of South Africa, emigrating may lead to a loss of a unique, friendly and diverse cultural context, and other attractive characteristics of the country such as low cost of living, competitive salaries in academia, unparalleled quality of weather and lifestyle, affordable housing, private health-care as well as private schooling that can be afforded on academic salaries. The unique South African context that filters into the country's higher education institutions may therefore be viewed as pull factors that may attract new talent to these universities.

Although loss of talent is a recurrent theme (Siu-Lun, 1992) associated with both turnover and emigration in literature, there may be positive consequences associated with both concepts as argued by (Hong & Kaur, 2008). For example, the voluntary turnover of an underperforming or disruptive employee who may not be dismissible could present as an opportunity to bring in a new hire with human characteristics associated with successful job performance. Further, the turnover and associated emigration of a longstanding employee may provide the institution with an opportunity to replenish and recruit new talent thereby ensuring the continued renewal of an institution. In addition, while the outflow of senior experienced employees within an institution may affect the quality of education provided, this may be offset by an inflow of younger innovative talent that would improve international institutional ratings over time.

Lastly, emigration may have greater implications than organisational turnover, and findings in the current study suggest that by improving job satisfaction and perceived organisational support, an organisation can not only boost retention, but can also help to reduce emigration of skilled academic staff.

6.3 THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

With regards to theoretical contributions, this study extends earlier turnover as well as migration research in a number of ways. First, an attempt is made to explain and show the similarities between turnover intentions and migration intentions as predicted by theory. Similar to Brewer and Kovner's (2014) study, this research uses the turnover model to not only predict intent to quit but also to predict intent to emigrate. Results have indicated similar predictors and findings for both dependent variables (intent to quit and intent to emigrate) with the exception of one relationship. Secondly, I integrated individual differences as relates to personality traits (core self-evaluations), work attitudes (job satisfaction), contextual work environment (perceived organisational support), and external conditions (satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa), turnover theories, and migration theories. In so doing, I further contributed to turnover literature and migration literature by linking the study's predictor variables and identifying them as playing significant roles in their impact on both turnover and migration intentions.

This research has important implications for the role played by job satisfaction and perceived organisational support as salient mediators in the relationship between core self-evaluations and withdrawal intentions, Findings also add to existing literature supporting the negative direct effects that the two variables have on academics' withdrawal intentions within higher education institutions in South Africa. According to Brewer and Kovner (2014), differences in personalities and their relationship to turnover and migration have been unexplored. Results in this study support a mediation model in which core self-evaluations' impact on behavioural intentions is mediated by job satisfaction and perceived organisational support.

Although job satisfaction has been used in a number of studies to identity employees' feelings towards aspects of their work (Abdulla et al., 2011), a review of literature indicated that only two studies (Chhabra, 2016; Greaves et al., 2015) have investigated and confirmed its mediating role in the core-self-evaluations and intent to quit relationship. The current study builds on these previous studies with results showing that job satisfaction also mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate. This study's findings therefore contribute to previous turnover literature and

supports previous studies that have linked personality, job satisfaction, and work outcomes.

Although the view that perceived organisational support plays multiple roles as a mediator is not surprising, its mediating influence on the relationships between core self-evaluations and withdrawal intentions (intent to quit and intent to emigrate) within the higher education context has not been previously investigated. The focus of investigations in previous studies (Boateng, 2019; Hefferman & Hefferman, 2019; James & Azungah, 2019; Joo et al., 2014: Putra & Surya, 2019) has been on the variable's direct effect on intent to quit. Other researchers (Greaves et al., 2015; Javed et al., 2014; Joo et al., 2015; Kim & Lee, 2020) have focused on the core self-evaluations and intent to quit relationship. In a study conducted by Joo et al. (2014), personal characteristics and contextual factors' impact on turnover intention were investigated.

Their study results indicated that contextual factors (perceived organisational support, developmental feedback, and job complexity) are stronger predictors of turnover intention than personality factors (core self-evaluations and proactive personality). Joo et al.'s (2014) results also indicated that the interaction effect on turnover intention of personal and contextual factors has no significance. This study builds on previous research and provides evidence that job satisfaction and perceived organisational support may be more important determinants of withdrawal intentions than core self-evaluations.

Results in this study also highlight the important role played by satisfaction with quality of life as a moderator in the core self-evaluations and intent to quit relationship. A review of literature suggests that this relationship has not been investigated in previous studies. To advance research, this thesis builds on studies that have investigated aspects of the relationships under study. For example, a study by Won and Chang (2020) investigated the impact that core self-evaluations, job satisfaction, and teachers' violence-related stress have on quality of life. A positive relationship was found between job satisfaction and quality of life.

Further, core self-evaluations and job satisfaction were found to fully mediate the relationship between school violence-related stress and quality of life (Won & Chang,

2020). The finding in this study that satisfaction with quality of life moderates the core self-evaluations and intent to quit relationship bridges the gap in literature and provides an empirical foundation for understanding its moderating role in this relationship. Therefore, outcomes of the present study contribute to the knowledge and literature on the interaction between external factors and individual characteristics to mitigate behavioural intentions within the workplace.

In Smart's (1990) proposed theoretical model, turnover predictors such as individual characteristics, contextual work variables and external conditions were included. Others (Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1978) developed models that included job attitudes such as job dissatisfaction and lack of organisational commitment as predictors of turnover intention. Gilmartins (2013) argues that processes that lead to turnover are similar to the migration processes and included home country conditions in his integrated model as a factor that pushes employees to leave their jobs and country. Previous research therefore suggests a lack of attention in identifying the inclusive influence of both personal and contextual factors on employees' turnover intentions (Joo et al., 2014). Little empirical research has been conducted to integrate these dimensions particularly in a non-Western context (Joo et al., 2014) which in this case is the South African context. In these respects, this study contributes by integrating different study constructs and extending previous literature into the South African university context.

Lastly, the proposed model in this current study is unique in that it integrates and links turnover theories to migration as suggested by Brewer and Kovner (2014) and provides links that could be used as guidelines to effectively manage turnover intentions, migration intentions, and actual turnover in higher education institutions not only in South Africa but in other contexts as well. This study therefore contributes to the current literature on turnover theory and extends the discussion to merging predictors of turnover and migration in higher education contexts.

6.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are a number of practical implications offered in the current study particularly for policy makers, academic administrators, academics and higher education institutions under study as discussed in the earlier section above. However, a number of limitations that may have had a bearing on the interpretation of results of this research have been identified.

The first limitation relates to this study's design as I relied solely on self-report measures to collect data. The implication of exclusively using self-report measures is that information gathered cannot be independently verified because it is based on one's perception of the truth (Pantel, 2008). Another concern with self-report measures is that when two or more variables are assessed using similar methods, relationships tend to be inflated which may lead to misleading conclusions (Parker & Kulik, 1995). This concern and other limitations associated with the use of self-report measures, such as issues relating to reliability and validity were however managed through careful attention to the research processes as well as piloting (Callaghan, 2016). The use of a self-report measure in this study was therefore justified and followed precedent in studies of academics' turnover intentions (Joo et al., 2014).

Intention data rather than actual behaviour data was also used in the current study which limited the understanding of actual turnover and migration rates of academics in South African higher education institutions. Future research should go beyond the scope of the current study and use actual turnover and migration data instead of a self-report turnover and emigration intention measure to get an improved understanding of the extent to which higher education institutions in South Africa are impacted by actual turnover. This will also assist in understanding and identifying the extent to which these institutions are losing academics to other countries.

Secondly, this study solely relied on cross-sectional data rather than longitudinal data. This limitation meant that causality among variables studied could not be established. According to Feist et al. (1995), unless one incorporates the use of longitudinal or quasi-experimental research design, methodological short comings and issues concerning causality arise. Similarly, Mathers et al. (2009) noted that conducting a longitudinal rather

than a cross-sectional study is necessary for a researcher to claim causality. However, the objective of the current study was to test theory as the thesis falls in the category of theory-testing research (Hong et al., 2010). The implication of this is that causality could not be claimed. Future research could include longitudinal or quasi-experimental multi-method research designs which may assist in further establishing possible causal links among the variables under study.

A third limitation was the lack of generalisability of findings to other academic populations, settings, and beyond the current study. This is because the current study was limited to only full time academics at South African higher education institutions sampled. The use of convenience sampling which is a non-probability sampling procedure also limited generalisability. Further, of the 419 academics sampled, the majority were White academics (n=278) followed by Black academics (n=78). The different race groups at higher education institutions sampled were therefore not equally represented. This lack of sufficient representation posed limitations on my ability to derive general conclusions or draw inferences from this study's results other than for White and Black academic staff at the universities sampled. Therefore, results of the current study could only generalise to the extent to which other contexts share similarities with institutions studied. To ensure equal representation in the sample when conducting research, Maree (2004) suggested using stratified random sampling as a more appropriate selection technique. This technique however could not be used in the current study as I was not granted permission to sample academics in a number of faculties and departments which may have also positively impacted on representatively. The stratified random sampling technique could therefore be considered in future large scale research.

Further, a limitation to all studies of this nature (quantitative) is that they do not provide us with a full understanding of what the reasons behind withdrawal cognitions are. This implies that future research using qualitative methods may result in a deeper understanding into the origins of academics' withdrawal intentions. For example a grounded theory approach would enable researchers to explore how turnover and migration are interrelated so that aspects that I was unable to explore with the current study could be fully understood and explained. A fifth limitation relates to the instrument

that was used. The measure was filled in online at a single point in time which could have been a source of common method bias identified during data analysis.

Because of issues with the measure's validity, items in most scales in the study were reduced. For example, the satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa scale was reduced from having sixteen items to three items due to issues with convergent validity as indicated above. While results of the study showed that the validity and reliability of the three item scale was acceptable, it is possible that the focus of the original (full) measure may have been narrowed. Therefore, although the three item scale presents a low burden on participants, it is possible that certain satisfaction with quality of life issues applicable to some academics may have been removed and were not represented in the final scale (Pesudovs et al., 2004). As such, the impact of the removed items on quality of life may have been reduced to a focus on the three items. According to Cheung and Lucas (2014, p. 4) "different items may capture different features of the construct, resulting in a more valid composite measure" in a multiple item measure. However, the use of three items is not uncharacteristic and follows precedent in a study conducted by Lea et al. (2007) in which two to three items were used to measure each of the eight subscales in their study. Further, this scale is a rating scale, rather than a psychological-type scale, and there are many different aspects that may have reduced its convergent validity. In order to be able to assess its reliability, it was necessary reduced to a three-item scale. In addition, because the scale was initially designed for use in another country and adapted for use in this study, it is possible that it may not have fully captured all aspects of South African life.

The implication of this is that although results from the scale may be reliable, it is possible that there are different aspects of country related satisfaction in South Africa which were not measured. Future qualitative research may therefore consider developing the quality of life scale for use in the South African context or refining the current scale's operationalisation to include nuances that may fully capture the South African social, cultural, economic, and political context. At the time of pursing this study, an intensive review of literature suggested that this measure is yet to be developed in South Africa.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

One of this study's objectives was to examine the effect of core self-evaluations on academics' withdrawal intentions. Findings however raise a number of issues that could be considered in future research. For example, while core self-evaluations have been found to negatively impact turnover intentions in previous studies, no significant direct effect was found between the variable and academics' withdrawal intentions when tested in the presence of mediators and a moderator. In their study to investigate the perceived level of core self-evaluations, leader empowering behaviour, and job security among Jordan University Hospital nurses in Amman et al. (2021) concluded that enhancing the role of personality factors can have an effect on employees' job security and result in lower turnover intentions. Another study aimed at investigating the moderating effects of core self-evaluations on the relationship between work-family conflict and voluntary turnover concluded that employees with high core self-evaluations have lower degrees of voluntary turnover (Peltokorpi & Michel, 2021).

According to Ni and Wang (2015), employees with high core self-evaluations tend to react positively to different environments and perceive adverse information in a lower degree to maintain their positive attitudes. Hiller and Hambrick (2005) however argued that decision making may be detrimental for individuals with high levels of core self-evaluations as this may cause employees to make quick decisions with minimal analysis, ignore information that is negative, take unnecessary risks, and overestimate their abilities. Therefore, while the current study and previous studies (Booth et al., 2020; Grant & Wrzesniewski, 2010; Islam et al., 2020; Paulauskaitė et al., 2010) have provided some insight into core self-evaluations' effect on academics' intent to quit and intent to emigrate, additional research is needed to provide a more extensive understanding of the dynamics of these relationships.

Further, while this study's strength is in the integration of the migration variable into the turnover intention model, future research could investigate whether other personality traits other than core self-evaluations are associated with migration intentions. In addition, Brewer and Kovner (2014) argue that the future research agenda could examine and relate predictors of turnover across different countries to migration. Future research

could also include the use of new variables not included in the current study to further identify factors that lead to withdrawal cognitions and to advance theory.

Additional research could also be conducted to investigate and determine whether the proposed theoretical model in this study and findings can be generalised to other universities in South Africa and other contexts. Larger and more diverse academic samples could also be considered. Increasing the number of academic participants sampled may help future studies to gain a thorough understanding of the dynamics that lead to turnover and migration intentions in higher education institutions. Future research could further investigate characteristics of job design and characteristics of supervisors that lead to higher levels of supportiveness within the work place (Griffin et al., 2001).

According to Motala and Menon (2020), conflict, wars, and shocks to the socio-economic and political system bring about widespread changes in societies, hence questions are being raised on whether Covid-19 pandemic will transform universities. Therefore, while it is too early to anticipate the far-reaching impact that Covid-19 may have on the higher education institutions (Motala & Menon, 2020), a few Covid related questions for future research need to be considered. For example, to what extent does the Covid-19 pandemic impact academics' withdrawal cognitions? In particular, one may question the impact that the current shift in teaching and learning may have on academics within higher education institutions.

Dinu et al. (2021) argue that the sudden changes induced by the pandemic such as shifts in teaching modes may significantly impact the personal and professional lives of academics and worsen their well-being. Further, teaching from home may affect the manner in which academics perceive their relationship with institutions they are employed at (Dinu et al., 2021). Salmi's (2021) view was that the closure of labs due to travel restrictions had negatively impacted researchers' abilities to continue their experiments or field investigations. Hedding et al. (2020) however argued that a lesson that Covid-19 has perhaps taught us is that research is an important aspect across various spheres of higher education institutions and that academics need be innovative in the way that they conduct such research going forward.

6.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the current study's practical implications and recommendations for practice were considered first. In particular, practical implications of findings in this study were discussed and implications for policy makers, higher education institutions, academic leaders, and full-time academics in South Africa were highlighted. Theoretical implications as relates to his study's findings were discussed in the section that followed. The study's contributions to turnover and migration literature associated with current findings were highlighted. Limitations of the study were considered next after which recommendations for future research were discussed. A reflection on what it means to quit or migrate is provided in conclusion. In the following chapter, this study's conclusion is considered.

CHAPTER 7 - CONCLUSIONS

7 INTRODUCTION

Practical and theoretical implications and recommendations for future research were considered in the previous chapter. In the current chapter, I provide a summary and conclusion to the study. I also summarise limitations associated with derived findings, directions for future research, and how current findings may be interpreted.

7.1 CONCLUSION

A number of studies have been conducted to identify antecedents of academics' intent to quit within higher education contexts. However, there are conflicting theoretical explanations as to what the origins of these withdrawal intentions are. This study sought to fill this gap in literature. Findings from previous studies suggest that international migration is similar to turnover due to similar decision making processes associated with both concepts. While literature on organisational turnover has been linked to migration literature in a few studies, there seems to be no research that links turnover and migration theories in the South African higher education context. This study sought to test an integrated model that theoretically links turnover theory with migration literature to demonstrate that factors that impact academics' intent to quit are similar to those that impact their intent to emigrate.

In previous studies, a direct relationship between personality traits and withdrawal intentions has been found. However, other studies suggest that this relationship is influenced by important mediator and moderator variables. This study therefore also sought to investigate the direct impact that core self-evaluations has on academics' intent to quit, and intent to emigrate. Another objective was to investigate the role played by perceived organisational support and job satisfaction as channels through which core self-evaluations affect academics' withdrawal intentions. The moderating role played by satisfaction with quality of life on the core self-evaluations and intent to quit, and the core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate relationships was also investigated.

Considering literature which suggests that employees use their core self-evaluations as a

buffer to deal with negative or difficult work situations due to their positive work attitudes, it was expected that academics with high core self-evaluations would have lower intentions to quit, and to migrate. However, these hypotheses were not confirmed, It was also hypothesised that such employees would be robust to an unsupportive work context, and low work satisfaction such that their intention to quit and intention to migrate would be lower in comparison to those with low core self-evaluations. These hypotheses were confirmed.

As argued, core self-evaluations, job satisfaction, and perceived organisational support had a similar effect on both academics' intent to quit and intent to emigrate. The exception was satisfaction with quality of life which was found to mitigate the relationship between low core self-evaluations and intent to quit. This moderation relationship was not found to act on the core self-evaluations and intention to emigrate relationship. Results showed that core self-evaluations work through perceived organisational support to reduce both intent to quit and intent to emigrate. Similarly, core self-evaluations were found to work through job satisfaction to reduce both intent to quit and intent to emigrate.

These results are taken to suggest that academics with high core self-evaluations that are satisfied with their work and feel supported by their institutions are less likely to have withdrawal intentions. However, the finding that there is no significant relationship between core self-evaluations and intent to quit, and between core self-evaluations and intent to emigrate, when perceived organisational support and job satisfaction are controlled for was unexpected in that full mediation occurred. This result was taken to reflect conditions in real life, where all these effects act concurrently to reduce academics withdrawal intentions as reflected in the SEM model.

This study identifies perceived organisational support and job satisfaction as salient mediators in the core self-evaluation and withdrawal intentions' relationship. The variables are also identified as important job resources that reinforce core self-evaluations' effect on academics withdrawal intentions. Results from this study therefore highlight the importance of raising academics' job satisfaction and perceived organisational support by way of creating a supportive work environment in higher

education institutions. The finding that satisfaction with quality of life in South Africa buffers the impact of low core self-evaluations on academics' withdrawal intentions contributes to the knowledge and literature suggesting that external factors and individual characteristics interact to mitigate behavioural intentions within the workplace.

By developing and testing a turnover model that integrates intent to quit and intent to emigrate, this study contributes to the understanding of inclusive factors that affect academics' leaving intentions. This study also extends earlier turnover and migration research by confirming that predictors of turnover intentions and migration intentions are similar. Results of this study will also assist in understanding and identifying the underlying reasons to why South African higher education institutions are losing academics to other countries. Findings in this study may help in understanding the different factors associated with academic intent to quit and intent to emigrate.

Results derived from the current study have implications for university administrators in that they may help in aiding understanding of factors that influence academics' withdrawal cognitions in higher education institutions in South Africa. The suggestion put forward is that policy makers and academic leaders need to have collaborative communications with academics which may help identify contextualised factors to increase their job satisfaction and perceived organisational support. If academics feel involved and supported, they may take ownership of policies, interventions and academic programmes that affect their professional well-being. Academic administrators could provide academics with professional development and appropriate support programmes which may aid in reducing the number of academics intending to leave or migrate.

Findings and conclusions in this study should be interpreted with caution considering the number of limitations listed under the limitation section. This study should be viewed as a foundation for further studies linking antecedents of withdrawal intentions within higher education institutions. It is recommended that the work here be extended to a large scale study to understand the extent to which universities in South Africa are losing academics to other institutions and other countries. A better understanding of specific factors associated with academics' withdrawal intentions may be key to retaining staff. Knowledge of these factors may also lead to improved insights into the development of

effective policies to better manage the turnover and migration of academics within higher education institutions in South Africa.

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9 APPENDICES

9.1 UNIVERSITY CERTIFICATES OF CLEARANCE

9.1.1 The University of the Witwatersrand

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Callaghan

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**PROTOCOL NUMBER: H19/06/05**
PROJECT TITLE	South Africa academics' intent to quit and intent to emigrate: An integration of turnover and emigration theories
INVESTIGATOR(S)	Mrs N Callaghan
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT	Human and Community Development/
DATE CONSIDERED	21 June 2019
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved Permission letters from all institutions are required before data collection can commence
EXPIRY DATE	23 July 2022

DATE 24 July 2019 **CHAIRPERSON** J-Knight (Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Professor K Milner

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10004, 10th Floor, Senate House, University. Unreported changes to the application may invalidate the clearance given by the HREC (Non-Medical)

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee. **I agree to completion of a yearly progress report.**

Signature

30/07/2019
Date

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

9.1.2 The Univesity of Pretoria

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Health Sciences

Institution: The Research Ethics Committee, Faculty Health Sciences, University of Pretoria complies with ICH-GCP guidelines and has US Federal wide Assurance.
- FWA 00002567, Approved dd 22 May 2002 and Expires 03/20/2022.
- IORG #: IORG0001762 OMB No. 0990-0279 Approved for use through February 28, 2022 and Expires: 03/04/2023.

28 May 2020

Approval Certificate
New Application

Ethics Reference No.: 145/2020
Title: Academics' Intent to Quit and Intent to Emigrate: An Integration of Turnover and Emigration Theories

Dear N Callaghan

The **New Application** as supported by documents received between 2020-04-29 and 2020-05-27 for your research, was approved by the Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee on its quorate meeting of 2020-05-27.

Please note the following about your ethics approval:
- Ethics Approval is valid for 1 year and needs to be renewed annually by 2021-05-28.
- Please remember to use your protocol number (145/2020) on any documents or correspondence with the Research Ethics Committee regarding your research.
- Please note that the Research Ethics Committee may ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modification, monitor the conduct of your research, or suspend or withdraw ethics approval.

Ethics approval is subject to the following:
- The ethics approval is conditional on the research being conducted as stipulated by the details of all documents submitted

to the Committee. In the event that a further need arises to change who the investigators are, the methods or any other aspect, such changes must be submitted as an Amendment for approval by the Committee.
We wish you the best with your research.
Yours sincerely

Dr R Sommers
MBChB MMed (Int) MPharmMed PhD
Deputy Chairperson of the Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee, University of Pretoria
The Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee complies with the SA National Act 61 of 2003 as it pertains to health research and the United States Code of
Federal Regulations Title 45 and 46. This committee abides by the ethical norms and principles for research, established by the Declaration of Helsinki, the South African
Medical Research Council Guidelines as well as the Guidelines for Ethical Research: Principles Structures and Processes, Second Edition 2015 (Department of Health)

Research Ethics Committee
Room 4-60, Level 4, Tswelopele Building
University of Pretoria, Private Bag x323
Gezina 0031, South Africa
Tel +27 (0)12 356 3084
Email: deepeka.behari@up.ac.za
www.up.ac.za

Fakulteit Gesondheidswetenskappe
Lefapha la Disaense tša Maphelo

9.1.3 Cape Town University

Humanities Postgraduate and Research Office University of Cape Town
Humanities Faculty Ethics in Research Committee
Room 104, Beattie
Private Bag X3 Rondebosch 7701 Tel: +27 (0) 21 650 3718
E-mail: zam.ndzotyana@uct.ac.za Humaniti

3 September 2019

Ref. No.: HUMREC201909-03

Natasha Callaghan
School of Human and Community Development,
University of the Witwatersrand Johannesburg

Dear Natasha

RE: Ethical Clearance for Research Project

I am pleased to inform you that ethical clearance has been granted to conduct your research project at the University of Cape Town by an Ethics Review Committee of the Faculty of Humanities, entitled: "Academics' Intent to Quit and Intent to Emigrate: An Integration of Turnover and Emigration Theories".

Yours sincerely,



A/Professor Frank Matose
Chair, Humanities Faculty Research Ethics Committee

9.1.4 **University of Fort Hare**

University of Fort Hare
OFFICE OF UNIVERSITY REGISTRAR
Alice (main) Campus:
Private Bag X1314, King William's Town Road, Alice, 5700, RSA
Tel: +27 (0) 40 602 - 2501 • Fax: +27 (0) 40 602 - 2577
Email: nmabindisa@ufh.ac.za

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

20 August 2019

Ms Natasha Callaghan
University of Witwatersrand
School of Human and Community Development
tasha.postbox@gmail.com
072 9365575

Dear Ms Callaghan

Approval from the Registrar's Office to Conduct Research

In accordance with the University of University of Fort Hare Research Ethics Policy and Practice, I hereby grant permission for Ms N Callaghan to conduct research relating to her thesis "South Africa academics' intent to quit and intent to emigrate: An integration of turnover and emigration theories".

We look forward to reading the research report.

Kind regards

Prof P Osode
Interim University Registrar

Bhisho Campus: P. O Box 1153, KWT 5600, Independence Avenue , Bhisho, 5600, RSA
Tel: +27 (0) 40 608 - 3407 • Fax: +27 (0) 40 608 - 3408

East London Campus: Private Bag X9083, EL 5200, 50 Church Street, East London, 5201, RSA
Tel: +27 (0) 43 704 - 7000 • Fax: +27 (0) 43 704 - 7095
V/C Dial Up: +27 (0) 43 704 - 7143/ 7144

www.ufh.ac.za

9.1.5 **University of the Free State**



Office of the Vice-Rector: Research and Internationalisation
Kantoor van die Viserektor: Navorsing en Internasionalisering

12-Aug-2019

Dear admincheck RIMS

UFS AUTHORITIES APPROVAL

Research Project Title:
SOUTH AFRICAN ACADEMICS' INTENT TO QUIT AND INTENT TO EMIGRATE: AN INTEGRATION OF TURNOVER AND EMIGRATION THEORIES

This letter serves as confirmation that your request to collect data from students and/or staff members at the University of the Free State for your research project has been approved.

Kind Regards



PROF RC WITTHUHN
VICE-RECTOR: RESEARCH & INTERNATIONALISATION
CHAIR: SENATE RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

9.2 PARTICIPANT INVITATION LETTER

School of Human & Community Development
University of the Witwatersrand
Private Bag 3, Wits, 2050
Tel: 011 717 4503 Fax: 011 717 4559

Good afternoon……,

My name is Natasha Chomba and I am a student from the University of the Witwatersrand. I am currently registered for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, which I am completing by thesis in the Faculty of Humanities. Having obtained permissions from the Wits University ethics committee and the University of the Free State ethics committee (see attached documents), I would like to invite you to take part in an online survey, on this link:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/RSFF8GV. It should take you approximately 10-15 minutes to complete.

The objective of the research is to derive much needed knowledge on how to improve retention of academic staff at South African universities. It is for academic publication purposes only and is entitled "Aacademics' Intent to Quit and Intent to Emigrate: An Integration of Turnover and Emigration Theories". This project will be conducted under the supervision of Professor Karen Milner (University of the Witwatersrand). This survey is both confidential and anonymous. Your responses will not be reported back to any institution and your participation is completely voluntary and involves no risk. You will not receive any direct benefits from participating in this research, and there are no disadvantages or penalties for not participating. You may withdraw at any stage or not answer any question if you do not want to.

The results of the study will be reported in my thesis, which will be written up as a research report and will be available online through the Witwatersrand university library website. Completed questionnaires will be stored on my own password protected hard-drive for further analysis. I undertake to conduct myself and my research in a manner that reflects the professional ethics of the university.

If you have any queries during or afterwards regarding this research or any other aspect of the study, feel free to contact me or my supervisor, Professor Karen Milner, on the email addresses or

telephone numbers listed below. If you have any concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this study, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical), telephone +27(0) 11 717 1408, email Shaun.Schoeman@wits.ac.za.

Yours sincerely,

Natasha Chomba Callaghan
tasha.postbox@gmail.com

Prof. Karen Milner
Karen.Milner@wits.ac.za

9.3 QUESTIONNAIRE

9.3.1 Intention to quit scale

Instructions: Below are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale below, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item by placing a tick in the appropriate box.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly Disagree- Disagree -Neutral Agree - Agree - Strongly Agree

1. I often think about leaving my job.

Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

2. I intend to leave within the next 6 months.

Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

3. I am starting to ask my friends and contacts about other job opportunities.

Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

4. I often look to see if lecturer positions in other universities are open.

Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

5. I am thinking about (placing my CV on an online job website) contacting a recruiting agency about other job possibilities.

Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

9.3.2 Intention to emigrate

Instructions: Below are a number of statements about you, with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale below, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly Disagree- Disagree -Neutral Agree - Strongly Agree

1. I have a desire to leave South Africa.

Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	

2. I want to help South Africa prosper.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

3. I am proud to be a South African.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

4. I feel very little loyalty to this country.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

5. I would miss this country if I emigrated.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

6. I talk about this country with pride.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

7. I am positive about the future of South Africa.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

8. I would emigrate despite financial cost.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

9. I would emigrate, even though the Rand is weak.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

10. I would sacrifice my standard of living in order to emigrate.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

11. I would sacrifice my lifestyle in order to emigrate.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

12. I would like to emigrate but I cannot because of the costs involved.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

13. I would like to emigrate but I cannot because of family commitments.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

14. I would emigrate because I believe that my career prospects overseas are good.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

15. I think that my quality of life would be better overseas

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

16. I find that living in South Africa involves too many drawbacks.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

17. I view emigration as an alternative to living in the country with a high crime rate.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

18. . I feel forced to emigrate due to conditions in South Africa

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

19. . I would advise an emigrant from South Africa to return.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

20. . I frequently discuss emigration with my family.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

21. . I frequently discuss emigration with my colleagues.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

22. . I have taken steps toward emigration.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

23. . I am very likely to emigrate.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

9.3.3 **The core self-evaluation scale**

Instructions: Below are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale below, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly Disagree- Disagree -Neutral Agree - Strongly Agree

1. I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

2. Sometimes I feel depressed. (r)

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

3. When I try, I generally succeed.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

4. Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless. (r)

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

5. I complete tasks successfully.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

6. Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work. (r)

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

7. Overall, I am satisfied with myself.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

8. I am filled with doubts about my competence. (r)

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

9. I determine what will happen in my life.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

10. I do not feel in control of my success in my studies. (r)

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

11. I am capable of coping with most of my problems.

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

12. There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me. (r)

Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5

9.3.4 **Satisfaction with quality of life**

On a scale of 1 (“very satisfied”), 2 (“satisfied”), 3 (“neither satisfied nor dissatisfied”), 4 (“dissatisfied”) and 5 (“very dissatisfied”), please tick a box that applies to you to indicate your satisfaction levels with the following 11 factors in your country of current.

1. Level of taxation

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied

2. Cost of Living

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied

3. The upkeep of public amenities

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied

4. Your family's safety

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied

5. Your personal safety

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied

6. The relative share of tax paid in comparison to others

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied

7. Customer service

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied

8. Level of income

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied

9. Your prospects for professional development

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied

10. The availability of affordable/quality products

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied

11. The ability to find a good school for your children

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied

12. Security of your job

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied

13. With your job

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied

14. The ability to find the house you wanted

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied

15. The ability to find medical services for your family

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied

16. Government policy on medical services in the future

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied

9.3.5 **Perceived organisational support**

Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about working at your institution. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by ticking a box that best represents your point of view about your institution. Please choose from 1 strongly disagree to 7 strongly agree.

1. My university takes pride in my accomplishments.

Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree

2. The institution really cares about my well-being.

Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree

3. The institution values my contribution to its well-being.

Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree

4. The institution strongly considers my goals and values.

Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree

5. The institution shows very little concern for me. (R).

Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree

6. The institution is willing to help me if I need a special favour.

Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree

9.3.6 **Overall job satisfaction**

Instructions: Below are 6 statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale below, indicate your level of disagreement or agreement with each item by ticking the appropriate box.

(1) Strongly Disagree- (2) Disagree – (3) Undecided – (4) Agree – (5) Strongly Agree

1. I am often bored with my job (R)

Strongly disagree						Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

2. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job

Strongly disagree ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

3. I am satisfied with my job for the time being

Strongly disagree ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

4. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work

Strongly disagree ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

5. I like my job better than the average worker does

Strongly disagree ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

6. I find real enjoyment in my work

Strongly disagree ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

9.3.7 **Social desirability–gamma short scale**

Instructions: The following statements may apply more or less to you personally. Please indicate your level of disagreement or agreement with each item by ticking the appropriate box.

(1) Strongly Disagree – (2) Disagree – (3) Undecided – (4) Agree – (5) Strongly Agree

1. In an argument, I always remain objective and stick to the facts.

Strongly disagree ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

2. Even if I am feeling stressed, I am always friendly and polite to others.

Strongly disagree ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

3. When talking to someone, I always listen carefully to what the other person says.

Strongly disagree ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

4. It has happened that I have taken advantage of someone in the past.

Strongly disagree ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

5. I have occasionally thrown litter away in the countryside or on to the road.

Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	

6. Sometimes I only help people if I expect to get something in return.

Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	

9.3.8 **Demographic Questions**

Following are several questions about you, your background, and the place where you work. These questions are important because they help us to see if different types of people respond to the questions on the questionnaire in different ways. They are NOT used to identify any individual.

1. How old are you? _____ years.

2. What is your gender? (please tick) □Male □Female □Other □Rather not say

3. Where you born in South Africa? □Yes □No

If not, how many years have you lived in South Africa? _____

5. Besides your country of birth, how many other countries have you lived in for longer than one year?_____ countries

6. What language/s was/were spoken in your home when you were a child?

_____(language/s)

7. What would you describe as your ethnic origin?

Black	Coloured	White	Indian/Asian
Chinese	Other (please specify)		

8. How many years of full-time work experience do you have? _____year/s

9. How many years have you been an academic at your current institution?

_____year/s

10. Do you research more than you teach? □Yes □No □About the same

11. What is your highest educational qualification?

Matric	Bachelor's Degree	Honours Degree	Master's Degree	Ph.D.	M.D.	Other (please specify)

12. What is your job title? (Please tick):

□ Mr/Ms □Dr □ Associate Professor □ Assistant Professor □ Professor □Adjunct Professor, □Associate Lecturer □ Lecturer □ Other (please specify) _____

13. Are you in management? □Yes □No □Rather not say

14. What is your relationship status?

Married	Engaged	Widowed	Divorced	Separated	Staying with partner	Single	Rather not say	Other (please specify

15. How many dependents do you support in your family? _____

16. At what institutional level do you teach?

Undergraduates	Postgraduate	Both	Other (please specify)

17. What is your average class size? _____

18. Do you have an NRF (National Research Foundation) rating? □Yes □No □Rather not say

19. At what University are you employed? _____

The University of the Witwatersrand	University of Fort Hare	University of Cape Town	University of KwaZulu-Natal	University of Free State	Central University of Technology	University of Pretoria

20. Are you a full time employee at your institution? □Yes □No □Other (Please specify)

9.4 REPORTING OF FURTHER STATISTICS

9.4.1 **Standardised Direct Effects**

	CSE and SWQL	SD	CSE	SWQL	JS	POS
Job Satisfaction	0	0.032	0.424	0	0	0
Perceived Organisational Support	0	0.007	0.461	0	0	0
Intent to Emigrate	-0.068	0.102	-0.049	0.057	-0.208	-0.166
Intent to Quit	-0.222	0.139	0.151	0.011	-0.28	-0.292

9.4.2 **Standardised Total Effects**

	CSE and SWQL	SD	CSE	SWQL	JS	POS
Job Satisfaction	0	0.032	0.424	0	0	0
Perceived Organisational Support	0	0.007	0.461	0	0	0

Intent to Emigrate	-0.068	0.094	-0.214	0.057	-0.208	-0.166
Intent to Quit	-0.222	0.128	-0.102	0.011	-0.28	-0.292

9.4.3 **Covariances**

Parameter			Estimate	Lower	Upper	P
CSE	<-->	Age	1.362	0.351	2.411	0.008
CSE	<-->	Gender	0.074	0.02	0.123	0.002
CSE	<-->	Dependents	0.181	-0.016	0.367	0.074
CSE	<-->	SD	0.126	0.072	0.184	0.001
Dependents	<-->	SD	0.015	-0.064	0.091	0.695
Gender	<-->	Dependents	0.113	0.036	0.195	0.002
Age	<-->	Dependents	0.951	-0.649	2.547	0.242
Age	<-->	Gender	-0.029	-0.514	0.461	0.907
Gender	<-->	SD	-0.011	-0.033	0.014	0.372
Age	<-->	SD	0.588	0.116	1.086	0.015
SWQL	<-->	CSE	0.321	0.213	0.423	0.001
SWQL	<-->	Age	-0.826	-1.744	0.038	0.063
SWQL	<-->	Gender	0.039	-0.004	0.083	0.078
SWQL	<-->	Dependents	-0.295	-0.486	-0.129	0.001
SWQL	<-->	SD	-0.02	-0.066	0.028	0.406
Age	<-->	CSE and SWQL	0.175	-3.603	3.989	0.904
Gender	<-->	CSE and SWQL	0.263	0.071	0.456	0.008
Dependents	<-->	CSE and SWQL	-0.59	-1.291	0.038	0.067
SD	<-->	CSE and SWQL	0.235	0.026	0.473	0.024
CSE	<-->	CSE and SWQL	3.307	2.91	3.709	0.001
SWQL	<-->	CSE and SWQL	3.074	2.703	3.537	0.001

9.4.4 **Frequences**

FREQUENCIES					
Gender Male =1 Female =0					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	226	53.9	53.9	53.9
	1	193	46.1	46.1	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Rather Not Say =1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	417	99.5	99.5	99.5
	1	2	0.5	0.5	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Born in SA =1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	118	28.2	28.2	28.2
	1	301	71.8	71.8	100
	Total	419	100	100	
English =1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	175	41.8	41.8	41.8
	1	244	58.2	58.2	100
	Total	419	100	100	
English Afrikaans =1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	355	84.7	84.7	84.7
	1	64	15.3	15.3	100
	Total	419	100	100	

Afrikaans =1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	285	68	68	68
	1	134	32	32	100
	Total	419	100	100	
South African Languages =1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	375	89.5	89.5	89.5
	1	44	10.5	10.5	100
	Total	419	100	100	
African Languages =1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	347	82.8	82.8	82.8
	1	72	17.2	17.2	100
	Total	419	100	100	
European languages =1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	376	89.7	89.7	89.7
	1	41	9.8	9.8	99.5
	2	1	0.2	0.2	99.8
	3	1	0.2	0.2	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Black =1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	341	81.4	81.4	81.4
	1	78	18.6	18.6	100

	Total	419	100	100	
White =1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	132	31.5	31.5	31.5
	1	287	68.5	68.5	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Mixed Race = 1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	407	97.1	97.1	97.1
	1	12	2.9	2.9	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Indian Asian =1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	391	93.3	93.3	93.3
	1	28	6.7	6.7	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Race other =1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	404	96.4	96.4	96.4
	1	15	3.6	3.6	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Research More =1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	309	73.7	73.7	73.7
	1	110	26.3	26.3	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Teach more = 1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	237	56.6	56.6	56.6

	1	182	43.4	43.4	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Equally Research and Teach = 1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	293	69.9	69.9	69.9
	1	126	30.1	30.1	100
	Total	419	100	100	
PhD=1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	105	25.1	25.1	25.1
	1	314	74.9	74.9	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Masters =1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	316	75.4	75.4	75.4
	1	103	24.6	24.6	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Honours =1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	418	99.8	99.8	99.8
	1	1	0.2	0.2	100
	Total	419	100	100	
JobTtRank					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Associate Lecturer	7	1.7	2.1	2.1
	2 Mr., Mrs., Doctor or Lecturer	113	27	33.2	35.3
	3 Senior Lecturer	54	12.9	15.9	51.2
	4Adjunct Professor and	85	20.3	25	76.2

	Associate Professor				
	5 Professor	81	19.3	23.8	100
	Total	340	81.1	100	
Missing	System	79	18.9		
Total		419	100		
In Management = 1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	359	85.7	85.7	85.7
	1	60	14.3	14.3	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Married					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	165	39.4	39.4	39.4
	1	254	60.6	60.6	100
	Total	419	100	100	
StayWithPartner = 1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	373	89	89	89
	1	46	11	11	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Divorced = 1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	401	95.7	95.7	95.7
	1	18	4.3	4.3	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Single = 1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	344	82.1	82.1	82.1
	1	75	17.9	17.9	100
	Total	419	100	100	

Separated =					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	415	99	99	99
	1	4	1	1	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Rather Not Say = 1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	411	98.1	98.1	98.1
	1	8	1.9	1.9	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Engaged					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	411	98.1	98.1	98.1
	1	8	1.9	1.9	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Widow					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	419	100	100	100
Rather not Say/Other = 1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	415	99	99	99
	1	4	1	1	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Lecture Post Graduate=1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	357	85.2	85.2	85.2
	1	62	14.8	14.8	100

	Total	419	100	100	
Lecture Under Graduate=1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	372	88.8	88.8	88.8
	1	47	11.2	11.2	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Lecture both at Post Graduate and Under Graduate=1					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	111	26.5	26.5	26.5
	1	308	73.5	73.5	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Over100cs					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	223	53.2	53.2	53.2
	1	192	45.8	45.8	99
	6	1	0.2	0.2	99.3
	8	3	0.7	0.7	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Over200cs					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	286	68.3	68.3	68.3
	1	129	30.8	30.8	99
	5	1	0.2	0.2	99.3
	8	3	0.7	0.7	100

	Total	419	100	100	
Over300cs					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	340	81.1	81.1	81.1
	1	79	18.9	18.9	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Over400cs					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	371	88.5	88.5	88.5
	1	47	11.2	11.2	99.8
	10	1	0.2	0.2	100
	Total	419	100	100	
NRF Rated					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	297	70.9	70.9	70.9
	1	122	29.1	29.1	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Wits					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	195	46.5	46.5	46.5
	1	224	53.5	53.5	100
	Total	419	100	100	
UP					
		Freque	Perc	Valid	Cumulative

		ncy	ent	Percent	Percent
Valid	0	291	69.5	69.5	69.5
	1	128	30.5	30.5	100
	Total	419	100	100	
UCT					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	373	89	89	89
	1	46	11	11	100
	Total	419	100	100	
UFH					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	413	98.6	98.6	98.6
	1	6	1.4	1.4	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Central University of Technology					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	416	99.3	99.3	99.3
	1	3	0.7	0.7	100
	Total	419	100	100	
Fulltime					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	419	100	100	100
Dependents					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	127	30.3	30.3	30.3
	1	85	20.3	20.3	50.6

	2	102	24.3	24.3	74.9
	3	55	13.1	13.1	88.1
	4	34	8.1	8.1	96.2
	5	8	1.9	1.9	98.1
	6	2	0.5	0.5	98.6
	7	3	0.7	0.7	99.3
	8	1	0.2	0.2	99.5
	11	1	0.2	0.2	99.8
	12	1	0.2	0.2	100
	Total	419	100	100	

9.4.5 **Outliers and extreme values**

Extreme Values				
			Case Number	Value
Age	Highest	1	277	70
		2	310	69
		3	206	67
		4	5	65
		5	53	65a
	Lowest	1	274	26
		2	208	26
		3	254	27
		4	400	28
		5	394	28b
Years of Work Experience	Highest	1	175	45
		2	277	45
		3	287	45
		4	16	44
		5	415	43
	Lowest	1	113	1
		2	412	2
		3	313	2
		4	232	2
		5	181	2.00c
Years At Institution	Highest	1	206	42

		2	75	38
		3	289	38
		4	297	37
		5	390	36
	Lowest	1	181	0.18
		2	342	0.7
		3	21	0.75
		4	105	0.8
		5	325	0.9
Avarage Class Size	Highest	1	312	1100
		2	37	900
		3	38	900
		4	342	900
		5	241	850
	Lowest	1	44	0
		2	57	3
		3	341	5
		4	153	5
		5	124	5d
Dependents	Highest	1	58	12
		2	99	11
		3	373	8
		4	10	7
		5	320	7e
	Lowest	1	413	0
		2	412	0
		3	407	0
		4	403	0
		5	394	0f

9.4.6 **Validity Results Table**

Observed Item	Unstandardised Estimates	Standardised	Sqared loadings	Sumof Squared Loadings	AVE Sum Of Squared/ Number Of Items	Delta 1-squared estimate	Sum of Delta	SumOf Loadings	Squared Sumof Loadings	CR denominator (sum of loadings squared + sum of delta)	CR Sum of loadings squared/CR denominator
SL8	,900	,653	0.426409			0.573591					
SL10	,792	,620	0.3844			0.6156					
SL2	**1,000**	**,677**	**0.458329**	**1.269138**	**0.423046**	**0.541671**	**1.730862**	**1.95**	**3.8025**	**5.533362**	**0.687195**
CSE4	,781	,668	0.446224			0.553776			0	0	#DIV/0!
CSE6	,790	,690	0.4761			0.5239			0	0	#DIV/0!
CSE7	,419	,512	0.262144			0.737856			0	0	#DIV/0!
CSE8	,705	,651	0.423801			0.576199			0	0	#DIV/0!
CSE9	,517	,574	0.329476			0.670524			0	0	#DIV/0!
CSE10	,719	,655	0.429025			0.570975			0	0	#DIV/0!
CSE11	,318	,513	0.263169			0.736831			0	0	#DIV/0!
CSE12	**,740**	**,671**	**0.450241**	**3.08018**	**0.385023**	**0.549759**	**4.91982**	**4.934**	**24.34436**	**29.26418**	**0.831883**
POS1	,841	,811	0.657721			0.342279			0	0	#DIV/0!
POS2	1,000	,932	0.868624			0.131376			0	0	#DIV/0!
POS3	,976	,905	0.819025			0.180975			0	0	#DIV/0!
POS4	,967	,925	0.855625			0.144375			0	0	#DIV/0!
POS5	,913	,863	0.744769			0.255231			0	0	#DIV/0!
POS6	**,628**	**,664**	**0.440896**	**4.38666**	**0.73111**	**0.559104**	**1.61334**	**5.1**	**26.01**	**27.62334**	**0.941595**
ITQ2	,751	,668	0.446224			0.553776			0	0	#DIV/0!
ITQ4	1,000	,679	0.461041			0.538959			0	0	#DIV/0!
ITQ5	**,983**	**,775**	**0.600625**	**1.50789**	**0.50263**	**0.399375**	**1.49211**	**2.122**	**4.502884**	**5.994994**	**0.751107**
ITE1	1,000	,806	0.649636			0.350364			0	0	#DIV/0!
ITE3	,472	,493	0.243049			0.756951			0	0	#DIV/0!
ITE7	,608	,568	0.322624			0.677376			0	0	#DIV/0!
ITE9	,975	,836	0.698896			0.301104			0	0	#DIV/0!
ITE11	,877	,787	0.619369			0.380631			0	0	#DIV/0!
ITE14	,744	,644	0.414736			0.585264			0	0	#DIV/0!
ITE15	,733	,624	0.389376			0.610624			0	0	#DIV/0!
ITE16	,700	,691	0.477481			0.522519			0	0	#DIV/0!
ITE18	,959	,797	0.635209			0.364791			0	0	#DIV/0!
ITE21	,647	,590	0.3481			0.6519			0	0	#DIV/0!
ITE23	**,941**	**,828**	**0.685584**	**5.48406**	**0.498551**	**0.314416**	**5.51594**	**7.664**	**58.7369**	**64.25284**	**0.914153**
JS3	,589	,579	0.335241			0.664759			0	0	#DIV/0!
JS4	1,000	,879	0.772641			0.227359			0	0	#DIV/0!
JS5	,778	,761	0.579121			0.420879			0	0	#DIV/0!
JS1	,829	,609	0.370881			0.629119			0	0	#DIV/0!
JS6	**,925**	**,872**	**0.760384**	**2.818268**	**0.563654**	**0.239616**	**2.181732**	**3.7**	**13.69**	**15.87173**	**0.86254**

9.4.7 **Cross tabulation: A comparison of intent to quit and intent to emigrate levels for academics**

INTENT TO QUIT BY GENDER

QUIT	FEMALE	MALE	
DISAGREE	198 = 88%	152 =79 %	
NEUTRAL	26= 11 %	32 = 16 %	
AGREE	2 = 1%	9 = 5%	
TOTAL	226 =100%	193 = 100%	
Overall	Disagree = 350=83%	Neutral = 58=14%	Agree = 11 = 3%

INTENT TO EMIGRATE BY GENDER

EMIGRAET	FEMALE	MALE	
DISAGREE	106 = 47 %	81= 42 %	
NEUTRAL	76= 34%	79 = 41%	
AGREE	44 = 19%	33 = 17%	
TOTAL	226 =100%	193=100%	
Overall	Disagree = 187=45%	Neutral =155=37%	Agree=77=18%

INTENT TO EMIGRATE ALL UNIVERSITIES

EMIGRATE	OTHER	WITS	UP	UCT
DISAGREE	6= 29%	100 = 45%	57 = 45%	24 = 52.2%
NEUTRAL	12 = 57 %	82 = 36%	44 = 34 %	17 = 37%
AGREE	3 = 14 %	42= 19%	27= 21. %	5 = 11%
TOTAL	21 = 100%	224 = 100%	128 = 100%	46 = 100%
Overall	Disagree = 187=45%	Neutral = 155=37%	Agree 77 = 18%	

INTENT TO QUIT ALL UNIVERSITIES

QUIT	OTHER	WITS	UP	UCT
DISAGREE	16= 76.2%	176 = 79%	116 = 91%	42= 91%
NEUTRAL	4 = 19 %	38 = 17%	12 = 9%	4 = 9%
AGREE	1= 5 %	10= 4%	0= 0 %	0 = 0%
TOTAL	21 = 100%	224 = 100%	128 = 100%	46= 100%
Overall	Disagree = 350=83%	Neutral = 58=14%	Agree= 11 = 3%	

INTENT TO QUIT BY RACE

QUIT	OTHER	BLACK	WHITE
DISAGREE	48 = 90%	61 =78 %	241 = 84%
NEUTRAL	4 = 7%	14 = 18%	40 = 14%
AGREE	2 = 3%	3 = 4%	6 = 2%
TOTAL	54 = 100% 21 = 100%	78 = 100%	287 = 100%
Overall	Disagree = 350=83%	Neutral = 58=14%	Agree= 11 = 3%

INTENT TO EMIGRATE BY RACE

EMIGRATE	OTHER	BLACK	WHITE
DISAGREE	26 = 48 %	42 = 54%	119 = 41%
NEUTRAL	23= 43%	23 = 29 %	109 = 39%
AGREE	5 = 9 %	13 =17%	59 = 20%
TOTAL	54 = 100%	78 = 100%	287 = 100%
Overall	Disagree = 187=45%	Neutral = 155=37%	Agree= 77 = 18%

9.4.8 **COVARIANCES**

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
CoreSelEvaluations	<-->	Age	1,347	,549	2,453	,014	
CoreSelEvaluations	<-->	Gender	,074	,026	2,793	,005	
CoreSelEvaluations	<-->	Dependents	,180	,087	2,058	,040	
CoreSelEvaluations	<-->	SocialDesirability	,127	,026	4,842	***	
Dependents	<-->	SocialDesirability	,015	,040	,380	,704	
Gender	<-->	Dependents	,113	,040	2,794	,005	
Age	<-->	Dependents	,951	,832	1,143	,253	
Age	<-->	Gender	-,029	,252	-,114	,909	
Gender	<--	SocialDesirability	-,011	,012	-,877	,38	

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
	>					1	
Age	<-->	SocialDesirability	,588	,254	2,316	,021	
SatisfactionwithLife	<-->	CoreSelEvaluations	,339	,046	7,299	***	
SatisfactionwithLife	<-->	Age	-,820	,449	-1,825	,068	
SatisfactionwithLife	<-->	Gender	,039	,022	1,805	,071	
SatisfactionwithLife	<-->	Dependents	-,296	,073	-4,050	***	
SatisfactionwithLife	<-->	SocialDesirability	-,020	,022	-,941	,347	
Age	<-->	CoreplusSatisfaction	,175	2,040	,086	,931	
Gender	<-->	CoreplusSatisfaction	,263	,099	2,654	,008	
Dependents	<-->	CoreplusSatisfaction	-,590	,326	-1,814	,070	
SocialDesirabilityF	<-->	CoreplusSatisfaction	,235	,099	2,371	,018	
CoreSelEvaluations	<-->	CoreplusSatisfaction	3,378	,167	20,194	***	
SatisfactionwithLife	<-->	CoreplusSatisfaction	3,035	,251	12,076	***	
SocialDesirabilityF	<-->	BorninSA	-,002	,011	-,198	,843	
Dependents	<-->	BorninSA	-,180	,037	-4,848	***	
Gender	<-->	BorninSA	-,052	,011	-4,591	***	
Age	<-->	BorninSA	-,776	,231	-3,366	***	
CoreSelEvaluations	<-->	BorninSA	-,071	,024	-2,962	,003	
SatisfactionwithLife	<-->	BorninSA	-,027	,019	-1,397	,162	
CoreplusSatisfaction	<-->	BorninSA	-,219	,089	-2,452	,014	
SocialDesirabilityF	<-->	Race	-,012	,011	-1,093	,275	
Dependents	<-->	Race	-,273	,040	-6,886	***	
Gender	<-->	Race	-,015	,011	-1,304	,192	

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Age	<-->	Race	,775	,238	3,258	,001	
BorninSA	<-->	Race	,033	,010	3,189	,001	
CoreplusSatisfaction	<-->	Race	,017	,092	,182	,856	
CoreSelEvaluations	<-->	Race	-,076	,025	-3,088	,002	
SatisfactionwithLife	<-->	Race	,056	,020	2,743	,006	

9.4.9 **Total Effects Two tailed Significance**

	Core Self-Evaluations	**Satisfaction with Quality of Life**	**Job Satisfaction**	**Perceived Organisational Support**
JobSatisfaction	,008	,011	...	...
Perceived Organisational Support	,032	,278	...	...
Intent to Emigrate	,009	,086	,012	,022
Intent to Quit	,019	,225	,015	,009

9.4.10 **Standardised Total Effect Lower Bound**

	Core Self-Evaluations	**Satisfaction with Life**	**Job Satisfaction**	**Perceived Organisational Support**
Job Satisfaction	,504	-,306	,000	,000
Perceived Organisational Support	,345	-,242	,000	,000
Intent to Emigrate	-,454	-,018	-,380	-,266
Intent to Quit	-,480	-,053	-,439	-,441

9.4.11 **Standardised Total Effect Upper Bound**

	Core Self-Evaluations	**Satisfaction with Life**	**Job Satisfaction**	**Perceived Organisational Support**
Job Satisfaction	,848	-,083	,000	,000
Perceived Organisational Support	,779	,112	,000	,000
Intent to Emigrate	-,037	,205	-,081	-,011
Intent to Quit	-,019	,237	-,103	-,177