

ABSTRACT

Title of Document: REPLICATING AND EXTENDING JOB
EMBEDDEDNESS ACROSS CULTURES:
EMPLOYEE TURNOVER IN INDIA AND
THE UNITED STATES

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Psychology

This dissertation explored the job embeddedness model of turnover in a collectivistic country (India). The *job embeddedness model (JE)* by Mitchell and Lee (2001) has 6 original dimensions – organization links and community links (individual connections with people in the organization and community), organization fit and community fit (individual perception of fit within an organization and community), and organization sacrifice and community sacrifice (what the individual gives up when leaving the organization or community). JE has been found to explain variance in turnover above the most significant predictors, such as job satisfaction and job alternatives in the US, but has not been explored in collectivistic cultures.

This dissertation took a two-step approach to testing and extending the JE model to India. First, I explored the generalizability of the JE model in India and applied the *individualism-collectivism* framework to posit differences in how strongly each dimensions of JE relates to turnover in the US and in India. I suggested that organization links, community links, and organization fit are more important predictors of turnover in India than in the US, while community fit is a more important predictor of turnover in the US. In addition, I examined fit with job and suggested that perception of job fit is a more important predictor of turnover in the US than in India. Second, I expanded the job embeddedness model to include a family factor by creating three new dimensions, family links, family fit, and family sacrifice, and suggested that this factor would predict turnover in both countries.

Data were collected from call center employees in the US (n = 323) and in India (n = 474). Multi-group confirmatory factor analysis supported the three-factor structure of job embeddedness (organization, community, and family factors) in both cultures. As hypothesized, organization embeddedness and family embeddedness predicted turnover in both countries. Community embeddedness did not predict turnover in either country. In addition, organization fit, organization links, and community links interacted with country in the hypothesized direction such that they were more important in predicting turnover in India, while job fit was more important in predicting turnover in the US.

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EMPLOYEE TURNOVER IN INDIA
AND THE UNITED STATES

By

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated with love to my parents. Amma and Appa, I feel blessed to have wonderful parents who have encouraged me, supported me, and constantly taken pride in all my achievements.

Amma (Mom), you always inspire me to work harder and do more than I think I can.

Appa (Dad), your intellectual curiosity about the world undoubtedly has something to do with my love for research.

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Finally, there are some people outside of the University of Maryland community I would like to thank. My brother, Swami, whose guidance and encouragement gave me direction when I needed it most. Last but not the least, a big thank you to my significant other, Ram. His love, encouragement, humor, and belief in me, have filled my life with joy.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Organization psychologists have long been interested in employee turnover. As early as 1955, Brayfield and Crockett discussed the impact of employee attitudes on turnover, and in 1958, March and Simon put forward the first model of employee turnover. By 1980, there were over 1000 articles and over a dozen review articles on the subject of turnover (Steers & Mowday, 1981). Now, at the turn of the century, there have been over 1500 studies in the area of turnover (Barrick & Zimmerman, 2005) and this interest cuts across many national boundaries (Bjorkman & Lu, 1999; Miller, Hom & Gomez-Mejia, 2001; Paik & Teagarden, 1995; Rauss, 1995; Slater, 2004). This extensive research and interest demonstrates the status of turnover as a key issue in organizational psychology.

There are two major reasons why turnover is a central issue in the field of organizational psychology across the globe. First, turnover is related to low organizational knowledge, low employee morale, low customer satisfaction, high selection costs, and high training costs (Staw, 1980; TalentKeepers, 2004). Research has also shown that high employee turnover is related to lower organization performance (Glebbeck & Bax, 2004; Huselid, 1995; Phillips, 1996). Second, the decision to turnover is often the final outcome of an individual's experiences in an organization (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). Accordingly, many studies have used turnover as a criterion to evaluate the effectiveness of various organizational processes, such as selection (Barrick & Zimmerman, 2005; Meglino, Ravlin & DeNisi, 2000), training (Ganzach, Pazy, Ohayun & Brainin; Glance, Hogg & Huberman; Hequet, 1993), and coaching/ mentoring (Lankau & Scandura, 2002; Luthans & Peterson, 2003; Payne &

Huffman, 2005). Thus, understanding the factors that influence turnover gives organizations the opportunity to reduce selection and training costs, increase employee morale and customer satisfaction, and enhance organizational productivity.

In addition to the increasing attention given to turnover among academics, practitioners both in the United States (US) and in other parts of the world have a growing interest in turnover. A recent article by Fredric, Finnegan and Craig (2004) described how changing demographics and an improving job market are bringing back an industry emphasis on employee retention. This view is supported by a Society for Human Resources Management and Wall Street Journal survey conducted in the US (Burke & Collison, 2004). This survey found that 35% of current employees are actively seeking a new job and that 40% of employees are passively looking for new jobs. At the global level, it is important to take a cross-cultural perspective on turnover because the development of technology and communication services makes it likely that large organizations will have employees in multiple geographically distributed locations (Deresky, 2006). Indeed, a survey by Mercer Consulting found that about 44% of the 200 multinationals they surveyed reported an increase in the number of international assignments both to and from locations other than their headquarters over the past two years (Bronstein, 2006). In addition, a study by Manpower Inc. of approximately 32,000 employers in 26 countries found that most employers reported talent shortages (Zarling, 2006). In short, practitioners are having to deal with cultural differences in turnover and organizational scientists have very little research to offer them.

The study of turnover has a rich theoretical history in which multiple models

have been advanced to understand this complex decision (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). Most of these models are based on the premise that if an individual is unhappy with a job and finds another job, s/he is likely to leave the current job (Lee, et al., 2004). Thus, the focus of most turnover models is on job attitudes (job satisfaction or job commitment) as the primary drivers of turnover (e.g. March & Simon, 1958). Other models have added variables, such as the individual's expectations about the job, ease of movement, expected benefits from quitting, organizational structure, job search, and availability of alternatives, in an attempt to explain additional variance (e.g. Mobley, 1977; Porter & Steers, 1973; Price, 1977; Steers & Mowday, 1981). While turnover models have increasingly become more complex, the most variance is still explained by some of the originally proposed variables, which are job attitudes (job satisfaction and job commitment), job alternatives, and job search (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995). As will be seen in the literature review on turnover, in spite of the intuitively appealing additions to the turnover models, these models have been unable to explain substantial variance in turnover.

More recently, Mitchell and Lee (2001) suggested an alternative approach to turnover that goes beyond job satisfaction and commitment. *Job embeddedness* describes the factors that keep an individual from leaving the organization, in spite of experiencing situations that might lead to thoughts of leaving. Job embeddedness can be work related (e.g. positive relationships with supervisor and coworkers, good health benefits) or non-work related (e.g. spouse works in the same area, parents live in the same community, etc.). These work and non-work domains can be further divided into three types of attachment, i.e. links (how many people is the individual

connected with?), fit (does the individual feel well matched with their work and non-work environment?), and sacrifice (what does the individual have to give up in order to leave?). Thus, job embeddedness has six dimensions - organization links, organization fit, organization sacrifice, community links, community fit, and community sacrifice. Mitchell and Lee (2001) collectively called these six dimensions, which keep an individual from leaving the organization, job embeddedness. In brief, highly embedded individuals are less likely to leave the organization as compared to less embedded individuals. This model has received some empirical support (Lee, Mitchell, Wise & Fireman, 1996; Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski & Erez, 2001) and shows much promise to expand on prior models of turnover.

Notwithstanding the promise of this theory, it is important to record that it has mainly been developed and tested in the US. Maertz (2004) argued that national culture is one of the 'neglected antecedents' in employee turnover models, and this holds true for the job embeddedness model as well (p. 105). In addition, numerous studies have shown that culture influences many phenomena in organizational behavior, such as job satisfaction, motivation, organizational commitment, team performance, and justice perceptions (Bond & Smith, 1996; Earley & Gibson, 1998), and turnover should be no exception. However, there is a surprising lack of cross-cultural research in turnover. This dissertation begins to fill this gap by extending turnover theory cross-culturally.

More specifically, this dissertation has two major aims. The first is to examine if key findings from the job embeddedness model are applicable in a

collectivistic culture, namely India. Simply put, does the theory of job embeddedness hold in other cultures? I also propose that while job embeddedness generally accounts for additional variance in turnover beyond job satisfaction and job commitment, culture moderates the relationship between each of the 6 dimensions of job embeddedness and turnover. The second aim draws on the possibility that the current job embeddedness model might not capture all the influences on turnover. Put differently, job embeddedness as it is currently conceived might be ‘construct deficient’ especially for a different culture. I expand the job embeddedness model by drawing on the work of Wasti (2002) and others (Misra, Ghosh & Kunungo, 1990; Posthuma, Joplin & Maertz, 2005) to suggest that a missing factor in the job embeddedness model might be the *influence of family* on an individual’s turnover decision. I further suggest that the relationship between the new family dimension and turnover will be moderated by culture.

This dissertation makes both theoretical and practical contributions to the field of organizational psychology. Most turnover models are developed and tested in the US and this is one of the first studies to take a global approach. India’s steady economic growth is likely to make it the third-largest economy in the world (The Economist, 2007), and the extensive investments being made in India by multinationals make it an appropriate site in which to test the generalizability of the job embeddedness model. In addition, turnover has been identified as a major concern for Indian organizations across many industries (Batt, Doellgast & Kwon, 2005; Dayasindhu, 2002; King, 2006; Naithani & Goel, 2007). India has also been identified as a predominantly collectivistic country (Dhar, 1995; Kwantes, 2003;

Singh, 1990), thus allowing me to propose and test hypotheses based on the individualism-collectivism dimension. I extended the turnover literature by conducting one of the first studies to develop a systematic theory of culture and turnover and to empirically test it with real turnover data. In addition, I did not simply import the job embeddedness model into a different culture; I expanded job embeddedness construct and measurement by incorporating family opinion, which has been identified as important in collectivistic cultures (Wasti, 2003a).

This dissertation also makes applied contributions. Human resource practitioners have few resources for understanding and managing turnover in a cross-cultural context and the results of this dissertation can help practitioners answer questions such as; should we modify turnover management and retention programs for each country? What changes should we make in our turnover management and retention practices to achieve maximum utility in different countries? In what ways can we use country specific selection criteria to reduce turnover rates? This dissertation provides valuable information to help practitioners make informed decisions about global turnover management. Thus, this dissertation is firmly grounded in the scientist-practitioner approach and makes important contributions to turnover theory and practice.

The structure of this dissertation is as follows. In Chapter 2, I describe the traditional models of turnover and concerns with these models. In Chapter 3, I present the job embeddedness model and describe how it extends previous work on turnover to enhance our understanding of turnover. In this chapter, I also discuss the addition of the new family dimension, in addition to the organization and community

dimensions, that makes the job embeddedness model more comprehensive. In Chapter 4, I discuss the importance of culture for turnover and suggest that country moderates the relationship between different dimensions of job embeddedness and turnover. Chapters 5 and 6 describe the methods and findings of this dissertation. Finally, Chapter 7 provides a summary and discusses the implications of this dissertation.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF TURNOVER RESEARCH

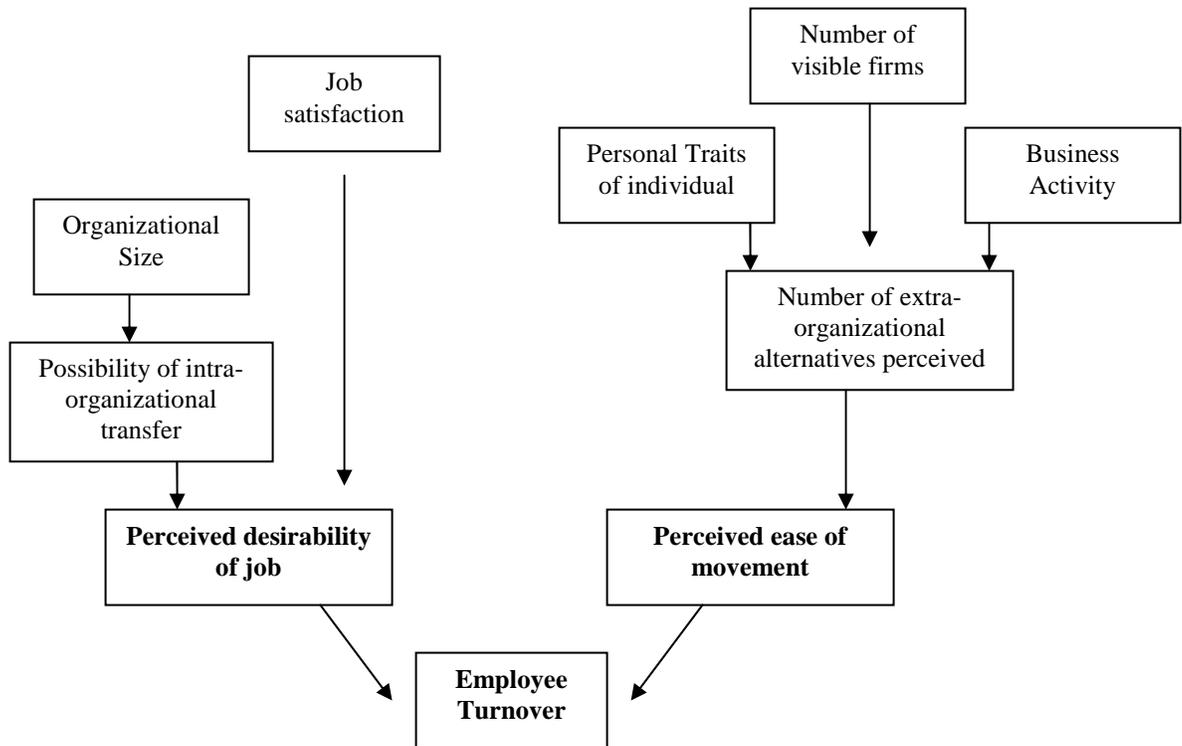
In this section, I describe the ‘core models’ (Steel, 2002, p 346) in turnover research. The main purpose of this section is to provide the historic context for the development of the job embeddedness model and to demonstrate how turnover models have become more complex without a corresponding increase in explaining variance in turnover. Later, I will introduce the job embeddedness model that advances our thinking about turnover. The new job embeddedness model encompasses many of the core models by including the path from dissatisfaction to turnover as one of the four paths that could lead an employee to leave the organization. The next section briefly introduces the core models of turnover in chronological order.

Models of Turnover

March and Simon (1958)

One of the earliest models of turnover was developed by March and Simon in 1958 (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). This model described individuals and organizations as being in a state of equilibrium, where the members contributed to the organization while the organization provided members with compensation in return. March and Simon posited that when the compensation provided by the organization is no longer balanced with the contribution of the organizational members, individuals quit the organization. This equilibrium between individual contribution and organizational compensation is a function of two motivational components – perceived desirability of the job and perceived ease of movement (Figure 1).

Figure 1. March and Simon (1958) Model of Turnover



Elaborating further, they argued that the perceived desirability of the job is influenced by job satisfaction and organizational size (because larger organizational size increases the chances of an intra-organizational transfer). They also argued that an individual's perceived ease of movement is influenced by the number of perceived opportunities outside of the organization, which is determined by the state of the economy, the individual's traits and characteristics, and the number of firms the individual can access (either through job advertisements or personal contacts). Even though few studies have directly tested this model, it has had an influence on many of the following theories of turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). During the remainder of

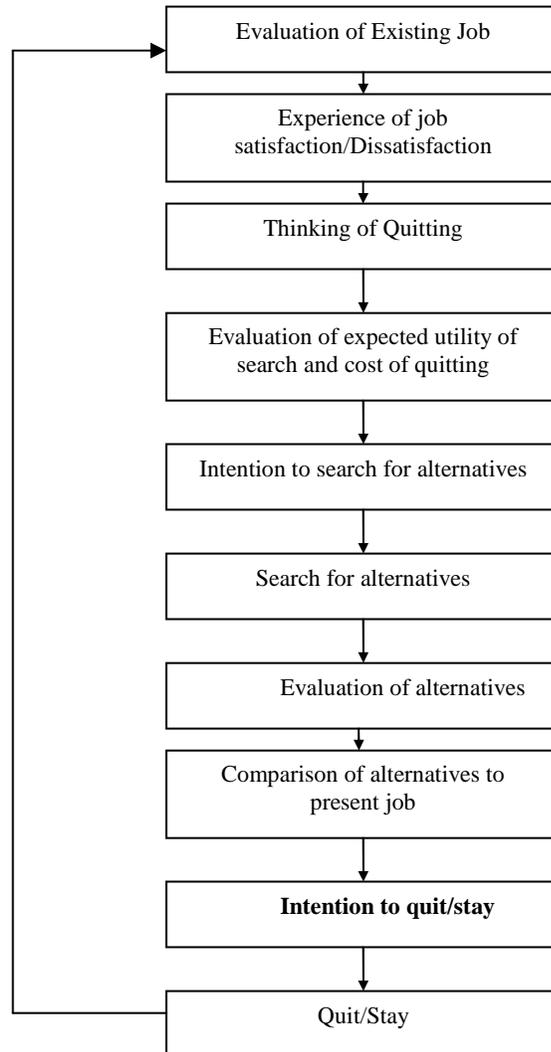
this review, it will become clear that many models invoke the same variables in their description of turnover.

Mobley (1977) and Modification Models

According to Mobley (1977), there are a series of steps that lead from job satisfaction to turnover (Figure 2). As seen in Figure 2, dissatisfaction with the job leads to thoughts of quitting, thoughts about the costs of quitting (for example, loss of excellent health benefits), and the expected utility of searching for a new job (for example, the probability of finding another job within the same salary range). If the cost of quitting is not too high and there is a high probability of finding a comparable job, the individual will search for alternatives, evaluate them, and compare them to the existing job. Only if the comparison is favorable towards the alternatives does the individual make the final decision to quit the current job.

This model has attracted a large body of empirical research (e.g. Coverdale & Terborg, 1980; Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Hom, Griffeth & Sellaro, 1984; Miller, Katerberg & Hulin, 1979). Initial studies of this model found that thinking about quitting has a direct effect on intention to search, and that intention to search for a new job has a direct effect on intention to quit (Coverdale & Terborg, 1980; Miller, Katerberg & Hulin, 1979; Mobley, Horner & Hollingworth, 1978). These studies also found that turnover intentions were the best predictor of actual turnover.

Figure 2. Mobley (1977) Intermediate Linkages Model

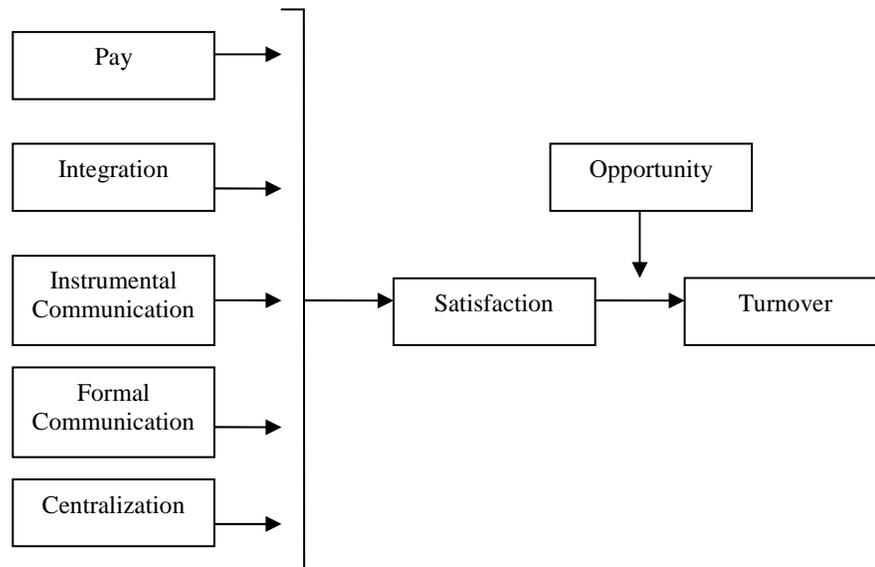


Other paths, such as expected utility of job search leading to a job search or intention to quit were not supported (Coverdale & Terborg, 1980; Miller, Katerberg & Hulin, 1979; Mobley, Horner & Hollingworth, 1978). Mobley, Hand, Baker and Meglino (1979) modified the original model to include the utility of the present job and utility of the future job to the employee. A number of studies have investigated these additions, but the results are inconsistent and provide only partial support for

Price (1977)

In his model, Price identified five primary determinants of turnover – *pay levels*, *integration* (defined as the involvement one has in one's relationship with a supervisor or coworker), *instrumental communication* (defined as how clearly the work role is communicated to the employee), *formal communication* (defined as how well the organizational communicates practices and policies), and *centralization* (defined as the distribution of power in the organization). He proposed that the first four determinants are positively related to turnover while centralization is negatively related to turnover (Figure 4). He suggested that these four determinants lead to satisfaction, and the relationship between satisfaction and turnover is mediated by the availability of other work opportunities. Further modification proposed by Price and Mueller (1981, 1986) added other determinants, such as forming close friendships at work, earning good and fair compensation, kinship responsibility, and training opportunity. However, even with the inclusion of more than 15 determinants of turnover, these models explained only about 13% of turnover variance (Hom & Griffeth, 1995).

Figure 4. Price (1977) Turnover Determinants and Intervening Variables



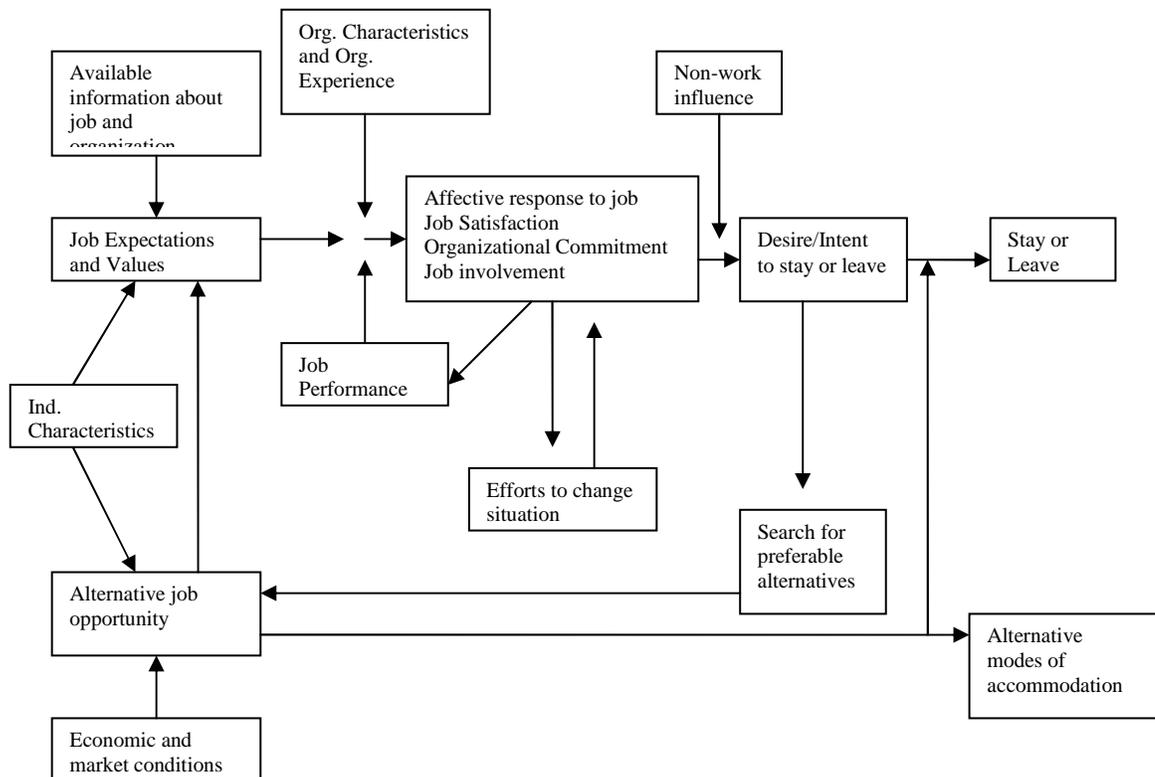
Steers and Mowday (1981)

The Steers and Mowday (1981) model is described in Figure 5 and includes many of the same factors as the Mobley et al. (1979) model described earlier. Affective responses (including job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment and job involvement) influence desire and intention to stay or leave. As in other models, desire and intention to stay or leave directly lead to the individual leaving or staying (Lee & Mowday, 1987), but this relationship is moderated by alternative job opportunities (i.e., if the individual perceived other attractive opportunities, their expectations from the job might change). This model identifies job expectations and values, job performance, and organizational experiences as predictors of the individual's affective response to a job. In addition to this basic framework, there are a multitude of factors that influence these relationships. For example, job expectations are influenced by individual characteristics, available information about

the job and organization, and alternative job opportunities. Finally, once an individual reaches the stage where s/he desires to leave, this model suggests that there are multiple paths the individual might take. S/he might resign immediately or start looking for available alternatives to the job.

A number of studies that tested this model have shown partial support for the model (Stumpf & Hartman, 1984; Hom, Griffeth & Sellaro, 1984). The only study that tests the complete Steers and Mowday model found that only intention to leave predicted actual leaving while alternative job opportunity did not add any significant variance (Lee and Mowday, 1987). Together, both intention to leave and alternative job opportunity accounted for only 5% of the variance in turnover.

Figure 5. Steers and Mowday (1981) Turnover Model



Conclusions from the review

Many models have been advanced to explain turnover since the original model by March and Simon (1958), but there have been surprisingly few additional factors that contribute significantly to explaining turnover over and above the originally proposed job attitudes and job alternatives. Many models have advanced additional factors, such as perceived utility of existing and alternative job (Mobley, 1977), pay, communication (Price, 1977), individual values (Mobley et al., 1979), and job performance (Steers & Mowday, 1981), yet even the most complex of these turnover models have seldom explained more than 15% of the variance in actual turnover. In their meta-analysis, Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner (2000) found that the best predictors of turnover were job commitment, job satisfaction, job search, and job alternatives, and these explained between 5-15 % of the variance in actual turnover. Other factors contributed even less, raising questions about their value in explaining turnover. Put differently, these models have tended to become less parsimonious, yet the addition of multiple factors has not resulted in a corresponding increase in explained variance. Thus, these models, while serving a valuable role in terms of expanding our knowledge of the multitude of factors that could influence turnover, have not been successful in explaining the most critical reasons that employees leave an organization.

Another limitation of these models is that even though these models incorporate non-work elements such as non-work values and social relations outside of work (Mobley et al. 1979; Steers & Mowday, 1981), these are not extensively integrated into the models and have seldom been empirically tested. As I will discuss

later, while non-work issues are important in understanding turnover in all cultures, they have the potential to be especially important in collectivist cultures where individuals see themselves as inherently connected with significant others (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1995). In the next section, I will introduce Mitchell and Lee's (2001) job embeddedness model and describe how this model takes a unique approach to explaining turnover.

CHAPTER 3: THE JOB EMBEDDEDNESS MODEL OF TURNOVER

Mitchell and Lee (2001) advanced a new approach to turnover that focused on the counter-intuitive notion that individuals might leave the organization for reasons other than job dissatisfaction. This approach to turnover focused on the factors that make an individual more likely to *stay* in the job, in addition to the factors likely to make an employee leave. This approach built on the earlier turnover models and added a new dimension to our understanding of turnover.

Mitchell and Lee (2001) suggested that there when individuals have multiple attachments to the organization, these attachments are likely to hold them back from leaving even if they think about leaving due to particular circumstances (e.g., getting another offer, company relocation to a non-preferred location). Thus, individuals who are high on *job embeddedness* might choose to stay with the organization even if circumstances are less than ideal. Job embeddedness is a multidimensional construct that describes the various attachments that an individual has with the organization and community (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). According to Mitchell et al. (2001), “Embeddedness suggests that there are numerous strands that connect an employee and his or her family in a social, psychological, and financial web that includes work and non-work friends, groups, the community, and the physical environment in which he or she lives” (p. 1104). Put simply, job embeddedness attempts to capture the totality of the forces that encourage an individual to stay in a particular job (or hold back an individual from leaving his/her job). Mitchell and Lee (2001) suggest that an individual’s decision to leave an organization is not made in isolation but is shaped by the environment (both work and non-work) in which the individual is ‘embedded.’

Thus, an individual is ‘embedded’ when s/he has multiple *links* to people in the organization and community, when the organization and the community are a good *fit* for the individual, and when the individual has to *sacrifice* a lot to leave the organization and community. In this section, I first describe the dimensions of embeddedness. I then describe a new addition to the job embeddedness model – family embeddedness - that expands the job embeddedness model to include a new perspective.

Dimensions of Job Embeddedness

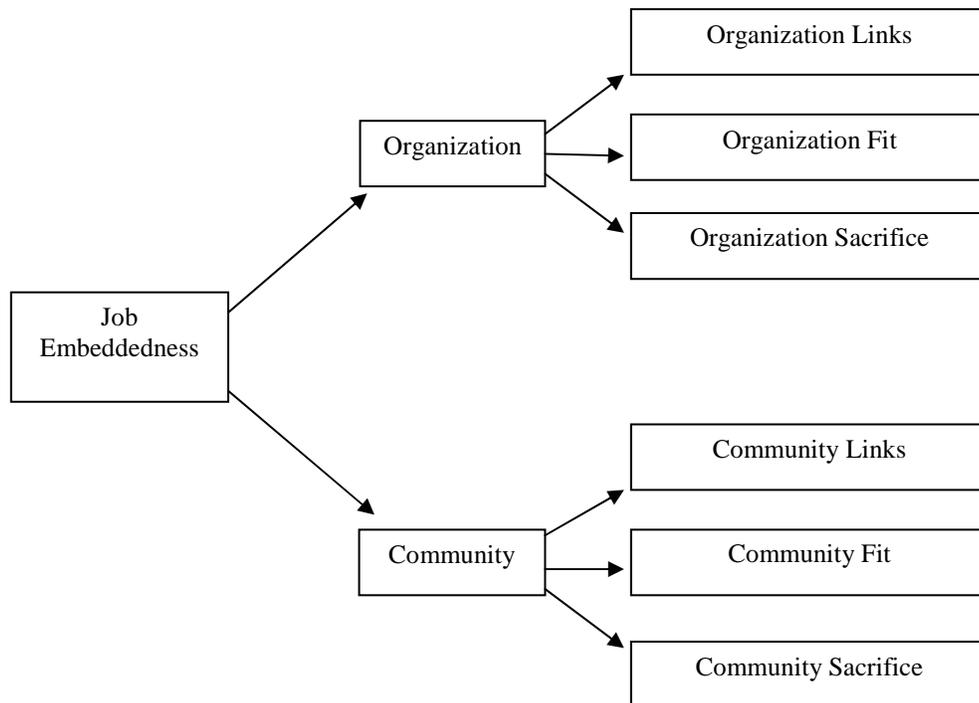
In the job embeddedness model, both the relationship of the individual to the *organization* and the relationship of the individual to the *community* are important predictors of turnover. Within the organization and the community, an individual can have three kinds of attachments: links, fit, and sacrifice. Thus, with the two factors (organization and community) and the three kinds of attachments (links, fit, and sacrifice), the job embeddedness model has 6 dimensions: organization links, organization fit, organization sacrifice, community links, community fit, and community sacrifice (Figure 6). I will now discuss each of these in detail.

Organization and Community Links

These two dimensions describe the extent to which an individual is linked to other people and activities in the organization and community. Links include both formal and informal ties that an individual has with other people. One example of an organization link is a strong connection with one’s supervisor or coworkers. An example of a community link is a strong connection to a group of friends who spend every weekend together, or having relatives who live in the same area. According to

Mitchell et al. (2001), the higher the number of links between the individual and the organization, the more s/he is bound to the job and the organization. Similarly, the higher the number of links between the individual and the community, the more s/he is bound to the organization.

Figure 6. Dimensions of Job Embeddedness



Organization and Community Fit

These two dimensions describe the extent to which the organization and community are perceived as being a good fit with the individual's interests, within and outside of work. Put differently, fit includes the individual's compatibility with his or her work and non-work settings. An example of high organization fit is if the individual values being environmentally friendly and works for an organization that supports recycling, or if the individual feels s/he is a good fit with his/her job. An example of high community fit is enjoying music and living in an area that offers a lot of opportunity to watch live bands or being able to join a league in the area to play a favorite sport. The better the fit, the more an employee will feel professionally and personally tied to the organization. According to Mitchell et al. (2001), the better the fit between the employee's personal values (e.g. career goals and plans for the future) and the organization, the less likely the employee is to leave. Similarly, the better the fit with the community and the surrounding environment, the less likely the employee is to leave.

Organization and Community Sacrifice

The final two dimensions of job embeddedness include all of the benefits that an individual *must give up* if s/he were to leave the job. Put simply, it is the perceived loss of material or psychological benefits that are currently available or will be available in the future. An example of organization sacrifice is the lost opportunity for promotion if the individual is up for a promotion review soon, or the loss of childcare if that is one of the benefits provided by the organization. An example of community sacrifice is leaving a neighborhood in which all the neighbors help each

other or leaving a very safe neighborhood. According to Mitchell et al. (2001), the more an employee would have to give up when leaving, the more difficult it would be for him or her to leave the organization and community.

Empirical Support for Job Embeddedness

Although job embeddedness is a relatively new model, there have been a few studies that examine this construct (Lee, et al, 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). These studies suggest job embeddedness is a construct with much promise for improving our understanding of the turnover process.

In a key study, Mitchell et al. (2001) developed a measure of job embeddedness that included the dimensions of organization links, organization fit, organization sacrifice, community links, community fit, and community sacrifice. They collected data from 177 employees in a grocery store and 208 surveys from hospital employees on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job search, and job alternatives in addition to job embeddedness. They calculated average scores for each dimension and also calculated an overall mean for job embeddedness. They used exploratory factor analysis to establish that the items within each dimension loaded on a single factor. The correlation between overall job embeddedness and turnover was $-.25$. Job embeddedness was positively correlated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment, but negatively correlated with job search and job alternatives. Mitchell et al. also hypothesized and found that job embeddedness improves the prediction of voluntary turnover over and above that accounted for by job satisfaction, job commitment, perceived alternatives, and job search. In another study, Lee et al. (2004) collected data from 636 employees and found that community

embeddedness predicted turnover and absence, while organization embeddedness predicted organizational citizenship behavior and job performance, over and above job satisfaction and commitment.

Additional Support for Job Embeddedness Dimensions

Although there have only been a handful of studies that measure and evaluate the complete job embeddedness model, there is research that provides evidence for each of the six dimensions separately. In this section, I will briefly describe several of these research studies on the relationship between job embeddedness dimensions and turnover.

Organization Links

Many researchers have suggested that the greater the number of ties an individual has in the organization, the less likely s/he is to leave, since s/he is attached at both a functional as well as an emotional level (Burt, 2001; Kahn 1998; Krackhardt & Porter, 1986; Maertz & Griffeth, 2004). Indeed, a number of empirical studies have demonstrated that an individual's links to people within an organization increase attachment to that organization. A study by Mossholder, Setton and Henagan (2005) focused on the relational aspect of an individual's decision to leave an organization. They collected data on the number of links an individual had with others in the organization (network centrality), job satisfaction, and turnover among 215 employees in a regional medical centre. The results showed that a higher number of links to the organization was significantly related to lower turnover, above job satisfaction. Another study by Friedman and Holtom (2002) found that managerial minority employees who had joined one of the company's network groups (where

minority members meet either socially or for discussions about what is going on in the company on their personal time) were more likely to stay with the organization.

Organization Fit

One of the primary determinants of person-organization fit is congruence of the norms and values of the organization with the values of the person (Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1989). A classic study by O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991) among employees of 8 large US accounting firms found that person-organization fit predicted actual turnover two years later. Bretz and Judge (1994) collected data from labor-program graduates and found that perception of person-organization fit was positively related to tenure with the organization. Similarly, other studies have found that perceived person-organization fit and perceived person-job fit were significantly negatively correlated with intention to leave (Cable & Judge, 1996; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001). While person-organization fit is important, recent work by Kristoff -Brown and colleagues has identified person-job fit as a distinct construct from person-organization fit. In this dissertation, I expand the fit dimension in the job embeddedness model to include person-organization fit and person-job fit.

Organization Sacrifice

A number of studies provide support for this dimension. For example, Feldman and Bolino (1998) study found that the importance of benefits provided by the organization was positively related to willingness to relocate. Similarly, Shaw, Delery, Jenkins and Gupta (1998) collected data from multiple trucking organizations on the attractiveness of the pay and benefits packages they offered to their employees,

as well as organizational turnover rates. They found that turnover rates were negatively associated with the attractiveness of the pay and benefits provided by the organization.

Community Links

There are also a number of research studies that demonstrate the importance of non-work links to organizational outcomes. Cohen (1995) measured links in the non-work domain by asking employees about their hobbies and recreational activities outside of work, affiliation to political parties, and affiliation to other organizations outside of work. He found that individuals' non-work involvement was positively correlated with commitment to the organization.

According to Mitchell and Lee (2001), having a spouse and children is part of community links. This is because having a family makes the individual more embedded in the community, possibly because of the spouse's job in the same area and the children's school in the same community. In a study that provides evidence for the importance of these community links, Lee and Maurer (1999) found that having a spouse was related to improved retention. They also found that the number of children was positively related to improved retention.

Community Fit

Studies have also shown that a person's perception of fit *outside the organization*, or their fit to the community, is an important predictor of turnover. For example, Feldman and Bolino (1998) examined employee willingness to move when their organization was relocating. They found that people who were attached to the present community had lived longer in the community and had parents living in the

present community were less likely to be willing to relocate. Similarly, Shaffer and Harrison (1998) in a study of expatriate adjustment found that non-work variables, such as satisfaction with community and housing, were related to withdrawal cognitions.

Community Sacrifice

Though there are very few studies that directly measure sacrifice associated with the community, Mitchell et al. (2001) found that community sacrifice, such as leaving a safe community or leaving a community in which one is liked and respected, was negatively related to voluntary turnover. This suggests that expected loss of positive relationships within the community is a factor that can hold people back from leaving an organization.

Family influence - Expanding Job Embeddedness

According to Mitchell et al. (2001), job embeddedness is a developing construct. Exploration and expansion of this construct in different contexts can enrich our overall understanding of both turnover and employee attitudes. Gelfand, Raver and Ehrhart (2002) also suggest that looking at the comprehensiveness of a construct is an important step in cross-cultural research. In order to adequately explore the comprehensiveness of the job embeddedness model, my first step was to examine various studies in the US and in other cultures to answer the question: Does the current measure of job embeddedness capture this construct in its entirety or is there an aspect of embeddedness missing from the model?

One area that I identified as important based on prior research is the influence of *family opinions* on the individual's turnover decision. This is not a new idea.

Even early on in the development of turnover theory, March and Simon (1958) suggested that family members often have opinions about the organizations in which family members work, but this has not been well integrated within most of the turnover models described earlier and is not addressed directly by the job embeddedness model. While there has been research on the impact of work-family conflict on employee attitudes and behaviors, both in the US and India (for more detail see Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1997), there has been little research that has examined the impact of family support on work attitudes (of notable exception is the work by Wasti, 2003a and Orthner & Pittman, 1986). Work by other authors (Bielby, 1992; Orthner & Pittman, 1986) suggests that the clear distinction between work and family, which is assumed by most models of satisfaction and performance, is getting harder to sustain in the face of changes in demographics and society. Organizational psychologists have acknowledged the impact of significant others within the organization on employee attitudes (Pastor, Meindl, & Mayo 2002; Rice & Ayadin, 1999; Umphress, Labianca, Brass, Kass & Scholten, 2003), and I proposed that we need to study the importance of family opinions on organizational attitudes and turnover.

Evidence from collectivistic cultures suggests the importance of family opinions in individual decisions. Radford, Mann, Ohta and Nakane (1991) found that collectivists were more likely than individualists to ask for the opinions of family and friends when making decisions. Wasti (2002, 2003a) expanded the construct of organizational commitment within the Turkish context (a collectivist culture). Based on focus groups, she identified additional emic (culture-specific) items that concerned

issues such as duty to the organization and the opinions of the family about the suitability of the organization for the individual (e.g. 'My family thinks this organization is a good fit for me'). She collected data from Turkish employees on commitment, allocentrism-idiocentrism, and turnover intentions. She found that family disapproval of the organization was a predictor of turnover intentions, over and above commitment. In addition, she also found that this relationship was stronger for individual who endorsed allocentric values and weaker for those who endorsed idiocentric values. Similarly, Posthuma, Joplin & Maertz (2005) suggest that our understanding of turnover in a collectivist culture could be enhanced by focusing on normative expectations from the family that relate to quitting the organization.

Even within the US, the addition of family embeddedness has the potential to help us understand turnover decisions. According to Lee and Maurer (1999), when work demands interfere with family responsibilities, family members might encourage an employee to quit, thus making turnover more likely. Many turnover models have suggested that the family can influence turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mobley et al. 1979; Steers & Mowday, 1981). Even the original work on turnover by March and Simon identified family opinions as one of the possible influences on turnover, by suggesting that "the greater the extent to which activities demanded by the job make it difficult or impossible to fulfill...expectations in other social groups, the greater the...desirability of movement" (1958: 97). Extensive research on American expatriates has also identified family opinions as related to turnover intentions (Black & Stephens, 1989; Caligiuri, Hyland, Joshi & Bross, 1998; Shaffer,

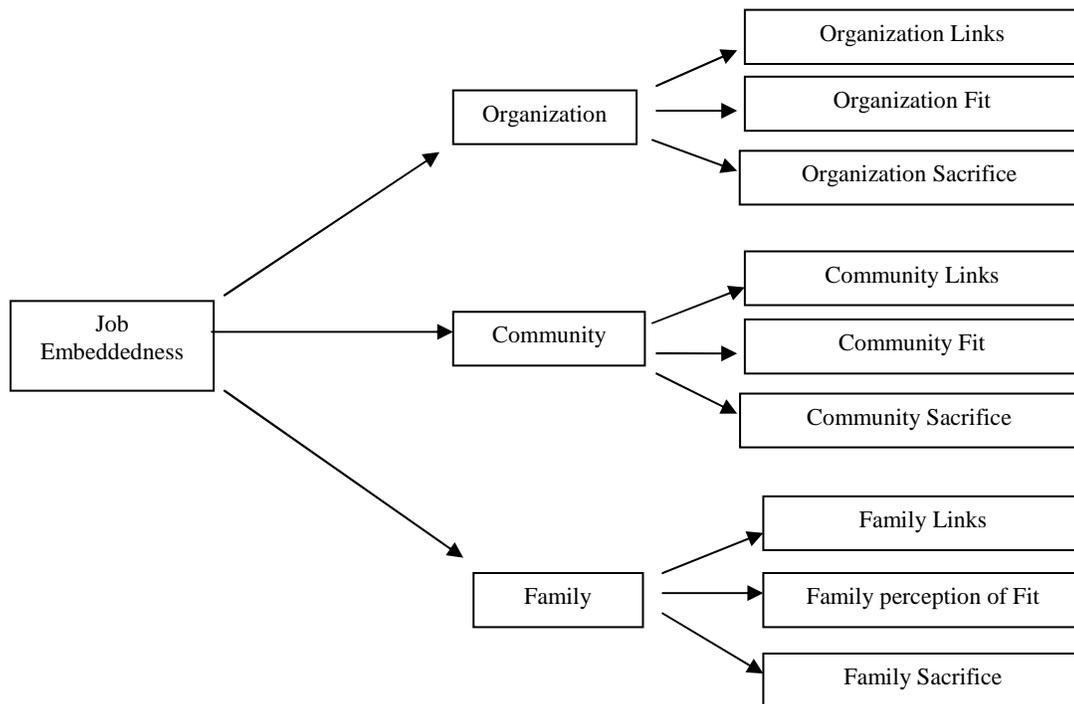
Harrison, Gilley, & Luk, 2001). In fact, Bhaskar- Shrinvas, Harrison, Shaffer, and Lok (2004) examined the past 23 years of research in expatriate adjustment and found family-spousal adjustment was the most powerful determinant of adjustment, which is one measure of success on the job.

There is some research evidence within the US that supports the family dimension of job embeddedness. Orthner and Pittman (1986) found that family support for career was the most important predictor of career commitment among married men in the Air Force. Orthner (1992) also suggested that the traditional approach to the relationship between family and the organization needs to change, and the impact of family support for the organization on job commitment needs to be examined. In fact, McPhearson, Smith-Lovin and Brashers (2006), using data from the General Social Survey, found that there was an increasing reliance on family networks involving parents and spouses, as compared to non-kin networks among Americans from 1985 to 2004. These studies suggest that family embeddedness might make a contribution to understanding turnover in both the US and India. Thus, based on research in the US, in India, as well as literature from other cultures (e.g. Bielby, 1992; Caligiuri, Hyland, Joshi & Bross, 1998; Orthner & Pittman, 1986; Posthuma, Joplin & Maertz, 2005; Wasti, 2002), I identified family opinions as an important component of attachment to the job.

Three new dimensions were created to capture a part of the job embeddedness construct that might not be currently measured, i.e. the influence of family opinion on turnover decisions (see Figure 7). These new family dimensions are *family links* (how well family members are connected to the organization), *family fit* (family

perception of how well the organization fits the employee), and *family sacrifice* (what the family would have to give up if they moved). In addition, I created an overall family factor. Multiple steps were taken in the development of these new dimensions, including subject-matter expert inputs, q-sorts, and confirmatory factor analysis to support the addition of this new factor to the job embeddedness model in both the US and in India. The development of the items that measure this dimensions and results for the multi-group confirmatory factor analysis are presented in the method and results sections respectively.

Figure 7. The Expanded Job Embeddedness Model with the New Family Dimension



In summary, research on job embeddedness suggests that looking beyond job satisfaction and job commitment can provide us with a greater understanding of how and why individuals leave an organization. In addition, I suggest that the influence of the family on an individual's decision to leave an organization can capture another important aspect of embeddedness. While the job embeddedness model has found some support, all the published research has been in the US or the United Kingdom, thus leaving a major gap that research needs to address. This paper addresses this gap by exploring the application of this theory cross-culturally.

This dissertation addresses three major questions from a cross-cultural perspective. First, does job embeddedness predict turnover in a different culture? Second, does the addition of the family factor to the job embeddedness model (in addition to organization and community) improve the prediction of turnover both in the US and in India? Third, does culture moderate the relationship between different dimensions of job embeddedness and turnover?

CHAPTER 4: JOB EMBEDDEDNESS, TURNOVER, AND CULTURE

Culture

Culture is defined as a system of shared beliefs, values, customs, behaviors, and artifacts that members of a society use to cope with their world and with one another, and that are transmitted from generation to generation through learning (Bates & Plog, 1990, p. 7). Drawing on Hofstede (1980), the present study examines the impact of individualism-collectivism (IC) on the relationship between job embeddedness and turnover. IC is the most extensively researched cultural dimension in organizational literature (Sondergaard, 1994). In collectivistic cultures, individuals generally see themselves as an interdependent part of their groups, whereas individuals in individualistic cultures emphasize their autonomy and independence from groups (Bochner, 1994; Kashima, et al., 1995). In collectivistic cultures, individuals are expected to prioritize group needs and group goals over individual needs (Triandis, 1994). In brief, individuals in collectivistic cultures subordinate their personal goals to group goals and see themselves as being fundamentally connected with significant others (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). On the contrary, individuals in individualistic cultures emphasize personal needs over the group needs. In addition, individuals in a collectivistic culture experience a high level of loyalty to the in-group – a group that is a major source of an individual's identity and includes family, friends, coworkers, and similar others (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

IC has been found to influence various phenomena in organizational behavior such as communication (Kapoor, Hughes, Baldwin & Blue, 2003), decision making

(Smith and Peterson, 1994), negotiation (Gelfand & Brett, 2004), organizational commitment (Kwantes, 2003; Parks, Bochner & Schnieder, 2001; Wasti, 2003a), rewards (Ramamurthy & Carrol, 1998), teamwork (Cox, Lobel & McLeod, 1991; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2000), and training (Earley, 1993). As an illustration, Ramamoorthy, Gupta, Sardesai, and Flood (2005) proposed differences in attitudes towards HR systems in American and Indian MBA students based on IC and found that Americans showed a greater preference for equality in rewards and fairness in appraisal than Indians. Similarly, drawing on IC, Robert et al. (2000) proposed and found that empowerment was negatively associated with satisfaction in India, but positively associated with satisfaction in the US.

Many scholars have also suggested that culture is an important element that is missing in the turnover literature (Maertz, 2004; Miller, Hom & Gomez-Mejia, 2001; Posthuma, Joplin & Maertz, 2005). In fact, after examining factors that led to reduced turnover in multinational companies, Miller, Hom and Gomez-Mejia concluded that all turnover theories reflected a strong Anglo-American bias and need to be modified and refined to make them applicable to other countries. While there do not seem to be many empirical studies of cross-cultural differences in turnover, a few studies have used the IC paradigm to study cultural differences in turnover intentions and withdrawal behavior. I describe two of these studies below.

Kwantes (2003) collected data on affective, normative, and continuance commitment from samples in the US and in India, and examined their relationship with organizational citizenship behavior and employee withdrawal. She found that only affective commitment was related to organizational citizenship behaviors in the

US, but all three types of commitment were related to organizational citizenship behaviors in India. She also found differential relationships with withdrawal such that only affective commitment predicted withdrawal behavior in the US, but continuance commitment and affective commitment predicted withdrawal in India. Parkes, Bochner and Schenider (2001) collected data from Australia and South-East Asia on allocentrism- idiocentrism, person-culture fit, individualism-collectivism at the national level, organizational commitment, organizational tenure, and job satisfaction. They found an interaction between allocentrism-idiocentrism and national culture such that allocentrics were more committed to and stayed longer in organizations in collectivist countries, though this did not hold true in the individualist country. In summary, organizational commitment predicted variance in turnover intentions, however, the sub-dimensions had different relationships with turnover intentions in different countries. Similarly, I use the IC paradigm to suggest that while, job embeddedness will explain variance in turnover in both the US and India, culture will moderate the relationship between the dimension of job embeddedness and turnover.

The following pages explore the dimensions of job embeddedness and their impact on turnover in light of the IC paradigm. The sample for this dissertation are call center employees from the US and India. Based on the work of Hofstede (1980), Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman and Gupta (2004), Triandis (1995), and many others, the US is clearly individualistic. However, data from India is mixed. While there are a number of studies that show India to be a collectivistic country (Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004; Sinha & Verma, 1987; Triandis & Bhawuk, 1995), other studies

have found Indians to exhibit a mix of individualistic and collectivistic orientations (Mishra, 1994; Roberts, Probst, Martocchio, Drasgow & Lawler, 2000; Sinha & Tripathi, 1994). However, Sinha, Sinha, Verma and Sinha (2001) report that while there is the existence of both orientations, “evidence further indicates a priority to collectivistic over individualistic orientation” (p.143). They suggested that Indians are likely to be individualist in impersonal situations, but not in situations involving in-groups and family. Collectivism was measured at the individual level as a sample check and is described in the results section.

The first set of hypotheses seek to replicate the primary findings for job embeddedness from Mitchell et al. (2001), namely that organization and community embeddedness explain variance in turnover, above and beyond job satisfaction, job commitment, job search, and job alternatives. The second set of hypotheses address the three types of attachment - links, fit, and sacrifice - and identify how national differences in culture moderate the relationship between the dimensions of job embeddedness and turnover. The final set of hypotheses will address cross-cultural differences in turnover based on a newly developed family factor (to be described shortly) of job embeddedness.

Organization, Community and Family Embeddedness

The job embeddedness study by Mitchell et al. (2001) found that job embeddedness accounted for variance in turnover, over and above that accounted for by job satisfaction, job commitment, perceived alternatives, and job search (Mitchell et al. 2001). The original job embeddedness model included two factors - organization and community embeddedness. These factors are composites of the

dimensions of links, fit, and sacrifice. Building on the study by Lee et al. (2004) in which they examined the organization and community factors as distinct aspects of job embeddedness, I pose separate hypotheses for the organization and community factors of job embeddedness. I also propose hypotheses for the newly added factor of family embeddedness.

Mitchell and Lee (2001) have described embedded individuals as being “enmeshed in a network of forces and connections...someone who is deeply embedded will have many strong and close attachments while the opposite will be true for a weakly embedded person” (p. 216). Further, Mitchell et al. (2001) described “job embeddedness as like a net or web in which an individual can become stuck” (p. 1104). These descriptions draw our attention not only to the many relationships an individual might have, but also to the fact that an individual might experience a pressure to stay because of these connections. Based on these descriptions of job embeddedness and the collectivistic focus on groups and relationships, I believe that organization and community embeddedness will also account for variance in turnover in India. In addition, based on the literature review, I also believe that family embeddedness will account for turnover in both the US and in India. I elaborate on this idea in the next paragraph.

Collectivists are more likely to define themselves through the group or relationships (Bochner, 1994; Dhawan, Roseman, Naidu, Thapa & Rettke, 1995) and have higher social interdependence (Singelis & Brown, 1995; Triandis, et al. 1988). This is particularly important in the Indian context where networks of social relationships and interdependencies are important components of individual self-

construal (Misra, 2001). In addition, in collectivistic cultures, individual attitudes are more likely to be influenced by people around them (Triandis, et al. 1988; Triandis, McCusker & Hui, 1990). For example, in India, Bordia and Blau (2003) found that an important component of individual satisfaction with pay was the individual's perception of how much s/he made in comparison with others (both within and outside the organization). As organization and community embeddedness emphasize social relationships as well as influence from others, I suggest that when individuals in a collectivistic culture think about turnover, they also take into account the 'forces and connections' that are described by job embeddedness.

As described earlier, one aim of this study is to examine the application of the job embeddedness model in both the US and in India. In order to demonstrate the value of job embeddedness in both cultures, it is important to examine if organization, community and family embeddedness can explain variance in turnover over and above the variables commonly used to predict turnover. Thus, the hypotheses presented below suggest that organization, community, and family embeddedness predict additional variance in turnover, after controlling for job satisfaction, job commitment, job alternatives, and job search.

Hypothesis 1: Organization embeddedness will account for variance in voluntary turnover that is above and beyond that accounted for by job satisfaction, job commitment, perceived alternatives, and job search in India and the United States.

Hypothesis 2: Community embeddedness will account for variance in voluntary turnover that is above and beyond that accounted for by job

satisfaction, job commitment, perceived alternatives, and job search in India and the United States.

Hypothesis 3: Family embeddedness will account for variance in voluntary turnover that is above and beyond that accounted for by job satisfaction, job commitment, perceived alternatives, and job search in India and the United States.

While I suggest that these overall measures of job embeddedness are likely to be important in both cultures, there is both theoretical and empirical work that suggests differences at the dimensional level of job embeddedness. The focus of this dissertation is on the interaction between job embeddedness dimensions and country; however, I also examine main effects of job embeddedness dimensions on turnover. In the next few sections, I discuss the cross-cultural work that guided my hypotheses on the moderating effect of country on the relationship between job embeddedness dimensions and turnover.

Organization Links

A number of studies have shown that collectivistic cultures emphasize social interdependence (Singelis & Brown, 1995), while individualist cultures tend to have looser social connections (Hofstede, 1991). Indeed, numerous authors have suggested that the social links an individual has at work are very important for collectivists (Pelled & Xin, 1997; Boyacigiller & Adler, 1991; Wasti, 2003b). Hofstede (1991) succinctly described the differences between employees in individualistic vs. collectivistic cultures by stating that in collectivistic societies,

“relationship prevails over the task” while in individualistic societies “the task is supposed to prevail over personal relationships” (p. 67). Hui and Yee (1999) even found that a warm and congenial work group was related to higher satisfaction among collectivists than among individualists.

Likewise, numerous scholars have asserted that connections (or *guanxi*) are very important in collectivistic cultures, such as China and Japan (Atsumi, 1979; Redding, Norman & Schlander, 1993; Xin & Pearce, 1996). Guanxi is defined as personal bonds with other organizational members that allow the individual to function in an organizational setting. Farh, Tsui, Xin and Cheng (1998) found that guanxi was important for effective functioning in Chinese organizations. Similarly, Atsumi (1979) claimed that the reason Japanese employees stay with a company is not loyalty but the fact that they value their *tsukiai*. Tsukiai are obligatory personal relationships that are essential to getting work done in Japanese organizations. Employees usually put a lot of time and effort into cultivating tsukiai with fellow employees and other work-related people (Atsumi, 1979).

Research in India fits well with the above described distinction between individualists and collectivists. A study by Menning (1997) found that personalized trust was the primary basis for local economic activity in the Surat (India) textile industry. Similarly, Harriss (2001) found that Indian businesses rely on personalized relationships. In the words of a CEO in Harriss’s study of Indian CEOs and business owners, “In this business it’s all contacts and connections.”(p. 8). More specifically, studies in India have found satisfaction with coworkers and supervisors to be significantly related to general attitudes, such as overall satisfaction and perceived

organizational support (Moideenkutty, Blau, Kumar & Nalakanth, 2001; Walumbwa, Wang, Lawler & Shi, 2004). Even organization-wide systems, such as selection and promotion, often rely upon social and relationship considerations (Kunango & Mendonca, 1994).

In addition, the most common explanation of why Indian samples differ from individualistic countries (in constructs such as the meaning of work, job satisfaction, and reactions to empowerment) has been the emphasis of Indian society on personalized relationships (Kwantes, 2003). In a cross-cultural study, Sekaran (1981) compared the job description index (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969) in India and the US, and found that the highest loading items on the job satisfaction scale were satisfaction with work in the US and satisfaction with coworkers in India. She also found that while similar factors predicted job satisfaction, the one factor that was significant in India but not in the US was communication in the organization. Kakar (1978) summarized this in his description that what an Indian is “sensitive to (or concerned with) are not the goals of work and productivity that are external to the relationship, but the unfolding of emotional affinity” (p. 125).

The concept of in-group can also be applied to understand cross-cultural differences in links and turnover. The more linked an individual is with organizational members, the more likely the individual is to consider the organization members as *in-group* (Kashima & Callan, 1994). Therefore, an individual in a collectivistic culture would feel a stronger sense of loyalty to the in-group, i.e. coworkers and supervisors, to which s/he is strongly linked. In addition, if the individual is *not well linked* and does not perceive co-workers and supervisors as in-

group, s/he would be extremely dissatisfied and more likely to leave the organization. On the other hand, individuals from an individualistic culture value autonomy and independence from groups (Bochner, 1994). Therefore, although organization links will be related to turnover, I suggest that the turnover decisions of individuals in an individualistic culture would be less influenced by links as compared to individuals from a collectivistic culture.

Hypothesis 4: Country will moderate the negative relationship between organization links and turnover such that the relationship is stronger in India as compared to the United States.

Community Links

Similarly, in collectivistic cultures, people tend to form stronger social bonds within the community in which they live. As described by Triandis, Bontempo, Villareal, Asai and Lucca (1988), relationships with the group are intensive in collectivistic cultures, while the relationships with groups in individualistic cultures are more detached, self-reliant, and independent of each other, therefore, individualists probably find it easier to move. Condon and Yousef (1874) have suggested a positive relationship between individualism and geographic mobility and a study by Dette and Dalbert (2005) found that individualists were more likely than collectivists to make a geographic move for a new job.

Research has found that one reason for the lower than expected mobility in India is the loss of the community networks when an individual relocates (Munshi & Rosenzweig, 2005). Similarly, Tripathi (1990) describes a research study on the high rate of absenteeism among mill workers in India. These mill workers were away

from their families for the job but made frequent trips to visit their families without informing the organization. Researchers recommended the allocation of company-provided housing in a way that kept groups from the same geographic region together to provide social support and alleviate the anxiety that the individual experienced in being away from family and friends. In India, even when people do relocate for work, research by Greenwood (1971) found that migrants are more likely to move to areas that friends and family have moved to in the past. Levy and Wadycki (1973) suggest that this might be not only because of the food, shelter, and information, but also the easier social transitions of moving closer to friends or family. As described by Singh and Kunango (1997), “Even those who have jobs elsewhere...often keep coming home for reasons such as marrying their children, attending ailing parents, and meeting other social obligations. Those who go to distant places in search of a job always wish to move closer to home despite adverse effects of such ‘social gravitation’ on their career progression” (p 97-98).

Finally, Aycan et al. (1999) measured the extent to which individuals feel loyal to their community and will fulfill their obligations even if they are inconvenienced in their study on human resources practices in India and Canada, and found Indians to be higher on loyalty to the community. Based on these studies, I suggest that community links will be a critical consideration in the decision to leave for individuals in a collectivistic culture, but will be less important for individuals in an individualistic culture. Overall, while community links will be related to turnover, I suggest that community links are more important in explaining variance in turnover in India as compared to the US.

Hypothesis 5: Country will moderate the negative relationship between community links and turnover such that the relationship is stronger in India as compared to the United States.

Organization and Job Fit

Research has shown both person-organization fit and person-job fit are significantly negatively correlated with intention to leave (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991). However, Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001) found that person-organization fit and person-job fit had unique effects on job satisfaction and intention to quit, suggesting that these should be studied as distinct constructs. Thus, based on the work of Kristof (1996) and Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson (2005), I expanded the dimension of organization fit to include both organization fit and job fit. My hypotheses are that *person-job fit* will be strongly related to turnover in the US as compared to India, and *person-organization fit* will be strongly related to turnover in India as compared to the US. I elaborate on these hypotheses below.

Person-Job Fit

Western organizational psychology has typically placed a strong emphasis on an individual's fit with the job, and multiple studies have found job fit to be a predictor of intention to quit in the US (Cable & Judge, 1996; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001). Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) conducted a meta-analysis of organization fit studies (primarily done in the US) and found a stronger negative correlation between turnover intentions and person-job fit than between turnover intentions and person-organization fit. In related work, the characteristics of the job have been

found to be critically important for motivation and job satisfaction in the US. A meta-analysis of over 200 studies (again primarily US) on the job characteristics model by Hackman and Oldham (1975) found support for the relationship between individual job characteristics (variety, autonomy, feedback, task identity, and task significance) and individual psychological and behavioral outcomes (Fried & Ferris, 1987). However, studies that examine the enrichment of jobs through enhancing job characteristics in other cultures, such as South Africa and Israel, have not found job characteristics to be related to outcomes such as job satisfaction (Orpen, 1976; Shamir & Drory, 1981). These findings suggest that the importance of job-fit might be culturally dependent.

Research in the US has also shown that a lack of fit between an individual's personality or underlying 'job preference' and actual job can result in low job satisfaction (Holland, 1985). While studies in the US have provided evidence for underlying job preferences predicting both job choice and job satisfaction (Meir & Yaari, 1988; Oleski & Subich, 1996; Smart, 1997; Swaney & Prediger, 1985), research in India has *not* found a lack of fit between underlying job preference and job choice to be associated with low job satisfaction (Leong, Austin, Sekaran & Komarraju, 1998). Similarly, Gupta and Tracey (2005) found that even within the US, American of Indian origin had lower job preference-job choice congruence than Americans, suggesting that job-fit might be less important in predicting turnover for Indians as compared to Americans.

Person-Organization Fit

On the other hand, fit with the organization is likely to be more important in India. Collectivism has been found to be associated with strong identification with the organization (Kashima & Callan, 1994) and congruence of individual and organization values is an important component of identification. Sinha and Kunango (1997) also suggest that a synergetic work culture in India depends on employees having a strong sense of identification and loyalty to the organization. In the absence of congruence between individual and organizational values, Indians experience lower organizational identity, lower job involvement, and lower job satisfaction (Prakash, 1982, as described in Tripathi, 1990).

Indirect evidence that person-organization fit is very important in predicting turnover in collectivistic cultures can be found in the selection literature. In India and Japan, organizations are likely to hire a person who fits the organization as compared to a person who fits the job (Sekiguchi, 2004; Sinha & Sinha, 1990). Indian organizations also tend to have human resources practices that emphasize person-organization fit (Ramamoorthy & Carroll, 1998). For example, organizations in India are more likely to use internal recruitment and word-of-mouth advertising, and rely strongly on recommendations for selection (Budhwar & Khatri, 2001; Sinha, 1997). These studies seem to suggest that, in India, the primary attachment to an organization is through fit with the organization, not with the job.

While researchers have suggested that job fit might be less important in collectivistic cultures (e.g., Sekiguchi, 2004; Sinha & Sinha, 1990), there has been no direct test of this hypothesis. I propose that while both person organization-fit and

person-job fit relate to lower turnover, person-job fit is more important in the US, while person-organization fit is more important in India.

Hypothesis 6a: Country will moderate the negative relationship between person-organization fit and turnover such that the relationship is stronger in India as compared to the United States.

Hypothesis 6b: Country will moderate the negative relationship between person-job fit and turnover such that the relationship is stronger in the United States as compared to India.

Community Fit

Community fit describes the extent to which an individual experiences good fit with a community in terms of activities and interests. I propose that community fit will have a *stronger* relationship with turnover in individualistic culture as compared to collectivistic cultures. A study by Rehu, Lusk and Wolff (2005) supported this idea. They found that the importance attached to desirability of living area was higher for American employees as compared to Chinese employees. One of the reasons for this might be the higher mobility among individuals in an individualistic culture (Condon & Yosuf, 1974; Dette & Dalbert, 2005), which leads to more choices in terms of community. Whereas in cultures such as India individuals are more likely to use existing social ties to guide their choice of location when they move (Munshi & Rosenzweig, 2006), as compared to choosing the area based on fit with the community. In addition, in cultures with less mobility, individuals are often in the same community for many years and therefore are less likely to think about fit with the community. Thus, while community fit will be related to lower turnover,

individual perceptions of community fit would be more salient in the US as compared to India.

Hypothesis 7: Country will moderate the negative relationship between community fit and turnover such that the relationship is stronger in the United States as compared to India.

Organization Sacrifice

Organization sacrifice includes factors such as financial benefits, perks, and interesting projects. As described earlier, research has shown a relationship between sacrifice and turnover. However, it is unclear whether the sacrifice dimensions will be more important for individualists or collectivists. Therefore, I consider my analysis with both organization and community sacrifice dimensions to be exploratory and do not propose any hypotheses.

There is some evidence regarding the differential value of organizational benefits (such as pay and growth opportunities) in different cultures. Rehu, Lusk and Wolff (2005) examined the importance of various compensations practices in different countries, and found that American employees found opportunity for advancement, higher pay, and fringe benefits to be more important than Chinese employees. An additional significant finding was that Chinese employees indicated that health benefits were less important to them than did American employees. The authors suggested that, because of the extended family network, Chinese employees are more confident about their support in old age. This indicates that organization sacrifice could be important for individualists.

On the other hand, individualistic countries tend to be rich, while collectivistic countries tend to be poor (Hofstede, 1991), suggesting that salary, benefits, and promotions might be considered more valuable in collectivistic cultures. As there is no clear evidence of organization sacrifice being important for either country, my analysis will be exploratory.

Community Sacrifice

Community sacrifices include factors like attachments as well as various possessions or contextual factors, such as home, community, geographical locations, etc. If an individual is highly embedded, s/he might not even consider job alternatives that require relocation (Mitchell et al., 2001). Again, it is unclear if community sacrifice will be more important for collectivists or individualists.

As described in the section on community fit, there are multiple reasons why fit with community is salient for individualists, including mobility and the importance of finding a community that matches one's needs. This might lead to more investment of time and energy in finding a community that provides the cultural and recreational amenities that are desirable. In such a situation, it might be harder for an individualist to leave a community that s/he really likes.

On the other hand, social relations for collectivists tend to be more enduring; thus, relocation for individuals in a collectivistic culture would involve sacrificing their existing in-groups. Since individuals in collectivistic cultures tend to have fewer in-groups (Triandis & Vassiliou, 1972) and tend to be less skilled in entering and leaving new social groups as compared to individuals in individualistic cultures (Triandis et al., 1988), leaving a community where one is already established would

be a major sacrifice. In addition, India has over 20 official languages (all distinct from each other) and corresponding cultural differences. Thus, moving away from the community and establishing oneself in a new location can be more challenging than relocating within the US. Thus, similar to the organization sacrifice dimension, my analysis for the community sacrifice dimension is exploratory.

Family Embeddedness

While the family is important in both the US and India, the family is an integral part of an individual's life in India. According to Gannon (2001), in India, the family "generally mediates an individual's experiences with the outside world." (p. 70). There is a large body of cross-cultural research, not directly related to turnover, which suggests that the inclusion of family perceptions could be a valuable addition to job embeddedness in India. Bordia and Blau (1998) found that, in India, a family pay referent, i.e. how much one made as compared to other members of the family, had a significant impact on satisfaction with pay. Similarly, Radhakrishnan and Chan (1997) found that Americans rated their own goals to be more important than their parent's goals for them, whereas Indians rated their own goals and parents goals to be equally important. In fact, Singh (1986, as reported in Sinha & Sinha, 1990) found that family members are frequently consulted on work-related matters.

I suggest that while family embeddedness will explain variance in turnover over and above job satisfaction, job commitment, job alternatives and job search, country will moderate this relationship such that family embeddedness explains more variance in turnover in India than in the US. I also propose while all three family dimensions of job embeddedness will be related to turnover, this relationship is

stronger in India as compared to the US.

Hypothesis 8a: Country will moderate the negative relationship between family embeddedness and turnover such that the relationship is stronger in India as compared to the United States.

Hypothesis 8b: Country will moderate the relationship between the family embeddedness dimensions of links, fit, and sacrifice with turnover such that the relationship is stronger in India as compared to the United States.

Summary of All Proposed Hypotheses

To summarize, the job embeddedness model of turnover has only been tested in the US and other individualistic countries. This dissertation explores the applicability of an expanded model of job embeddedness that includes family embeddedness in a collectivistic culture i.e. India, as well as in the US. Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 test the generalizability of the organization, community embeddedness and family factors in predicting turnover in both countries. Hypotheses 4 to 8 test if country moderates the relationship between the dimensions of job embeddedness and turnover.

Hypothesis 1: Organization embeddedness will account for variance in voluntary turnover that is above and beyond that accounted for by job satisfaction, job commitment, perceived alternatives, and job search in India and the United States.

Hypothesis 2: Community embeddedness will account for variance in voluntary turnover that is above and beyond that accounted for by job

satisfaction, job commitment, perceived alternatives, and job search in India and the United States.

Hypothesis 3: Family embeddedness will account for variance in voluntary turnover that is above and beyond that accounted for by job satisfaction, job commitment, perceived alternatives, and job search in India

Hypothesis 4: Country will moderate the negative relationship between organization links and turnover such that the relationship is stronger in India as compared to the United States.

Hypothesis 5: Country will moderate the negative relationship between community links and turnover such that the relationship is stronger in India as compared to the United States.

Hypothesis 6a: Country will moderate the negative relationship between person-organization fit and turnover such that the relationship is stronger in India as compared to the United States.

Hypothesis 6b: Country will moderate the negative relationship between person-job fit and turnover such that the relationship is stronger in the United States as compared to India.

Hypothesis 7: Country will moderate the negative relationship between community fit and turnover such that the relationship is stronger in the United States as compared to India.

Hypothesis 8a: Country will moderate the negative relationship between family embeddedness and turnover such that the relationship is stronger in

India as compared to the United States.

Hypothesis 8b: Country will moderate the relationship between the family embeddedness dimensions of links, fit, and sacrifice with turnover such that the relationship is stronger in India as compared to the United States.

CHAPTER 5: METHOD

Study Overview

The aim of this study was to examine and compare turnover in the US and in India. In order for the sample to be comparable, I focused on an industry with similar market characteristics in terms of stage of growth and turnover rates. The call center industry is one of the few industries in a growth stage in many parts of the world, including in the US and in India (Batt, Doellgast & Kwon, 2004; Deery & Kinnie, 2004; Morrell, 2006; Paul & Huws, 2002). In addition, the turnover rates in the call center industry are comparable across the US and India. The turnover rate in US call centers averages 33% (Batt, Doellgast & Kwon, 2004; Mercer Consulting, 2003) and the average turnover rate in Indian call centers is 31 % (Kelly Services, 2004; Roy, Sharma & Bhushan, 2004).

Data was collected at two points in time. First, call center agents completed a survey that measured key variables in this study such as, job embeddedness, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job alternatives, and job search. Second, voluntary turnover data for participants who completed the survey were gathered from organizations six months after survey completion.

Before analyzing the data, I took two steps to ensure that the data from the two countries were comparable. First, I did a multi-group confirmatory factor analysis that supported the three-factor structure of job embeddedness (organization, community and family) in both the US and in India. Second, I standardized the data to account for response biases. Finally, I used logistic regression to test the hypotheses because the outcome variable (turnover) is dichotomous. All regressions

controlled for differences in the samples described below (i.e., age, gender, number of years lived in area, external prestige and mode of customer contact).

In addition, during survey development, I conducted semi-structured interviews with three managers who had work experience in both Indian and international organizations. The purpose of these interviews was twofold. First, I explored the generalizability of organization and community embeddedness in Indian settings. These interviews provided support for generalizing job embeddedness to an Indian sample. Second, I gathered information on the value of family opinions on turnover in India. Again, these interviews provided support for a family dimension of job embeddedness. A summary of these interviews is provided in Appendix A. These managers also provided feedback on the items that were included in the family embeddedness scale. The same items were administered in both countries and feedback on items was solicited from key contacts in all organizations that participated in this study.

Sample

Data was collected from call centers in the spring and summer of 2006. I identified a number of organizations in the US and in India from the Hoover Business Directory using SIC and NAICS codes for call center businesses. These organizations were invited to participate in return for an analysis of their organization's turnover. In the US, data was collected from three organizations. In India, data was collected from three separate locations of the same organization. In two organizations, I attempted to collect data from all employees. However, the other two organizations had over 500 employees each and these organizations provided a

stratified sample that included agents from multiple locations and with a range of tenure with the organization. Invitations to the survey were sent to a total of 486 agents in the US and I received 344 responses, for a response rate of 70.78%. In India, the invitations were sent to a total of 629 agents and I received 482 responses, for a response rate of 76.63%. The final sample size after eliminating surveys that had missing data ¹ was 323 in the US and 474 in India.

Demographic characteristics of the two samples are reported in Table 1.

There were some differences in age, gender, mode of customer contact, perception of external prestige and number of years lived in the area. Therefore, these variables were used as controls for all the analyses. The mean age for respondents in India was lower than the US sample. This is also reflected in the fact that mean tenure and the percentage of respondents who were married was also higher in the US. There was also a gender difference in the two samples, with the US sample including more females than males, and the Indian sample including more males than females. This likely reflects the overall employment rates in India, which are 82% for males but only 34% for females according to the World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Report (Hausman, Tyson, & Zahidi, 2006). The samples were also different on perceived external prestige with the Indian sample being higher than the US sample. One reason for this difference could be that call center jobs in India are relatively new and perceived as good opportunities, whereas these jobs have existed in the US for a longer time. Finally, the samples differed in the mode of customer contact. As the data was collected in a call center, I asked individuals if they mainly worked on

¹ Respondents for whom I did not have data on job embeddedness were considered missing data.

inbound calls (where the customer calls into the call center), outbound calls (where the customer is contacted by the agent), or through chat or e-mail. The US sample mostly worked on inbound calls, while the India sample was split between inbound and outbound. The smallest groups in both samples was the chat and e-mail group. Respondents also reported on the number of hours they worked per week and the number of hours they worked per shift. The Indian sample was higher on both but neither sample differed substantially from the expected numbers of 40 hours per week and 8 hours per shift. Within each country, across organizations, the samples were similar on gender, but there were some differences in age.

The overall turnover rate for the US sample was 24.46% and the turnover rate for India was 20.46%. While some authors have suggested that involuntary and voluntary leavers tend to be similar, I focused only on the voluntary leavers as suggested by Mitchell et al. (2004). The rate of voluntary turnover was 19.19% in the US sample and 13.29% in the Indian sample.

Procedure

Data were collected through an online survey. Company executives sent out initial e-mails or letters, introducing the study to the participants. A few days after the introductory communication, I sent out an e-mail to the participants inviting them to participate in an online survey about employee attitudes. This e-mail provided information about the content of the survey and the time required to participate in the survey. This e-mail also contained an embedded link that allowed me to identify individual responses to the survey. E-mail addresses were later used as a unique identifier for follow-up turnover data. In cases where the employees did not have

organizational e-mails, I generated unique identifiers and passwords for survey participants and used these for follow-up turnover data. Organizations did not have any access to individual data. As an incentive, participants were offered the chance to win a gift card lottery. Participants then completed a 20-minute online survey that included questions on job embeddedness, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job search, job alternatives, turnover intentions, and demographics. I obtained turnover data from the HR or Operations contact person in each organization six months after the participants completed the survey.

Cultural Classification

I followed the two-step procedure proposed by Roberts et al. (2000) to establish cultural classification of the US and India in terms of individualism-collectivism. First, I reviewed the available literature on both the US and India to determine how previous cross-cultural work had described these two countries. Second, I measured collectivism at the individual level to determine if respondents were representative of their broader societal culture.

As previously described, in the literature the US has clearly been identified as a individualistic culture. While India has been found to be high on both individualism and collectivism, Sinha, Sinha, Verma and Sinha (2001) assert that Indians are likely to be individualist in impersonal situations, but not in situations involving family in-groups and family. The Indian sample was higher than the US sample on the individual level measure of collectivism.

Table 1. *Demographic Characteristics of the Two Samples*

Variable	U. S.	India
Total Sample	323	474
Gender		
Male	94	324
Female	226	138
Unreported	3	12
Age		
Mean	33	24
SD	11.23	3.22
Median (Mode)	30 (25)	24 (22 and 23)
Tenure (years)		
Mean	3.11	1.48
SD	3.23	0.78
Median	1.97	1.23
Level of Education		
Community college	99	47
Graduate school	29	218
Secondary school (high school)	46	11
University	144	185
Unreported	5	13
Mode of Operation		
Inbound	292	189
Outbound	13	181
E-mail or Chat	7	88
Unreported	11	16
Married	125 (38.7%)	59 (12.4%)
# of Years in Area	19.79	11.12
Work Hours		
Number of hours worked per week	37.68	43.22
Number of hours worked per shift	7.72	8.49
Turnover		
Voluntary	62 (19.19%)	63 (13.29%)
Total	79 (24.46%)	97 (20.46%)

Measures

The survey measured all the variables that appear in Table 2. All the measures included in the survey and the development of the family embeddedness scale is described in detail below. Items from these measures can be found in Appendix B.

Job Embeddedness

Organization and community embeddedness. Organization and community embeddedness were measured using a modified version of the job embeddedness scale developed by Mitchell et al. (2001). One modification was the expansion of organization fit to include both organization fit and job fit. A three-item job fit scale from Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001) was added to the survey. In addition, certain items in the original job embeddedness survey that did not clearly relate to the construct of interest were not included in the survey. For example, in the P-O fit scale, the item “I like my work schedule (e.g. flextime, shift)” was dropped as it did not measure fit with an organization’s values. As another example, in the community sacrifice scale, the item “My neighborhood is safe” was dropped, as it did not directly address the issue of sacrifice. A few items that might be unclear for the Indian sample were also not included in the survey. For example, the item “The perks on this job are outstanding” was dropped as “perks” is not a commonly used term in India.

The final 7 dimensions measured as a part of organization and community embeddedness were organization links, community links, organization fit, job fit, community fit, organization sacrifice, and community sacrifice. Most scale

reliabilities were adequate (Table 2). The overall reliability of the organization embeddedness scale was .85 for the US sample and .72 for the Indian sample. The overall reliability of the community embeddedness scale was .60 in the US sample, but only .55 in the Indian sample.

Family embeddedness. Multiple steps were taken in the creation of the family embeddedness items. The feedback received at each stage led to item and scale modifications and extensions. First, initial items were generated based on prior research and input from a cross-cultural research group that consisted of graduate students and faculty working in the area of cross-cultural research. Second, I interviewed three Indian managers (Appendix A) who supported the generalizability of organization and community embeddedness to India and provided additional evidence for the addition of a family embeddedness dimension. Third, I conducted a q-sort of the job embeddedness items with 6 graduate students. They sorted all the job embeddedness items (including the family embeddedness items) into the 9 dimensions of job embeddedness. Most items were accurately sorted. Finally, call center managers from India and the US provided feedback on these items. In addition, it was important to establish that the family dimensions was a valuable addition to the job embeddedness construct and that the underlying factors were similar across both the sample. A multi-group confirmatory factor analysis was used for this purpose and the details are described in the results section.

A sample family fit item is “My family is proud that I work for this organization.” A sample item for family links is “How many of your coworkers are well known to your family members” and a sample item for family sacrifice is “My

family would incur very few costs if I left this organization.” Overall reliability for the family embeddedness scale was .75 for the US sample and .82 for India sample. The reliability for family fit and family links was adequate, however the reliability of the family sacrifice measure was low, hence this scale was not used in any analysis.

Organizational Commitment

Commitment was measured using two sub-scales from the Lee, Meyer, Allen and Rhee (2001) organizational commitment scale. Affective commitment refers to the employee’s emotional commitment and identification with the organization. A sample item for this scale is “This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.” Affective commitment was measured with 5 items and had a reliability of .86 in the US and .81 in India. Continuance commitment refers to the cost associated with leaving the organization. A sample item from this scale is “Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization.” This was also measured with 5 items and the reliability was .83 in the US and .70 in India. The reliability for the overall 10-item commitment scale was .89 in the US and .83 in India.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured with an averaged composite of three items (as used by Mitchell et al., 2001). These items are "All in all, I am satisfied with my job," "In general, I don't like my job," and "In general, I like working here." The reliability of this scale was .86 in the US and .76 in India.

Table 2. *Standardized Scale Means, Standard Deviations, and Coefficient Alphas for Each Country*

Scale	USA (323)			India (474)		
	Mean	SD	Alpha	Mean	SD	Alpha
Organizational Commitment	-.41	.63	.89	.12	.59	.83
Job Satisfaction	.34	.74	.86	.67	.59	.76
Job Search	-.88	2.16	.92	-.88	1.98	.94
Job Alternatives	.15	.97	.89	-.38	1.05	.85
Perceived External Prestige	-.03	.63	.87	.36	.57	.89
Turnover Intentions	-.33	1.31	.94	-1.31	1.14	.89
Self Job Embeddedness	.07	.42	.85	.26	.35	.72
Community Embeddedness	.70	.49	.60	.44	.41	.55
Family Embeddedness	-.83	.42	.75	-.44	.48	.82
Job Fit	.35	.75	.61	.52	.60	.71
Organization Fit	.58	.59	.82	.36	.50	.71
Organization Links	-.32	.71	.65	.05	.64	.83
Organization Sacrifice	-.34	.64	.82	.15	.48	.83
Community Fit	.41	.65	.81	.00	.58	.69
Community Links	1.62	.56	.63	1.37	.44	.63
Community Sacrifice	.03	.77	.80	-.07	.66	.78
Family Fit	-.02	.64	.87	.20	.63	.88
Family Links	-1.76	.66	.69	-1.20	.86	.70
Family Sacrifice	-.71	.71	.46	-.33	.58	.31

Job Alternatives

Job alternatives were measured with three items. Two items were from Lee and Mowday (1987) and asked about the probability of finding an acceptable alternative job in another organization. The third item asked about the probability of a finding a job that is acceptable to the family. A sample item from this scale is “If you search for another job within a year’s time, what are the chances that you can find an acceptable job in another organization.” The reliability of this scale was .89 in the US and .85 in India.

Job Search Behavior

Blau’s (1994) 12-item measure of job search was used. This measure divides job search into preparatory and active job search. An example of a preparatory job search question is “In the past 6 months how often have you prepared/revised your resume” and an example of an active job search questions is “In the past 6 months have often have you had a job interview with a prospective employer.” The overall reliability of this scale was .92 in the US and .94 in India.

External Prestige

A four-item measure of perceived external prestige from Herrbach, Mignonac and Gatignon (2004) was included in the survey. In their study of managerial turnover in France, they found perceived external prestige to have a direct impact on intention to quit. In addition, the semi-structured interviews suggested that perceived external prestige might be an important factor that influences turnover in India, thus I decided to include a measure of perceived external prestige in this survey. A sample item from this measure is “People in this area think highly of my organization.” The

reliability of this scale was .87 in the US and .89 in India.

Turnover

Maertz and Campion (1998) defined voluntary turnover incidents as "Instances wherein management agrees that the employee had the physical opportunity to continue employment with the company, at the time of termination" (p. 50). A final list of all voluntary and involuntary turnovers was obtained from the organizations six-month after the initial survey was completed by respondents.

I also measured turnover intentions in the survey. Turnover intentions were measured for exploratory analyses as well as practical reasons i.e., to be used as a proxy for turnover in case I was unable to get turnover data from the participating organizations. Four items were used to measure turnover intentions. Three of these were adapted from O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991). These items were "I would prefer another job to the one I have," "If I have my way, I would not be working for this company a year from now," and "I have seriously thought about leaving this company." The final item was from Hom, Griffeth and Sellaro (1984), "How likely is it that you will leave the organization in the next 12 months?" The reliability of this 4-item measure was .94 in the US and .89 in India. Exploratory analyses with turnover intentions are described at the end of the results section.

Individual Level Collectivism

Collectivism was measured with three vertical collectivism items from the INDCOL measure by Triandis and Gelfand (1998). I focused on vertical collectivism because a number of hypotheses are based on the notion that collectivists are likely to prefer personalized relationships and want to feel connected with their group or

organization. Collectivism was measured both for exploratory analyses as well as a sample check of the level of collectivism in the two samples. Sample items from the scale are “It is important to me that I respect the decision made by my group” and “It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want.” The reliability of this scale was .70 in the US and .71 in India. I examined differences between the samples on this scale and the Indian sample was significantly higher than the US sample ($t(784) = 6.23, p < .05$). Exploratory analyses with individual level collectivism are also described at the end of the results section.

CHAPTER 6: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

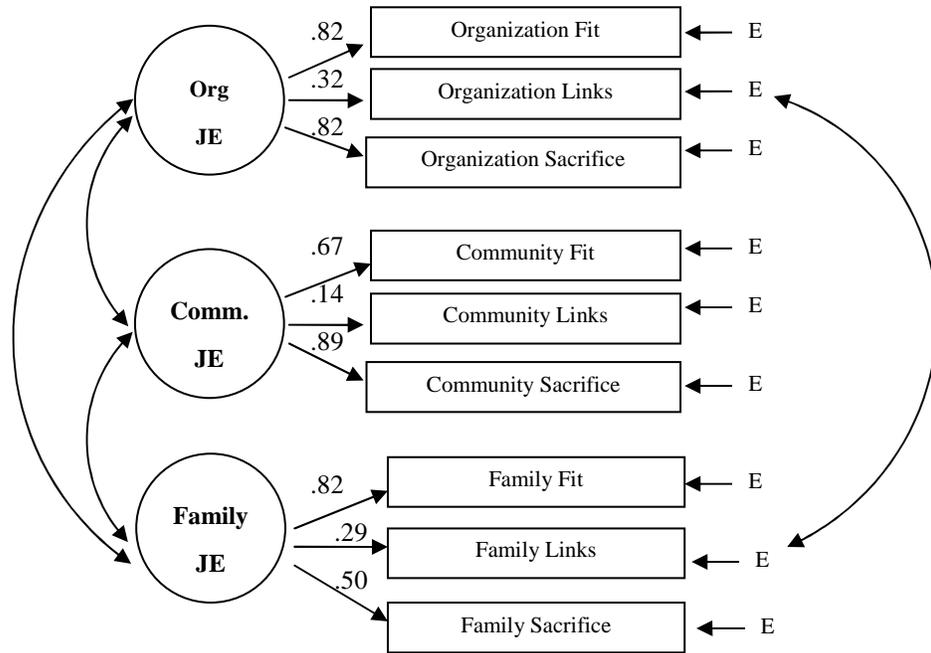
Equivalence and bias were two issues that needed to be addressed before any meaningful cross-cultural comparisons were possible (Van de Vijver & Leung, 1997). To examine equivalence of the factor structure of job embeddedness in the US and India, I used a two-step confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) procedure (Cheung & Rensvold, 1999; Spencer, Fitch, Grogan-Kaylor & Mcbeath, 2005). Testing for equivalence across the two groups required that a structure was specified and tested across both groups simultaneously through the use of a multi-group confirmatory factor analysis. This step was especially important because job embeddedness was being explored (and expanded) in a different culture for the first time. Thus, the aim of using multi-group CFA was twofold. The first was to show that the factors of job embeddedness, as specified in this dissertation, were equivalent in both the US sample and in the Indian sample. The second was to show that the new dimension of family embeddedness was also manifested across both the groups.

Cheung and Rensvold (1999) suggest the first step in a multi group CFA is to establish a baseline model in which the dimensions of job embeddedness load on to specified factors. This CFA specified three latent constructs, organization embeddedness, community embeddedness, and family embeddedness (see Figures 8 and 9), based on the nine manifest scales of links, fit, and sacrifice². In this first step,

² I allowed the error term for organization links that included such items as “How often do you socialize with your coworkers outside of work?” to co-vary with the error term for family links that included items such as “How many of your coworkers are well known to your family members?” because they captured separate aspects of an individual’s attachment to the organization, but are likely to be highly correlated.

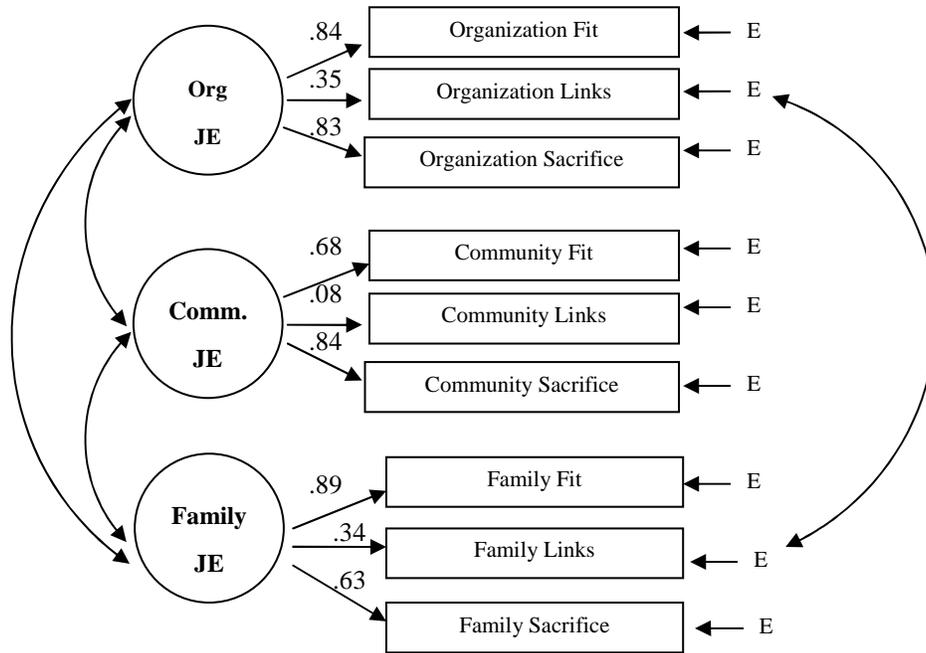
all the parameters were allowed to vary between the US and the Indian sample. I found a good fit for this model (CFI = .97; RMSEA = .05; SRMR = .05). The second step was establishing factor invariance across the two groups. Factor invariance requires that items load on the same latent constructs across groups *and* that the factor loadings across the two groups are not significantly different from each other (Cheung & Rensvold, 1999). I tested the same model, but with the parameters constrained to be equal across both groups (error variances were not constrained equal). This model also had a good fit (CFI = .97; RMSEA = .05; SRMR = .06). Finally, I compared the first unconstrained baseline model with the nested invariant model using chi-square fit statistics. The chi-square difference between the two models after the introduction of an equality constraint was not significant ($\chi^2 = 8.45$, $df = 7$), thus demonstrating that the factor structure of job embeddedness in the US and India can be considered equivalent (Cheung & Rensvold, 1999).

Figure 8. CFA Model for Job Embeddedness in US³



³ The coefficients presented in this figure are the standardized coefficients for the US.

Figure 9. CFA Model for Job Embeddedness in India⁴



A second important consideration in cross-cultural research is response bias (Van de Vijver & Leung, 1997). Bias can occur when respondents show a systematic tendency to select extreme or modest response, or a systematic tendency to shift responses to the high or low end of the scale (Fisher, 2004). Standardization can be used to correct for such response biases that are not due to the variables of interest. To account for cross-cultural response bias I followed the recommendation of Van de Vijver and Leung (1997) and standardized the raw data by ipsitization. This is a within-individual adjustment of scores for each individual using the mean and standard deviation across all variables (Fisher, 2004). I utilized the mean and

⁴ The coefficients presented in this figure are the standardized coefficients for India.

standard deviation of all the items across different scales to create a standardized score that accounted for an individual's response biases (e.g., acquiescence, extreme response). This is a widely used standardization process in cross-cultural studies (e.g., Munroe, 1979; Wagner, Kirchler, Clack, Tekarslan & Verma, 1990) and Fisher (2004) found it to be the most commonly used form of standardization in cross-cultural research between 1970 and 2002. This standardization provides a score for relative endorsement of an item compared to the position of the individual on other items (Hicks, 1970).

Turnover was a dichotomous variable, therefore logistic regressions were used to test the hypotheses. The goal of this study was to test the additional variance in turnover explained by job embeddedness over and above commonly used variables. Chi-square tests of model fit provided information on whether a model with the addition of a job embeddedness variable differed significantly from a model without the variable. Thus, chi-square tests were used to explore the variance accounted for by the addition of job embeddedness dimensions and the interactions of job embeddedness and country. Chi square changes associated with the job embeddedness dimensions and with the interactions of job embeddedness and country are presented in the third column of the logistic regressions tables presented later. In keeping with previous work by Mitchell et al. (2001), because the construct of job embeddedness does not specify a clear direction, one-tailed tests were used to test all hypotheses. At the variable level, the Wald Statistic provided information on the significance of individual logistic regression coefficients and the exponential b provided information about directionality (Values of b above 1 indicate positive

effect and below 1 indicate negative effect). Finally, the regression coefficients were used to calculate probability of turnover for graphing the interactions.

The logistic regressions described below, include a number of control variables. I controlled for gender, age, mode of customer contact, number of years in area and external prestige based on sample differences. In addition, I was testing for the variance accounted for by job embeddedness above that accounted for by job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job alternatives, and job search and these variables were controlled in the regressions. The logistic regression results presented are based on standardized data, however results are essentially the same with unstandardized data.

Tables 3, 4 and 5 present the correlations between all the variables in the study, both for the US and the Indian sample. As can be seen, job satisfaction, job commitment and the job embeddedness dimensions are significantly negatively correlated with turnover and turnover intentions, while job alternative and job search are significantly positively correlated with turnover and turnover intentions.

Table 3. *Correlations in the US sample*^a

	1 ^b	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Turnover											
2. Turnover Intentions	.14*										
3. Organizational Commitment	-.13*	-.55**									
4. Job Satisfaction	-.16**	-.68**	.58**								
5. Job Search	.24**	.61**	-.40**	-.45**							
6. Job Alternatives	.20**	.55**	-.30**	-.41**	.42**						
7. Perceived External Prestige	-.06	-.40**	.35**	.32**	-.31**	-.14*					
8. Self Job Embeddedness	-.14*	-.51**	.50**	.64**	-.36**	-.26**	.26**				
9. Community Job Embeddedness	.03	-0.03	-.15**	-.28**	.03	-.10	-.29**	-.35**			
10. Family Job Embeddedness	-.15**	-.29**	.29**	.31**	-.24**	-.11*	.13*	.33**	-.26**		
11. Job Fit	-.22**	-.39**	.41**	.51**	-.28**	-.26**	.17**	.72**	-.19**	.17**	
12. Organization Fit	-.02	-.36**	.29**	.46**	-.19**	-.11*	.19**	.66**	-.27**	.06	.35**
13. Organization Links	.00	.12*	.05	.01	.07	.10	-.01	.48**	-.18**	.25**	.08
14. Organization Sacrifice	-.10	-.67**	.53**	.63**	-.50**	-.37**	.32**	.64**	-.23**	.32**	.34**
15. Community Fit	.05	.10	-.15**	-.24**	.13*	.03	-.21**	-.26**	.69**	-.22**	-.15**
16. Community Links	-.01	-.13*	.04	-.09	-.10	-.15**	-.12*	-.15**	.67**	-0.07	-.05
17. Community Sacrifice	.02	-.05	-.17**	-.25**	.00	-.12*	-.26**	-.33**	.82**	-.25**	-.20**
18. Family Fit	-.08	-.62**	.44**	.56**	-.41**	-.28**	.40**	.46**	-.30**	.56**	.34**
19. Family Links	-.01	.22**	-.05	-.12*	.14*	.16**	-.15**	.04	-.09	.60**	-.08
20. Family Sacrifice	-.18**	-.16**	.17**	.15**	-.19**	-.10	.01	.13*	-.11*	.72**	.08

Table 3 Continued...

	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1. Turnover								
2. Turnover Intentions								
3. Organizational Commitment								
4. Job Satisfaction								
5. Job Search								
6. Job Alternatives								
7. Perceived External Prestige								
8. Self Job Embeddedness								
9. Community Job Embeddedness								
10. Family Job Embeddedness								
11. Job Fit								
12. Organization Fit								
13. Organization Links	.10							
14. Organization Sacrifice	.31**	-.03						
15. Community Fit	-.13*	-.08	-.29**					
16. Community Links	-.12*	-.18**	-.01	.23**				
17. Community Sacrifice	-.30**	-.15**	-.19**	.36**	.33**			
18. Family Fit	.30**	.08	.45**	-.23**	-.16**	-.26**		
19. Family Links	-.17**	.40**	-.12*	-.04	-.01	-.121*	-.05	
20. Family Sacrifice	-.02	-.01	.27**	-.15**	.04	-.11	.14*	.18**

^a n= 306 for column 1 as involuntary turnover is not included in the analysis; n ranges from 321 to 323 for other variables.

^b Column 1 presents point-biserial correlations. All other correlations shown are Pearson's correlations.

* p < .05

** p < .01

Table 4. *Correlations in the Indian Sample*^a

	1 ^b	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Turnover											
2. Turnover Intentions Organizational	.07										
3. Commitment	-.13**	-.44**									
4. Job Satisfaction	-.12*	-.42**	.57**								
5. Job Search	-.04	.58**	-.20**	-.17**							
6. Job Alternatives	.07	.47**	-.35**	-.32**	.26**						
7. Perceived External Prestige	-.06	-.46**	.36**	.43**	-.39**	-.30**					
8. Self Job Embeddedness Community Job	-.13**	-.36**	.47**	.51**	-.11*	-.28**	.32**				
9. Embeddedness	.00	-.23**	-.15**	-.24**	-.22**	-.01	-.17**	-.31**			
10. Family Job Embeddedness	-.10*	-.42**	.40**	.33**	-.29**	-.28**	.33**	.29**	.00		
11. Job Fit	.02	-.19**	.20**	.28**	-0.03	-.11*	.15**	.68**	-.20**	.09	
12. Organization Fit	-.14**	-.27**	.41**	.46**	-.10*	-.24**	.31**	.72**	-.26**	.15**	.40**
13. Organization Links	-.13**	.02	.19**	.14**	.09	-.06	.07	.53**	-.17**	.22**	.07
14. Organization Sacrifice	-.07	-.51**	.44**	.47**	-.29**	-.35**	.35**	.58**	-.13**	.28**	.22**
15. Community Fit	-.01	-.13**	-.08	-.11*	-0.05	-.04	-0.08	-.17**	.65**	-.08	-.13**
16. Community Links	-.04	-.22**	-.14**	-.20**	-.16**	-.02	-.15**	-.21**	.70**	.03	-.10*
17. Community Sacrifice	.01	-.19**	-.08	-.16**	-.25**	.01	-.12*	-.27**	.80**	.06	-.20**
18. Family Fit	-.09	-.55**	.36**	.40**	-.38**	-.38**	.49**	.28**	-.03	.69**	.16**
19. Family Links	-.04	-.11*	.18**	.12**	-.06	-.06	.04	.16**	.07	.74**	-.01
20. Family Sacrifice	-.09	-.29**	.35**	.21**	-.22**	-.20**	.23**	.19**	-.06	.65**	.06

Table 4 Continued...

	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1. Turnover								
2. Turnover Intentions								
3. Organizational Commitment								
4. Job Satisfaction								
5. Job Search								
6. Job Alternatives								
7. Perceived External Prestige								
8. Self Job Embeddedness								
9. Community Job Embeddedness								
10. Family Job Embeddedness								
11. Job Fit								
12. Organization Fit								
13. Organization Links	.16**							
14. Organization Sacrifice	.33**	-.02						
15. Community Fit	-.14**	-.03	-.13**					
16. Community Links	-.18**	-.16**	-.09	.25**				
17. Community Sacrifice	-.22**	-.17**	-.06	.24**	.40**			
18. Family Fit	.22**	.03	.35**	-.05	.00	.02		
19. Family Links	0.04	.29**	.06	-.03	.11*	.06	.20**	
20. Family Sacrifice	.09*	.09*	.25**	-.11*	-.08	.05	.35**	.16**

^a n= 440 for column 1 as involuntary turnover in not included in the analysis; n ranges from 469 to 474 for other variables.

^b Column 1 presents point-biserial correlations. All other correlations shown are pearsons's correlations.

* p < .05

** p < .01

Table 5. Correlations with control variables in the US and India sample

	US				India			
	Gender ^a	Age	Years in Area	Mode	Gender ^a	Age	Years in Area	Mode
1. Turnover ^a	-.01	-.16**	-.11	-.01	.04	-.12*	-.09	-.11*
2. Turnover Intentions	.09	-.12*	-.06	.05	.00	.08	.05	-.01
3. Organizational Commitment	-.05	.09	-.01	.05	.13**	.01	-.12*	.08
4. Job Satisfaction	-.15**	.06	-.02	.06	.11*	-.10*	-.09*	.07
5. Job Search	.05	-.12*	-.13*	.00	-.06	.08	.00	.05
6. Job Alternatives	.04	-.23**	-.08	-.04	-.04	-.01	.04	.01
7. Perceived External Prestige	-.11*	-.02	-.03	-.05	.04	-.11*	-.13**	.18**
8. Self Job Embeddedness	-.13*	-.01	-.01	-.03	.02	-.02	-.06	-.04
9. Community Job Embeddedness	.19**	.15**	.24**	-.02	-.09*	.07	.18**	-.06
10. Family Job Embeddedness	-.10	.12*	-.07	.01	.09*	-.08	-.09*	-.01
11. Job Fit	-.04	.10	-.02	-.03	.01	-.03	-.02	-.11*
12. Organization Fit	-.10	-.02	-.07	-.04	.06	.02	-.06	.03
13. Organization Links	-.12*	-.16**	.04	.03	.03	.04	-.04	.01
14. Organization Sacrifice	-.06	.05	.01	-.02	-.03	-.102*	-.02	-.02
15. Community Fit	.16*	.07	.16*	-.03	-.05	.06	.06	.01
16. Community Links	.18**	.34**	.19**	-.07	-.07	.17**	.26**	-.07
17. Community Sacrifice	.10	-.01	.18**	.03	-.08	-.03	.12**	-.05
18. Family Fit	-.11	-.01	-.05	-.04	.07	-.13**	-.08	.02
19. Family Links	.00	-.06	-.07	.01	.11*	-.02	-.02	-.01
20. Family Sacrifice	-.08	.27**	.00	.04	-.01	-.03	-.11*	-.03

^a The correlation provided for this variable is point-biserial. All other correlations shown are pearsons's correlations.

* p < .05

** p < .01

Hypothesis 1 suggested that organization embeddedness would account for variance in voluntary turnover above and beyond that accounted for by job satisfaction, job commitment, perceived job alternatives, and job search across both the US and India. As can be seen in Table 6, organization embeddedness predicted turnover (χ^2 change = 2.65, $p < .10$; Wald statistic = 2.65, $p < .05$) over and above the specified variables. Moreover, there was no interaction with country, suggesting that organization embeddedness was important in both the US and in India.

Table 6. *Logistic Regression of Organization Embeddedness on Turnover*^a

Variables	<i>b</i>	Wald Statistic	Chi-sq Change
Age	.97	4.61*	
Gender	1.05	.04	
Years in Area	.98	4.81**	
Country	1.48	1.69	
Mode (1)	3.14	6.52**	
Mode (2)	2.77	4.99**	
External Prestige	1.18	.71	
Job Alternatives	1.10	2.83*	
Job Search	1.10	.56	
Job Satisfaction	.85	.60	
Job Commitment	.83	.76	
Organization JE	.57	2.65*	2.65*
Organization JE X Country	1.23	.43	.43

^a Values of *b* above 1 indicate positive effect, values at 1.00 indicate no effect and values below 1.0 indicate negative effect

* $p < .05$

** $P < .01$

One-tailed tests

Hypothesis 2 suggested that community embeddedness would account for variance in voluntary turnover above and beyond that accounted for by job satisfaction, job commitment, perceived job alternatives and job search across both the US and India. As can be seen in Table 7, there was a non-significant effect of

community embeddedness on turnover. Thus, hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Table 7. *Logistic Regression of Community Embeddedness on Turnover*^a

Variables	<i>b</i>	Wald Statistic	Chi-sq Change
Age	.97	4.46*	
Gender	1.02	.01	
Years in Area	.98	5.29**	
Country	1.48	1.71	
Mode (1)	2.93	5.85**	
Mode (2)	2.72	4.85**	
External Prestige	1.19	.81	
Job Alternatives	1.11	3.40*	
Job Search	1.11	.75	
Job Satisfaction	.77	1.68	
Job Commitment	.77	1.51	
Community JE	1.27	.86	.86
Community JE X Country	1.69	1.22	1.22

^a Values of *b* above 1 indicate positive effect, values at 1.00 indicate no effect and values below 1.0 indicate negative effect

* *p* < .05

** *P* < .01

One-tailed tests

Hypothesis 3 examined the impact of the newly added family embeddedness factor on turnover by suggesting that family embeddedness would account for variance in voluntary turnover above and beyond that accounted for by job satisfaction, job commitment, perceived job alternatives and job search across both the US and India. I found support for a main effect of family embeddedness on turnover (χ^2 change = 2.73, *p* < .05; Wald statistic = 2.71, *p* < .05). The results can be seen in Table 8. The higher the family embeddedness, the more likely the individual was to stay with the organization, both the US and in India.

Table 8.. *Logistic Regression of Family Embeddedness on Turnover* ^a

Variables	<i>b</i>	Wald Statistic	Chi-sq Change
Age	.97	3.73*	
Gender	1.02	.00	
Years in Area	.98	5.33**	
Country	1.39	1.18	
Mode (1)	3.02	6.17**	
Mode (2)	2.91	5.49**	
External Prestige	1.18	.69	
Job Alternatives	1.06	.20	
Job Search	1.10	3.01*	
Job Satisfaction	.77	1.88	
Job Commitment	.83	.82	
Family JE	.66	2.71*	2.73*
Family JE X Country	.81	.20	.20

^a Values of *b* above 1 indicate positive effect, values at 1.00 indicate no effect and values below 1.0 indicate negative effect

* *p* < .05

** *P* < .01

One-tailed tests

Hypothesis 4 suggested that the relationship between organization links and turnover would be moderated by country such that the relationship is stronger in India as compared to the United States. There was no main effect of organization links on turnover, but as shown in Table 9, there was an interaction between country and organization links (χ^2 change = 3.17, *p* < .05; Wald statistic = 3.15, *p* < .05). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported. This interaction is illustrated in Figure 10, and demonstrates that a decrease in the probability of turnover as the number of links increase was greater for the Indian sample than the US sample.

Table 9. *Logistic Regression of Organization Links by Country on Turnover*^a

Variables	<i>b</i>	Wald Statistic	Chi-sq Change
Age	.97	4.86**	
Gender	1.06	.05	
Years in Area	.98	4.46*	
Country	1.45	1.53	
Mode (1)	2.92	5.82**	
Mode (2)	2.79	5.10**	
External Prestige	1.15	.53	
Job Alternatives	1.12	.86	
Job Search	1.10	3.17*	
Job Satisfaction	.74	2.35	
Job Commitment	.80	1.08	
Organization Links	.78	2.41	2.41
Organization Links X Country	1.75	3.15*	3.17*

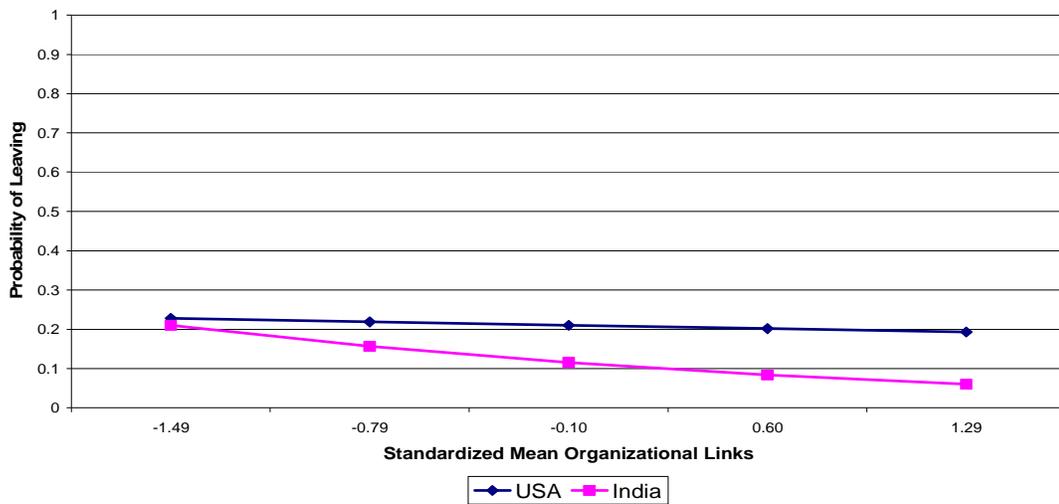
^a Values of *b* above 1 indicate positive effect, values at 1.00 indicate no effect and values below 1.0 indicate negative effect

* *p* < .05

** *P* < .01

One-tailed tests

Figure 10. Interaction of Organization Links and Country on Turnover Probability



Hypothesis 5 suggested that the relationship between community links and turnover would be moderated by country such that the relationship would be stronger in India as compared to the United States. There was no main effect of community links on turnover, but as predicted by Hypothesis 4, there was an interaction between community links and country (χ^2 change = 3.54, $p < .10$; Wald statistic = 3.51, $p < .05$; see table 10). Figure 11 shows the lower probability of turnover for the Indian sample as the number of community links increased. However, the probability of turnover appeared to increase in the US sample. While surprising, Mitchell et al. (2001) have suggested that community links might be linked to higher turnover when they provide access to information about other jobs.

Table 10. *Logistic Regression of Community Links by Country on Turnover*^a

Variables	B	Wald Statistic	Chi-sq Change
Age	.97	4.49*	
Gender	1.02	.01	
Years in Area	.98	4.93**	
Country	1.52	1.95	
Mode (1)	2.91	5.78**	
Mode (2)	2.77	5.04**	
External Prestige	1.16	.60	
Job Alternatives	1.10	.60	
Job Search	1.10	3.10*	
Job Satisfaction	.75	2.15	
Job Commitment	.77	1.61	
Community Links	1.13	.26	.26
Community Links X Country	2.34	3.51*	3.54*

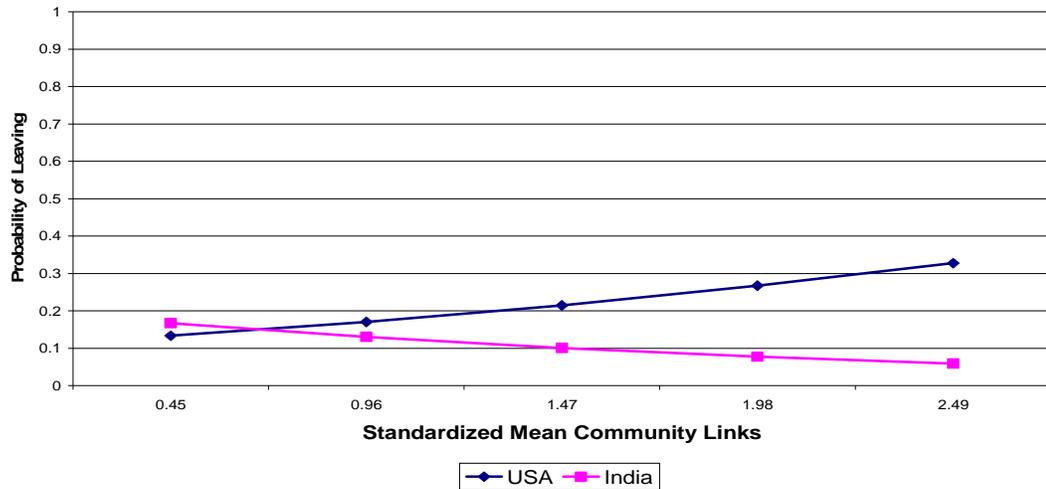
^a Values of b above 1 indicate positive effect, values at 1.00 indicate no effect and values below 1.0 indicate negative effect

* $p < .05$

** $P < .01$

One-tailed tests

Figure 11. Interaction of Community Links and Country on Turnover Probability



Hypothesis 6a suggested that the relationship between person-organization fit and turnover would be moderated by country such that the relationship would be stronger in India as compared to the United States. There was no main effect of organization links on turnover, but as predicted by hypothesis 6a, the interaction between organization fit and country marginally increased the prediction of turnover (χ^2 change = 2.48, $p < .06$; Wald statistic = 2.47, $p < .06$; see Table 11). This interaction was in the hypothesized direction, such that organization fit predicted turnover more strongly in India than the US. As can be seen in Figure 12, an increase in organization fit lowered the probability of turnover in India, but not in the US.

Table 11. *Logistic Regression Organization Fit by Country on Turnover^a*

Variables	B	Wald Statistic	Chi-sq Change
Age	.97	4.30*	
Gender	1.01	.00	
Years in Area	.98	4.87**	
Country	1.60	2.33	
Mode (1)	2.96	5.95**	
Mode (2)	2.74	4.89**	
External Prestige	1.16	.61	
Job Alternatives	1.09	.54	
Job Search	1.10	3.03*	
Job Satisfaction	.77	1.62	
Job Commitment	.78	1.37	
Organization Fit	.86	.48	.48
Organization Fit X Country	1.84	2.47 ^ϕ	2.48 ^ϕ

^a Values of b above 1 indicate positive effect, values at 1.00 indicate no effect and values below 1.0 indicate negative effect

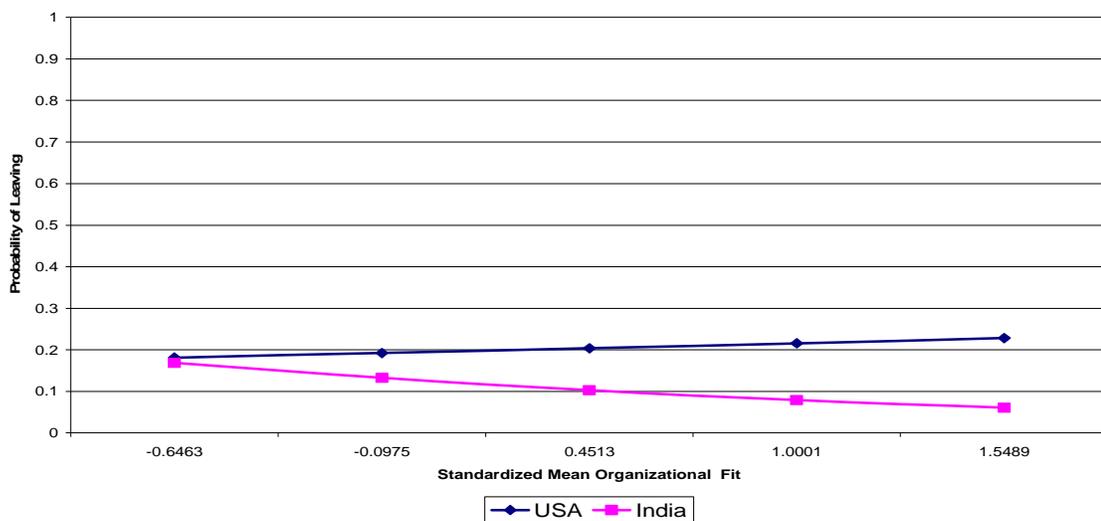
* p < .05

** P < .01

^ϕ p < .10

One-tailed tests

Figure 12. **Interaction of Organization Fit and Country on Turnover Probability**



Hypothesis 6b suggested that person-job fit would interact with country such that the relationship would be stronger in the US than in India. There was no main effect of person-job fit on turnover, but as predicted by hypothesis 6b, there was an interaction between country and person-job fit (χ^2 change = 3.94, $p < .05$; Wald statistic = 3.85, $p < .05$; see Table 12). Figure 13 illustrates this interaction. As job fit increases, the probability of turnover dropped in the US sample, but there was no corresponding drop in the probability of turnover in the Indian sample.

Table 12. *Logistic Regression of Job Fit by Country on Turnover^a*

Variables	<i>b</i>	Wald Statistic	Chi-sq Change
Age	.97	4.02*	
Gender	1.01	.00	
Years in Area	.98	4.88**	
Country	1.45	1.51	
Mode (1)	3.19	6.65**	
Mode (2)	2.87	5.32**	
External Prestige	1.16	.56	
Job Alternatives	1.09	.54	
Job Search	1.10	2.75*	
Job Satisfaction	.81	1.15	
Job Commitment	.79	1.24	
Job Fit	.77	2.51	2.50
Job Fit X Country	.55	3.85*	3.94*

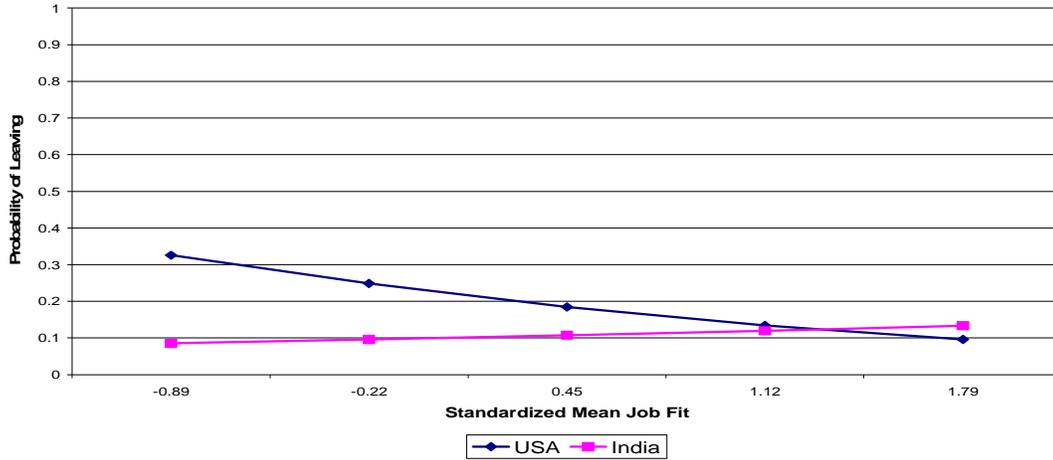
^a Values of *b* above 1 indicate positive effect, values at 1.00 indicate no effect and values below 1.0 indicate negative effect

* $p < .05$

** $P < .01$

One-tailed tests

Figure 13. Interaction of Job Fit and Country on Turnover Probability



Hypothesis 7 suggested that country would moderate the relationship between community fit and turnover so that community fit would predict turnover more strongly in the US than in India. As seen in Table 13, there was no main effect of community fit on turnover and Hypothesis 7 was not supported. In follow up analyses, I did not find any significant main effects or interactions between organization sacrifice and country and community sacrifice and country on turnover (see Table 14 and 15).

Table 13. *Logistic Regression of Community Fit by Country on Turnover*^a

Variables	B	Wald Statistic	Chi-sq Change
Age	.97	4.33*	
Gender	1.02	.01	
Years in Area	.98	4.97**	
Country	1.46	1.56	
Mode (1)	2.91	5.79**	
Mode (2)	2.75	4.96**	
External Prestige	1.18	.71	
Job Alternatives	1.09	.53	
Job Search	1.10	3.25*	
Job Satisfaction	.76	1.91	
Job Commitment	.78	1.45	
Community Fit	1.20	1.07	1.08
Community Fit X Country	1.31	.61	.61

^a Values of b above 1 indicate positive effect, values at 1.00 indicate no effect and values below 1.0 indicate negative effect

* p < .05

** P < .01

One-tailed tests

Table 14. *Logistic Regression of Organization Sacrifice by Country on Turnover*^a

Variables	B	Wald Statistic	Chi-sq Change
Age	.97	4.15*	
Gender	1.00	.00	
Years in Area	.98	4.73**	
Country	1.58	2.26	
Mode (1)	2.88	5.66**	
Mode (2)	2.79	5.11*	
External Prestige	1.14	.43	
Job Alternatives	1.11	.69	
Job Search	1.10	3.16*	
Job Satisfaction	.70	2.88*	
Job Commitment	.75	1.83	
Organization Sacrifice	1.18	.45	.45
Organization Sacrifice X Country	1.33	.32	.31

^a Values of b above 1 indicate positive effect, values at 1.00 indicate no effect and values below 1.0 indicate negative effect

* p < .05

** P < .01

One-tailed tests

Table 15. *Logistic Regression of Community Sacrifice by Country on Turnover*^a

Variables	B	Wald Statistic	Chi-sq Change
Age	0.97	4.07*	
Gender	1.01	.00	
Years in Area	.98	4.90**	
Country	1.51	1.88	
Mode (1)	2.93	5.86**	
Mode (2)	2.73	4.87**	
External Prestige	1.17	.62	
Job Alternatives	1.10	.60	
Job Search	1.10	3.15*	
Job Satisfaction	.75	2.07	
Job Commitment	.77	1.53	
Community Sacrifice	1.07	.20	.20
Community Sacrifice X Country	1.07	.05	05

^a Values of b above 1 indicate positive effect, values at 1.00 indicate no effect and values below 1.0 indicate negative effect

* p < .05

** P < .01

One-tailed tests

Hypothesis 8a suggested that country would moderate the relationship between family embeddedness and turnover such that the relationship would be stronger in India as compared to the US. As can be seen in table 8 Hypothesis 8a was not supported. Hypothesis 8b suggested the interaction of the family fit or family links with country, such that these dimensions would be related strongly to turnover in India but not the United States. There were no main effects of family fit or family links on turnover and Hypothesis 8b was not supported (Tables 16 and 17). Family sacrifice was not included in the analysis due to low reliability.

Finally, as a post-hoc test, I included all significant job embeddedness dimension interactions with country in a single regression. As can be seen in Table 18, country interactions with organization links, community link, job fit, and organization fit were all significant even when all of them are included in the same

regression. The inclusion of all 4 interactions significantly improved model fit (χ^2 change = 18.76, $p < .01$).

Table 16. *Logistic Regression of Family Links by Country on Turnover*^a

Variables	<i>b</i>	Wald Statistic	Chi-sq Change
Age	.97	4.29*	
Gender	1.00	.00	
Years in Area	.98	4.83**	
Country	1.43	1.39	
Mode (1)	2.95	5.91**	
Mode (2)	2.82	5.19**	
External Prestige	1.14	.44	
Job Alternatives	1.09	.49	
Job Search	1.10	3.21*	
Job Satisfaction	.74	2.48	
Job Commitment	.79	1.22	
Family Links	.87	.93	.94
Family Links X Country	.82	.44	.45

^a Values of *b* above 1 indicate positive effect, values at 1.00 indicate no effect and values below 1.0 indicate negative effect

* $p < .05$

** $P < .01$

One-tailed tests

Table 17. *Logistic Regression of Family Fit by Country on Turnover*^a

Variables	<i>b</i>	Wald Statistic	Chi-sq Change
Age	.97	4.27*	
Gender	1.01	.00	
Years in Area	.98	4.80**	
Country	1.53	2.02	
Mode (1)	2.94	5.89**	
Mode (2)	2.79	5.10**	
External Prestige	1.17	.60	
Job Alternatives	1.08	.37	
Job Search	1.20	2.90*	
Job Satisfaction	.75	2.01	
Job Commitment	.78	1.49	
Family Fit	.93	.12	.12
Family Fit X Country	1.18	.25	.25

^a Values of *b* above 1 indicate positive effect, values at 1.00 indicate no effect and values below 1.0 indicate negative effect

* $p < .05$

** $P < .01$

One-tailed tests

Table 18. *Logistic Regression of all Significant Interaction with Country on Turnover*

a

Variables	<i>b</i>	Wald Statistic	Chi-sq Change
CONTROLS			
Age	-.04	4.87*	
Gender	.04	.03	
Years in Area	-.02	4.84*	
Country	-1.15	2.07	
Mode (1)	1.10	5.66*	
Mode (2)	1.04	4.98*	
External Prestige	.15	.56	
Job Alternatives	.08	.41	
Job Search	.08	1.89	
Job Satisfaction	-.18	.77	
Job Commitment	-.18	.68	
Organization Link	-.58	5.69*	
Community Link	-.60	2.49	
Job Fit	.32	1.43	
Organization Fit	-.73	4.70*	
BLOCK 1			
Organization Link X Country	.71	4.66*	
Community Link X Country	1.12	5.54*	
Job Fit X Country	-.94	7.72*	
Organization Fit X Country	1.10	6.35*	18.76**

^a Values of *b* above 1 indicate positive effect, values at 1.00 indicate no effect and values below 1.0 indicate negative effect

* *p* < .05

** *P* < .01

One-tailed tests

Supplemental Analyses with Turnover Intentions and Collectivism

Two additional measures included in this dissertation were individual level collectivism and turnover intentions. Turnover intentions are often used as a proxy for actual turnover; therefore, I expected to find similar relationships between the job embeddedness dimensions and turnover intentions as with turnover. Similarly, Individual level collectivism has been used to study differences based on IC within the same culture (e.g., Wasti, 2003a), therefore I expected to find similar interaction between individual level collectivism and job embeddedness dimensions, as with country and job embeddedness dimensions in explaining variance in turnover.

Turnover Intentions

While many studies use turnover intentions as a proxy for turnover, the real question of interest to researchers is about employee turnover and how organizations can keep employees from leaving. Thus, the main hypotheses in this dissertation are targeted towards turnover, however, I was also interested in exploring turnover intentions to understand its relationship with turnover. In exploratory analyses with turnover intentions, I explored if the hypotheses proposed for country moderation of the relationship between job embeddedness dimensions and turnover, would also be supported for turnover intentions. To test whether these relationships, I used hierarchical regression, and regressed all the controls, job satisfaction, job commitment, job alternatives, job search, a job embeddedness dimension, country, and the interaction of the job embeddedness dimension and country on turnover intentions.

I found five significant interactions and the results can be seen in Appendix C.

Community embeddedness interacted with country ($\Delta R^2 = .002, p < .05$), such that higher community embeddedness was associated with lower turnover, and this relationship was stronger in India. This interaction was not significant for turnover. Community links interacted with country ($\Delta R^2 = .03, p < .01$), such that higher community links was related to lower turnover intentions for both countries, and this relationship was stronger in India. While this finding is similar to the results for turnover in India, in the US, higher community links were related to higher turnover, but lower turnover intentions.

Organization fit interacted with country ($\Delta R^2 = .002, p < .05$), such that higher organization fit was related to lower turnover intentions in the US but not in India. With actual turnover, higher organization fit was related to lower turnover probability in India, but not in the US. Community fit also interacted with country ($\Delta R^2 = .02, p < .01$), such that higher community fit was related lower turnover intentions in both countries, and the relationship was stronger for India. This interaction was not significant with turnover. Finally, family links interacted with country ($\Delta R^2 = .003, p < .01$), such that high family links were related with lower turnover intentions in India, but higher turnover intentions in the US. Again, this finding was not significant with turnover.

Individual Level Collectivism

In exploratory analyses with individual level collectivism, I examined whether the hypotheses for country moderating the relationship between job embeddedness dimensions and turnover, would be supported at the individual level. To explore these relationships at the individual level, I logistically regressed all the controls, job

satisfaction, job commitment, job search, job alternatives, individual level collectivism, a job embeddedness dimension and an interaction of the job embeddedness dimension and collectivism on turnover. The only significant interaction was with organization links and collectivism (χ^2 change = 2.96, $p < .05$; Wald statistic = 3.01, $p < .05$) and the results can be seen in Appendix D. Surprisingly, this interaction suggested that organization links lowered the probability of turnover for individuals low on collectivism, but not for individuals high on collectivism.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION

In this era of global talent shortage (Zarling, 2006), turnover is an issue of concern. The organizational costs associated with turnover in terms of hiring, training, and productivity loss costs can add up to more than 5% of an organization's operating costs (Waldman, Kelly, Aurora & Smith, 2004). The importance of turnover is also reflected in the extensive research on employee turnover (Hom, Griffeth & Sellaro, 1984; Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Mobley, 1977; Price, 1977; Steers & Mowday, 1981). Most turnover models suggest that dissatisfaction with the job and availability of other jobs are the main reasons for turnover. Mitchell and Lee (2001) proposed a new construct, job embeddedness, which increases the probability that an employee will stay with the organization in spite of circumstances that might lead to turnover. In addition to job satisfaction, job embeddedness broadens the focus of turnover research to include issues that attach an employee to his/her job. Mitchell et al. (2001) demonstrated the value of job embeddedness in predicting turnover, over and above job satisfaction and availability of other jobs, in the US. While, turnover research has really expanded our understanding of why people leave, most of this research has been conducted in individualist countries. Few empirical studies have examined turnover in collectivistic countries and this dissertation starts to address the cross-cultural generalizability of turnover models.

This dissertation makes a unique contribution to the cross-cultural study of turnover. It examines job embeddedness in a collectivistic cultural setting, which is different in many ways from the cultural setting in which job embeddedness has been conceptualized and tested. In addition, unlike most cross-cultural studies in which turnover intentions are used as a proxy for turnover, this dissertation uses actual turnover

data to test the utility of the job embeddedness model.

Key Findings

This dissertation had two major goals. First, I examined if the key findings from the job embeddedness research by Mitchell et al. (2001) could be replicated in a collectivistic culture. In addition, I integrated the literature on individualism - collectivism and job embeddedness to examine if the relationships between the dimensions of job embeddedness and turnover were moderated by country. Second, I expanded the job embeddedness model to include family embeddedness and tested the applicability of this factor and its contribution to understanding turnover in both the US and in India.

I used a multi-group confirmatory factor analysis to examine a three-factor model of job embeddedness that included organization embeddedness, community embeddedness and family embeddedness. I found support for this three-factor model of job embeddedness in both the US and Indian samples. I also demonstrated that both organization embeddedness and family embeddedness accounted for variance in turnover, over and above the most significant variables in turnover research (Hom, Gaertner & Griffeth, 2000) which are organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job alternatives, and job search (Hypothesis 1 and 3). These findings provide support for the value of job embeddedness in understanding turnover.

Job embeddedness differs in two important ways from organizational commitment and job satisfaction. First, it focuses on creating attachment that make the employee more *likely to stay* with the organization. In addition, commitment and satisfaction are very general attitudinal variables, but job embeddedness includes very

specific dimensions that focus on tangible attachments. Job embeddedness can provide organizations with a clear direction on how to improve attachment to the organization. The finding that organizational job embeddedness explains variance in turnover above general attitudes, in both the US and in India, point to cross-cultural similarities in employee attachment to organizations. The surprising finding that family embeddedness also explains variance in turnover above general attitudes, in both the US and in India enhances our understanding of the organization-family interface. These results demonstrate that family opinions, in both countries, have an impact on employee decisions with regard to the organization. While studies have shown that family-friendly policies are related to employee attitudes towards the organization (Grover & Crooker, 1995), these results indicate that real outcomes such as turnover can also be influenced by family opinion. One reason for not finding an interaction with country such that family embeddedness is more important in India might be the age difference and differences in marital status in the two samples. While the average age of participants was thirty-three in the US and 38% of the sample were married, the average age in the Indian sample was twenty-four and only 12 % of the sample were married. This nine-year difference and the presence of a spouse might have implications for individual priorities and we might find support for country moderating the relationship between family embeddedness and turnover with a matched sample. Overall, these findings do suggest that job embeddedness, with the inclusion of the family embeddedness, can enhance retention in more than one culture.

Drawing on the individualism-collectivism literature, I also proposed a series of hypotheses on the interaction of country with the dimensions of job embeddedness. I

hypothesized that organization and community links would be more important in India than in the US (Hypotheses 4 and 5). I found support for both these hypotheses. In the tradition of cross-cultural research, these findings provide further support for the social and relationship orientation in collectivistic cultures. While other studies in India have indicated that links are important, clearly demonstrating the impact of links on employee behavior further advances collectivism theory. An unexpected but intriguing finding was that community links might increase the probability of turnover in the US. Mitchell et al. (2001) did suggest that links might actually facilitate leaving. According to Mitchell et al., “Strong networks, especially off-the-job, might lead to unsolicited offers or knowledge about other positions.” (2001, p. 1117). While their proposition is supported in the US, in India, community links seem to lower the probability of turnover. One explanation for this finding might come from Granovetter (1995) who found that the strength of links could influence the job search process and weak links are more likely to lead to finding a job as they offer access to a broader range of opportunities and information. Since, the social relationships individuals build in collectivistic countries are likely to be more enduring (Triandis & Vassiliou, 1972), they are also likely to be stronger, and provide fewer opportunities than are available to individualists through their weak links.

I also proposed that organization fit and community fit (Hypotheses 6a and 7) would be more important in India, and found support for organization fit. I also proposed that job fit would be more important in the United States (Hypothesis 6b) and found support for this hypothesis. This finding has important implications for organizational psychology. The importance of person-job fit for organizational outcomes is a well-

accepted fact in organizational psychology (Kristoff, 1996) and is the cornerstone of many theories of motivation and job design that have been primarily developed and tested in individualistic countries. While, many authors have suggested that the importance of person-job fit might not be as high in collectivistic cultures, as compared to individualistic cultures, this hypothesis has never been empirically tested. Thus, demonstrating that person-job fit is less important in predicting turnover in a collectivistic culture, suggests caution in generalizing, even established findings, across cultures and the importance of taking an emic perspective. The finding that organization fit is more important in predicting turnover in India also supports the value of organizational identity for collectivists and has implications for both recruitment and organizational socialization. Both these findings encourage careful consideration of culture in the design of human resources management systems.

Thus, this dissertation made significant *theoretical* contributions by both testing the job embeddedness model of turnover in a different cultural context and by expanding the model to make it more comprehensive. The finding that organizational job embeddedness explains turnover in India indicates that this model has the potential to be applied cross-culturally in the study of turnover. In addition, this dissertation also supports a growing body of literature which suggest that while organizational psychology constructs, developed in individualistic cultures, can have broad applicability in collectivistic cultures, there are likely to be differences when the constructs are explored at a dimensional (or micro) level (Kwantes, 2003; Gautam et al., 2001; Wasti, 2003a). Thus, while overall job embeddedness was important in both cultures, there were differences in the relationship of each dimension to turnover that differed based on

country. These results provide support for the etic-emic approach to the study of turnover that has been suggested by many researchers (Maertz, 2004; Miller, Hom & Gomez-Mejia, 2001; Posthuma, Joplin & Maertz, 2005).

In addition, the family dimension of job embeddedness had an impact on turnover, but I did not find an interaction with country. This result implies that the influence of family can have a significant impact on employee behavior even in individualistic cultures such as the US. While I did expect to find that family embeddedness was important, I expected the family dimension to interact with country such that the results were stronger in India. However, this finding supports work by authors such as Bielby (1992) and Orthner and Pittman (1986), who have encouraged researchers to include family attitudes and opinions in organizational research in individualistic countries.

Finally, as part of the exploratory analyses, I examined if hypotheses proposed for country moderation of the relationship between job embeddedness dimensions and turnover, would also be supported for turnover intentions. While the focus on this dissertation was on understanding actual employee turnover, turnover intentions were included to explore if the results for this variable would be similar to turnover. These findings were mixed: some results were found only for turnover intentions, some results were similar to turnover, and some results were different for turnover and turnover intentions. I found unique results for community embeddedness and community fit, such that both were related to lower turnover intentions in both countries and the result was stronger in India. I also found unique results for family links, such that in India, higher family links was related to lower turnover intentions, but with higher turnover intentions

in the US. I found similar results for community links in India (higher community links were related to lower turnover intentions and turnover probability), but mixed results in the US (higher community links were related to lower turnover intentions, but higher turnover probability). Results were different for organization fit, such that organization fit was associated with lower turnover probability in India, but not in the US, and organization fit was associated with lower turnover intentions in the US, but not in India.

Even though turnover intentions have been identified as the best predictor of turnover, these mixed results suggest that we need to examine the relationship between turnover and turnover intentions in more detail and take time of data collection into account. More specifically, an assumption in this analyses is that the effects of commitment, satisfaction, job embeddedness etc. are temporally stable i.e., these variables have the same impact on turnover from the time initial survey data is collected to the time turnover data is collected. However, the relationships between these variables and turnover might change depending on when data is collected. Kammeyer-Mueller, Wanberg, Glomb & Ahlburg, 2005, collected data on attitude, context, demographic and turnover over a period of 2 years and found that the contribution of various variables in explaining turnover changed depending on whether a static (one-time data) or dynamic (data over time) model was used, suggesting that changes in these variables over time provided important information for understanding turnover. Thus, the time period between initial data collection and the final collection of turnover data (6 months) might change the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, and the results might be different if data was collected at 2 or 4 months. The low correlation between turnover and turnover intentions in these sample might reflect the fact that these are distal

variables.

In addition, the exploratory analysis with individual level collectivism were not parallel to the results of country and job embeddedness dimension interactions.

Conceptually, the hypotheses are linked to key constructs in IC, such as the importance of job-fit in an individualistic culture or the importance of links in a collectivistic culture, and the measurement of culture at the individual level also showed the Indian sample to be significantly higher on collectivism. Because of this theoretical basis for IC as the underlying difference in the two countries, the non-significant results with individual level collectivism were unexpected. One possible reason for this finding could be the measurement of individual level collectivism in terms of the individuals' personal values rather than as a descriptive norm for that culture (Shteynberg & Gelfand, submitted).

Descriptive norms describe an individual's perception of how most individual in his/her country behave. Questions that focus on personal values (such as the measure of individual level collectivism used in this dissertation) might not capture the elements of the social context that reflect societal culture and instead capture individual self-concept. In fact, many studies have found personal value measures fail to differentiate between countries on IC in expected patterns (Oyserman, 2002; Roberts et al. 2000). In contrast, Shteynberg & Gelfand demonstrate that asking question focusing on the descriptive norms of the context might be the appropriate target for the aim of unpacking the influence of culture on an individual's behavior. Thus, measurement of individual level collectivism with items that asks about the individual's perception of how people in that culture are most likely to behave, rather than how s/he behaves, might provide a better measure of an individual's level of collectivism. Future research should continue to

explore alternative measures of IC, in trying to unpack country level differences.

Implication for Practice

These results also have *implication for practicing managers* in both global and local organizations. This dissertation offers some suggestions on structuring retention plans that are targeted to the culture in which an organization operates. First, both organization embeddedness and family embeddedness have important implications for retention in both countries. Mitchell, Holtom and Lee (2001) have detailed how organizations can influence an employee's organization embeddedness. For example, they described how organizations use long-term employee development plans, child-care benefits, flexible timing, sabbaticals, sports teams, mentoring systems etc. to increase an employee's attachment to the organization.

Similarly, from a family perspective, there are multiple actions an organization can take to create attachment. First, in terms of family links, encouraging social links between organizational members can lead to increased family interactions with the organization. Other ways to increase family links is by creating events such as 'bring your child to work' or 'bring your family to work'. One of the Indian managers interviewed in the creation of the family embeddedness scale described how GE (India) has an annual family day. On this day, employees' families are invited to visit the GE campus. This allows the family to see where the employee works, and interact with other employees in an informal environment, thus enhancing family links to the organization. This is not unusual in India and many organizations organize cultural events to which families are invited. In addition, family perception of fit to the organization can be improved by educating families on the value of the employees' work to the organization

and creating a sense of pride in the organization. One way to achieve this is by following the example of Vision Healthsource, a call center company in India, which has a newsletter that reaches out to employees' families (The Hindu, 2004). Finally, increasing family sacrifice by providing benefits to the family can be valuable in retention. These benefits could be tangible benefits such as family health plans and childcare services, or non-tangible benefits such as providing employees with the flexible time to meet family demands. The results of this dissertation suggest that family embeddedness can be a valuable tool for retention in both collectivistic and individualistic countries.

While job embeddedness is important in both cultures, as demonstrated by the overall contribution of organization and family job embeddedness, higher impact might be achieved by paying more attention to certain dimensions during the development of retention strategies depending on culture. Based on the IC paradigm and the results of this dissertation, organizations that can enhance the number of links an employee has within the organization and in the community, are likely to improve retention especially in a collectivistic culture. Organizational practices such as creating teams or groups in which individuals depend on each other (these could include work teams or special project teams such as quality circles), recruiting and on-boarding new employees in groups, creating a mentor or buddy system for employee socialization, and providing opportunities for employees to create links are likely to lead to valuable outcomes especially in a collectivistic culture. In terms of community links, Mitchell, Holtom and Lee (2001) suggest that allowing employees time to volunteer in their community, or supporting employee home purchase in certain areas might be possible ways of improving community links.

Similarly, organizations that can create perception of high organization fit in a collectivistic culture are likely to improve retention. Kristof (1996) suggests that both organizational selection process and socialization processes influence organization fit. In a collectivistic culture using methods such as structured interviews (an effective way to assess P-O fit; Karren & Graves, 1994), in addition to test batteries, might have a positive impact on retention. The use of a collectivist socialization tactic (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), which focuses on common initiatory and learning experiences for employees, could also have an impact on retention in a collectivistic culture. However, in individualist cultures, an organization could achieve higher impact in retention by focusing on person-job fit. Thus, organizations in individualistic cultures can benefit from either hiring for job fit or providing employees with specific skills that increases their perception of fit with the job. Thus, there are multiple aspects of job embeddedness that can be influenced by organizations to achieve greater employee retention.

Strengths, Limitations and Future Directions

This dissertation has a number of strengths and weaknesses. The major strength is the use of a dependent variable that has important implications for organizations. Turnover, unlike turnover intentions, is not a self-reported variable and the use of this variable reduces same-source bias. Second, while cross-cultural research can be logistically challenging (Parkes, Bochner & Schneider, 2000), I was able to identify comparable samples across the two countries and demonstrate that the job embeddedness construct had a similar underlying factor structure in both the US and India, thus allowing me to compare data from these two cultures. Additionally, I measured more than one type of fit in this dissertation and was able to show that person-organization fit and

person-job fit had differences relationships with turnover in the US and India.

As with all studies, there are some limitations to this research. First, I have collected data from only two countries. This limits the generalizability of the findings and I strongly believe that more research is needed in other countries. One suggestion for future research is to include measures of other cultural variables such as power-distance, uncertainty-avoidance etc., to examine if they systematically influence job embeddedness. Another limitation is the use of a call center sample. Questions can be raised about how generalizable these findings are to employees in other industries. I believe that the findings are likely to be valid in other industries. Any changes in the variables (e.g., lower job fit perceptions among call center employees), are likely to occur in both countries. The call center environment provided a great opportunity to study turnover, due to the high turnover rates in both cultures (over 30%), and due to the fact that the call center industry is growing in both countries, thus allowing individuals to have multiple opportunities to move. Finally, there were some limitations in the measurement. The overall measure of community embeddedness and the measure of family sacrifice had low reliabilities, which could be one possible reason for lack of support for some of the community and family dimension hypotheses.

One final limitation is the selection of a specific time period in which turnover data is collected (6 months in this case), as observations are truncated after the measurement period. For example, if an individual left an organization the day after the final turnover information was collected, this individual is still identified as an active employee in this data. This is known as right censoring (Morita, Lee & Mowday, 1993) and can impact the accuracy of the findings. The use of techniques such as survival

analysis can account for right censoring.

In spite of these limitations, job embeddedness shows promise for future research, both within the US and in India, as well as more broadly. This dissertation was a first step in the use of the job embeddedness turnover model in collectivistic cultures. Finding support for the use of this model in a collectivistic culture opens up many new possibilities. Expanding this research to other contexts, in terms of both other countries and other samples, can be a fruitful area of further research.

One assumption that is implicit in this research is that Indian employees perceive their organizational members as an in-group. Future research should measure if the Indians actually perceived organizational members as an in-group and exhibit collectivistic behavior in the organizational context. The lack of support for the family dimensions of job embeddedness also warrants further research. Exploration of the family dimension via focus groups and interviews, and measurement with a larger item pool could provide detailed insights into the influence of family opinions on organizational outcomes. In addition, I measured family opinions as perceived by the employee. Measurement of actual family member opinions might also be a worthy area of research and provide rich information for understanding the impact of family on turnover.

Another suggestion to future research is the inclusion of both person-supervisor fit and person-group fit as aspects of fit that might be important in light of the collectivistic focus on social ties and relationships. In addition, using social networks to measure links within and outside an organization (e.g. Mossholder, Setton & Henagan, 2005), might provide us with more information about the specific ties (e.g., formal ties

with supervisor, informal ties with supervisor, formal ties with group, informal ties with group) that impact turnover. In addition, that finding that community links seem to increase the probability of turnover in the US (which supports Mitchell et al., 2001), but lower probability of leaving in India is intriguing. Further research on community embeddedness that examines the relationship between different kinds of links and the perception of job alternatives or number of job offers received could provide us with more information about the actual impact of community links on turnover.

More broadly, the findings from this study could be explored with other organizational outcomes such as absenteeism, job performance, and organizational citizenship behavior. Research by Lee et al. (2004) found differential effects of organizational and community embeddedness on all four outcomes and this research could be extended cross-culturally with the inclusion of the family embeddedness dimension.

Finally, while these results do suggest that organizations have the possibility of improved retention through increased job embeddedness in collectivistic and individualist countries, these results are preliminary. A field study in which different aspects of job embeddedness are manipulated can provide us with insights into the real application of job embeddedness in organizational settings. In addition, we need to expand the range of perspectives we incorporate in studying turnover. While psychological variables have an impact on turnover, both economic and sociological variables such as external labor market characteristics, socio-economic status, education etc., can also have a impact on an individual's turnover decision (Mueller & Price, 1990). Incorporating these perspective more substantively than simply asking about job alternatives has the potential

to help us increase the variance we can explain in turnover.

Conclusion

Turnover is an important global issue for many organizations (Zarling, 2006). Theoretically, the study makes three major contributions. First, the results support the similarity in the underlying factor structure of job embeddedness in both India and the United States. Second, the importance of the newly identified family factor of job embeddedness was supported in both cultures. Third, I found support for country moderating the relationships between the dimensions of job embeddedness and turnover. Practically, the results of this dissertation suggest that while a focus on job embeddedness can improve retention in very different cultures, there are differences in which dimensions are likely to have the most impact on retention. The results also suggest that organizations need to manage how family members perceive the organization, not only in collectivistic cultures such as India, but also in individualistic cultures such as the United States.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Semi-Structured Interviews with Managers in India

1. Could you briefly tell me about your current position?

- Interviewee 1 Director of MSC (Management Support Consortium) – a consulting company that focus on the alignment of human practices with the organizational strategy. This firm is a consultant to many companies, multi-nationals, Indian companies (both large and medium sized) and smaller local companies.
- Interviewee 2 I am currently the principal account manager for an IT solutions company, R-systems. I have been in this position for 8 years. This job involves managing multiple projects/accounts. The projects are for both Indian and US companies
- Interviewee 3 I am currently the India HR head for Cypress semiconductors. I manage the office in Bangalore and Hyderabad and we have about 250 employees.

2. Could you describe your previous work experiences?

- Interviewee 1 Country head for Lotus development – and international software company, Country GM for Fiat – Olivetti, DuPont – statistical application, MBA from Italy and Engineer from IIT
- Interviewee 2 I have been working with R-systems for 8 years. Before that, I have worked in IBM Global in Australia, Data systems research in Pune, IMC in Washington DC and with TCS (an India based multinational company).
- Interviewee 3 Worked in many sectors before. Worked with Citibank (finance) , with Ogilvy & Mather (international advertising firm) and China systems (international provider of finance solutions)

3. In your experience, what are the major reasons that an employee chooses to leave an organization?

Interviewee 1 The main reasons usually are differences with immediate supervisor, the individual has had one bad experience (e.g. not got a promotion, got a dressing-down from supervisor, perception of injustice), and perceive that the organization does not value their work.

Interviewee 2 The major reasons employees chose to leave are relationships with the supervisor, corporate policies (e.g. food quality in the cafeteria, compensation for working late, growth path etc), the project or task, and finally the individual fit.

Interviewee 3 The biggest reason is a mismatch between expectations and what the job provides. Other than that there is the relationship with the supervisor, compensation, lack of fit with the job and market competition or supply demand of skill

4. Do you think the reasons for employee turnover are the same in both India and the US?

Interviewee 1 The main differences between India and the US is that in India, the major issue is if there has been a slight to one's self esteem (*almost like losing face*) and the second is status issues (i.e. what title one has, assistant manager or general manager). In the US, people are most task-oriented and that is the primary driver of turnover.

Interviewee 2 In India people focus more on status or position in the organization or how they are perceived. For example, how do I look when I describe myself to others like family and friends. In the US, the focus is on the content of the job itself

Interviewee 3 Some non-work factors could be commuting, lack of work-family balance, problems with the leave policy and other family pressures. For example, an engineer who came from a rural background ended up quitting his high-tech job in which he made lots of money because his parents thought that having a government job was 'safe' and wanted him to work for the government. For example, Infosys invites the employee's parents, spouse and kids etc to come and visit the campus. Similarly, GE India has a family day, a sort of picnic on their campus where they ask them employees to invite their extended family to visit the campus.

Other than that the spouse or individual might not like the location, there might be problems with the kids education.

5. In your experiences, what major differences do you see between the reasons for employees turnover in India vs. the US.

Interviewee 1:

India	US
Social/Relational	Task itself
Designation or status issues	Money
Perceived slight to SE	

Interviewee 2:

India	US
Supervisor relationship	Task itself
Corporate policy	Community –leaving hometown and property
Salary	Salary
	Acceptance level of technology

Interviewee 3

For example: My family and I moved from Hyderabad to Bangalore, and in this situation family, friends and socialization become really important.

India	US
Family is one of the biggest factors	
Work life balance especially in multinational jobs where people need to coordinate with another country	
Social factors - People over time tend to gravitate towards where the family has settled	
Indians tend to enjoy working in groups and dislike being individual contributors	There is less of a focus on social relations as people do not mind being individual contributors
Relationship with the supervisor is also important especially if the relationship is both professional and personal	

6. Who are the other people involved in an individual's turnover decision? Are there any differences between India and the US?

Interviewee 1 In India people mostly talk to family – usually the elders of the family, either with the father or an elder uncle. People mostly talk within the family or very close friends about their career movement.

Interviewee 2 In India the main people involved in this decision are friends (close associates, college and school friends), family (e.g. father, elder brother, spouse) and supervisor (but only if there is a close relationship).

In comparison, in the US I think only the spouse is involved in the decision; most other people are informed after the decision has been made... again the focus is more on the content of the job.

Interviewee 3 Spouse and family

7. Do you think that the opinion of the family is more important to the turnover decision in India as compared to the US?

Interviewee 1 Absolutely! This decision is largely influenced by the family, in the family and immediate social circle having a job in a large company or a government job is considered by to a good job

Interviewee 2 Yes! In India the family has more of a consulting role in which they are part of the decision, but in the US the family (except spouse) is usually just informed post decision. The demarcations between professional and personal life are more distinct in the US as compared to India.

Interviewee 3 Yes, it is one of the most important factors in the turnover decision in India

8. Will Indian respondents be able to differentiate between family opinions and their own opinions? For example, 'My family believes that I have opportunity for growth with this company' as compared to 'I believes that I have opportunity for growth with this company'

Interviewee 1 There is likely to be a difference in the answers to these two questions. I think individuals will be able to make the distinction easily. The opinions of self will be more related to the job and the context. The family opinion will be more global, including company reputation, the company links to the community etc. In addition to the actual job itself.

Interviewee 2 Very clearly. Families have clear opinions and the individual can differentiate between personal and family opinions.

Interviewee 3 Maybe if you want to know the opinions of the family it is better to actually ask family members to fill out the questionnaire. Because, the family might not always express their accurate opinion to the individual unless things are really bad or really stressful. But, people should be able to make the distinction like the example you described without any problem.

9. Community dimensions – if we ask people about community – what would they think about? If we wanted to ask about the place where people live, what should we ask?

Interviewee 1 There might be two groups of responses. The first would be a smaller town perspective – a situation in which the family has lived in the area for long, the person owns property and parents are unwilling to move – this will be something that ties a person to the community. In the second case there are the ‘new industry’ people i.e. IT and technology, these people are not bound by property but these people also might be bound by the family such that they choose to move to where there is a pre-existing family/social group.

Interviewee 2 For Indians, the community would be immediate family (spouse, parents, siblings), friends circle ... but there is no concept of community that comes from your church or you kids soccer coaching which tend to be highly valued in the US.

Questions like ‘*Do you talk to your neighbors.*’ might be a better indication, but people might not really think of games, interest groups as community. Also people do not really think about ‘fit’ with the community in India, they would just be focused on whether the work provides well for the family and whether it is a good professional move.

Interviewee 3 The social relations aspect of life is probably more important for India, since it provides a fallback mechanism for the employee. Indians probably think more about bonds breaking social while people in the US probably think more

Maybe asking a question like ‘*Does your location appeal to your family.*’

Appendix B: Measures used in the Dissertation

JOB EMBEDDEDNESS

Organization Links

1. How often do you socialize with your coworkers (ie go out for dinner, invite home etc) outside of work?
2. How many coworkers are highly dependent on you?
3. How many coworkers do you interact with regularly?
4. How many of your coworkers would you describe as 'good friends'?
5. How many times in a week do you interact with your supervisor.

Community Links

1. I know all the people who live in the houses around me
2. Are you currently married
3. If you are married, does your spouse work outside the home?
4. How many children do you have
5. My family members have a large social circle in this area

Person-Organization Fit

1. My values match or fit the values of this company
2. I am able to maintain my values at this company
3. My values prevent me from fitting in at this company because they are different from the company's values
4. I feel like I am a good match for this organization.
5. I fit with this organization's culture.

Person-Job Fit

1. My job utilizes my skills and talents well
2. I am the right type of person for this type of work
3. I have the right skills and abilities for doing this job

Community Fit

1. The area I live in is a good match for me
2. People who live in my area are similar to me
3. My area offers the non-work activities that I like (e.g. cultural, sports, etc.)
4. I really like the area where I live

Organization Sacrifice

1. My promotional opportunities are excellent here
2. The benefits are good on this job
3. I believe the prospects for continuing employment with this company are excellent
4. This organization pays me a competitive salary
5. I have a lot of prestige in this organization
6. I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job

Community Sacrifice

1. People respect me a lot in this area

2. It would be hard for me to leave my friends who live in this area
3. I would sacrifice a lot if I left this area
4. It would be hard for me to leave the area where I live

Family Links

1. How often does your supervisor socialize with your family members
2. How many of your coworkers are well known to your family members
3. How often does your family socialize with your coworkers (i.e. go out for dinner, invite home etc.)?

Family Fit

1. My family thinks this organization is a good match for me
2. My family believes that I have opportunity for growth with this organization
3. My family believes that I am a good fit with my supervisor
4. My family is proud that I work for this organization

Family Sacrifice

1. It would harm my family's reputation if I left this organization
2. This organization provides benefits to my family
3. My family would incur very few costs if I left this organization

PERCEIVED SUPERVISOR SUPPORT

1. My supervisor cares about my opinions
2. My work-supervisor cares about my well-being
3. My supervisor considers my goals and values
4. My supervisor shows very little concern for me

PERCEIVED EXTERNAL PRESTIGE

1. People in this area think highly of my organization.
2. It is considered prestigious in this area to be a part of this organization.
3. My organization is considered one of the best.
4. Employees in other organizations would be proud to work for my organization.
- 5.

TURNOVER INTENTIONS

1. I would prefer another company to the one I am in now
2. I have seriously thought about leaving this company
3. I think often about quitting my job in this company
4. If I have my way, I would not be working for this company a year from now.

JOB ALTERNATIVES

1. What is the probability that you can find an acceptable alternative to this organization?
2. If you search for another job within a year's time, what are the chances that you can find an acceptable job in another organization

3. If you search for another job, what is the probability that you can find a job in another organization that would be acceptable to your family?

JOB SEARCH BEHAVIOR

1. Read the job ads in a newspaper journal or professional association
2. Prepared/revised your resume
3. Read a book or article about getting a job or changing jobs (lower loading)
4. Used current within company resources (eg colleagues) to generate potential job leads (lower loading)
5. Spoken with previous employers or business acquaintances about their knowledge of potential job leads (lower loading)
6. Talked with friends or relatives about their knowledge of possible job contacts
7. Listed yourself as a job applicant in a newspaper or professional journal.
8. Send out resumes to potential employers
9. Filled out a job application
10. Contacted a employment agency or search firm
11. Telephoned a prospective employer
12. Had a job interview with a prospective employer

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

1. I really feel that this organization's problems are my own
2. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me
3. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization
4. I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization
5. I do not feel like a part of the family at this organization
6. I would violate trust if I quit my job with this organization now
7. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization
8. If I got an offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization
9. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer
10. I would not feel guilty if I left this organization now

JOB SATISFACTION

1. In general, I like working in this organization
2. Overall, I am satisfied with my present organization when I compare it to other organizations
3. In general, I do not like my job

COLLECTIVISM

1. It is important to me that I respect the decision made by my group
2. It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want
3. Parents and children must stay together as much as possible

Appendix C: Exploratory analyses for the interaction of job embeddedness dimensions and country for turnover intentions

Table C1. Hierarchical regression results for the moderating influence of country in predicting turnover intentions from community embeddedness^a

	Turnover Intentions	R-square Change
Age	.02	
Gender	.06*	
Years in Area	.02	
Mode	.04	
Country	-.10**	
External Prestige	-.16**	
Job Alternatives	.29**	
Job Search	.19**	
Job Satisfaction	-.28**	
Job Commitment	-.15**	
Community Embeddedness	-.07	
Country X Community Embeddedness	-.15*	.002*

^a Standardized regression coefficients are presented in this table

* p < .05

** p < .01

One-tailed tests

Figure C1. Interaction of country and community embeddedness on turnover intentions

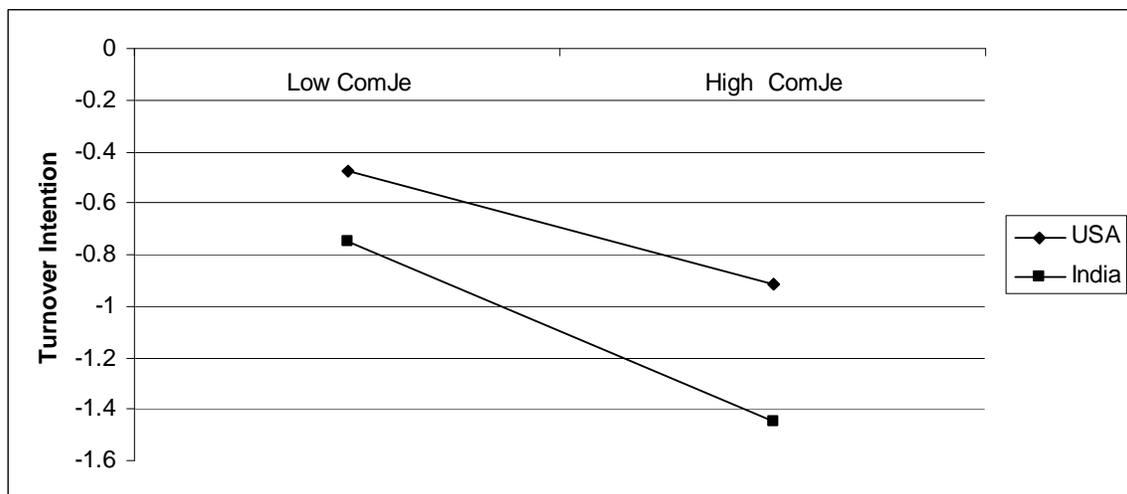


Table C2. Hierarchical regression results for the moderating influence of country in predicting turnover intentions from community links ^a

	Turnover Intentions	R-square Change
Age	.05*	
Gender	.06**	
Years in Area	.01	
Mode	.03	
Country	.05	
External Prestige	-.14**	
Job Alternatives	.31**	
Job Search	.20**	
Job Satisfaction	-.26**	
Job Commitment	-.15**	
Community Links	.01	
Country X Community Links	-.24**	.03**

^a Standardized regression coefficients are presented in this table

* p < .05

** p < .01

One-tailed tests

Figure C2. Interaction of country and community links on turnover intentions

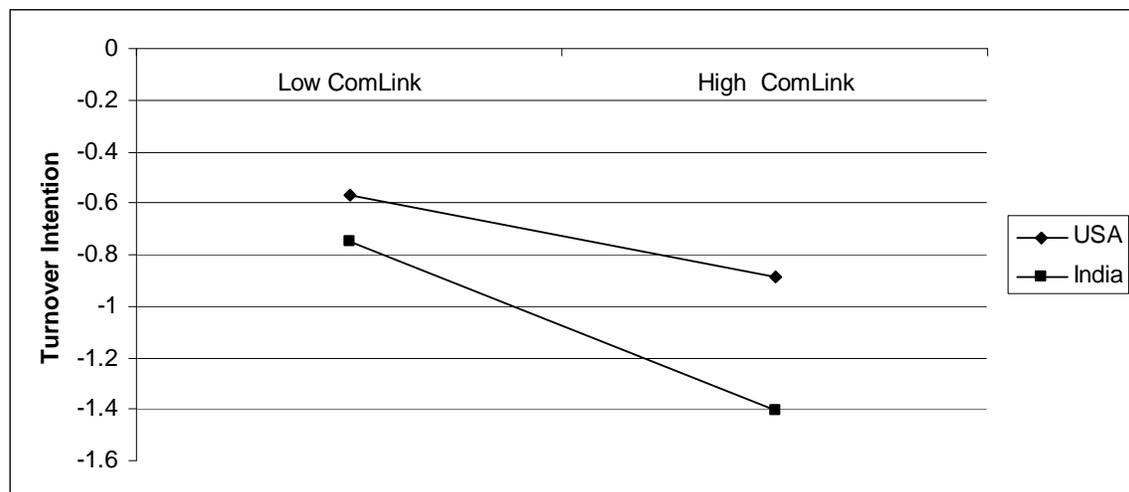


Table C3. Hierarchical regression results for the moderating influence of country in predicting turnover intentions from organization fit ^a

	Turnover Intentions	R-square Change
Age	.02	
Gender	.05*	
Years in Area	-.02	
Mode	.04	
Country	-.18**	
External Prestige	-.12**	
Job Alternatives	.35**	
Job Search	.22**	
Job Satisfaction	-.21**	
Job Commitment	-.15**	
Organization Fit	-.17**	
Country X Organization Fit	.15*	.002*

^a Standardized regression coefficients are presented in this table

* p < .05

** p < .01

One-tailed tests

Figure C3. Interaction of country and organization fit on turnover intentions

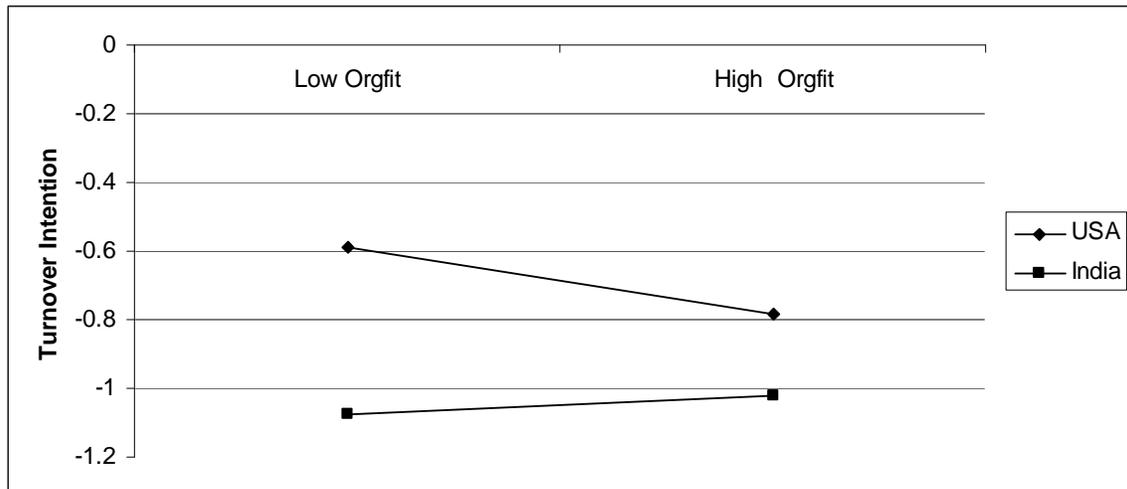


Table C4. Hierarchical regression results for the moderating influence of country in predicting turnover intentions from community fit^a

	Turnover Intentions	R-square Change
Age	0.02	
Gender	0.06**	
Years in Area	-0.01	
Mode	0.04	
Country	-0.13**	
External Prestige	-0.13**	
Job Alternatives	0.33**	
Job Search	0.21**	
Job Satisfaction	-0.24**	
Job Commitment	-0.15**	
Community Fit	0.04	
Country X Community Fit	-0.17**	.02**

^a Standardized regression coefficients are presented in this table

* p < .05

** p < .01

One-tailed tests

Figure C4. Interaction of country and community fit on turnover intentions

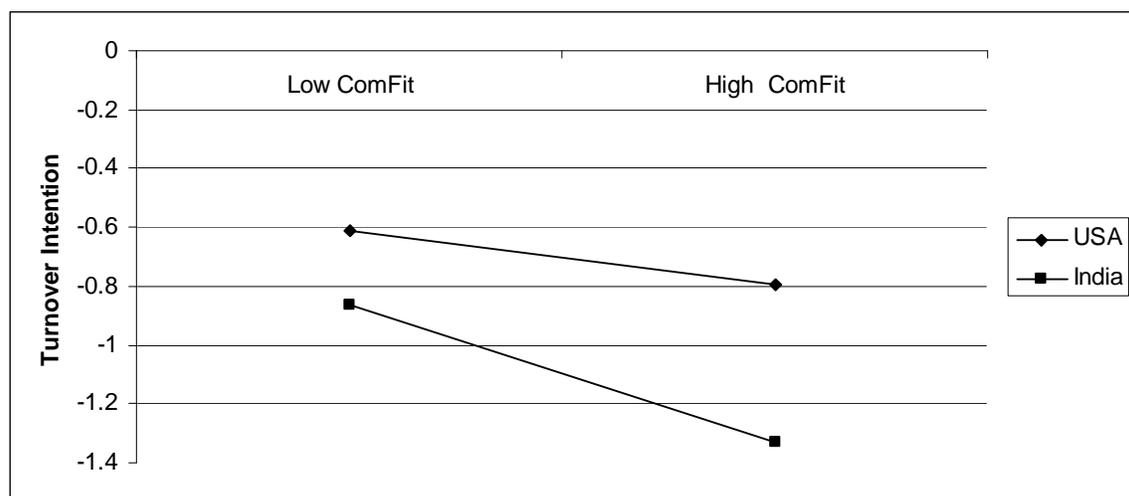


Table C5. Hierarchical regression results for the moderating influence of country in predicting turnover intentions from family links ^a

	Turnover Intentions	R-square Change
Age	.02	
Gender	.06**	
Years in Area	-.01	
Mode	.04	
Country	-.26**	
External Prestige	-.12**	
Job Alternatives	.34**	
Job Search	.21**	
Job Satisfaction	-.22**	
Job Commitment	-.14**	
Family Links	.24**	
Country X Family Links	-.24**	.003**

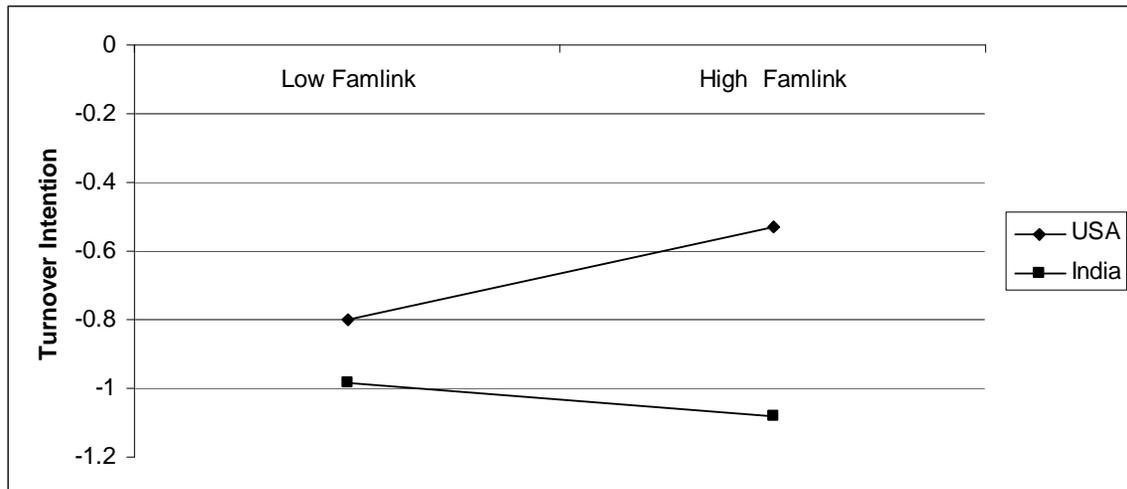
^a Standardized regression coefficients are presented in this table

* p < .05

** p < .01

One-tailed tests

Figure C5: Interaction of country and family links on turnover intentions



Appendix D: Exploratory analyses for the interaction of job embeddedness dimensions and individual level collectivism for turnover

Table D1. *Logistic Regression of Organization Links by Individual Level Collectivism on Turnover^a*

Variables	<i>b</i>	Wald Statistic	Chi-sq Change
Age	.97	3.84*	
Gender	.95	.07	
Years in Area	.98	4.31*	
Mode (1)	3.49	8.08**	
Mode (2)	2.95	5.51**	
External Prestige	1.16	.55	
Job Alternatives	1.13	.97	
Job Search	1.10	2.81*	
Job Satisfaction	.76	2.14	
Job Commitment	.74	2.11	
Collectivism	1.12	.37	
Organization Links	.56	5.71**	
Organization Links X Collectivism	1.54	3.01*	2.96*

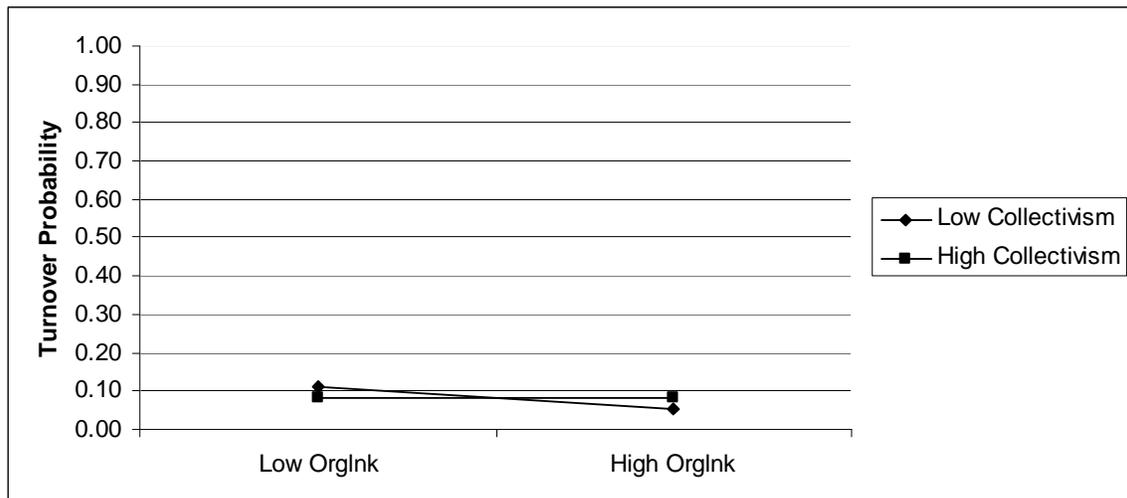
^a Values of *b* above 1 indicate positive effect, values at 1.00 indicate no effect and values below 1.0 indicate negative effect

* *p* < .05

** *P* < .01

One-tailed tests

Figure D1. Interaction of Individual Collectivism and Organization Links on Turnover Probability



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