The Influence of Pull Factors on Inter-organisational Labour Mobility in the Public Sector: The Moderating Role of Transformational Leadership

Rosemary Massae[1], Francis Michael[2] and John J. Sanga[3]

Abstract

This study assesses how pull factors affect inter-organisational labour mobility, including the role of transformational leadership as a moderator. With the aid of SmartPLS3.2.7, quantitative data from a survey of 333 employees of government agencies were analysed using Partial least Squares Structural Equation Modeling. The results revealed that both compensation and training and development positively influence inter-organisational labour mobility. Furthermore, results indicated a significant moderating effect of transformational leadership on the influence of compensation on inter-organisational labour mobility, and that transformational leadership moderates the influence of training and development on inter-organisational labour mobility. Consistent with Social Exchange Theory and Herzberg's Two Factor Theory, the results have revealed the relevance of pull factors in explaining inter-organisational labour mobility. Furthermore, the research has provided human resource managers, all managerial personnel and policymakers with insights into the interaction effect between pull factors and transformational leadership on inter-organisational labour mobility to enhance employee retention. The results suggest that organisations should establish transformational leadership training programs, so as to equip all managerial personnel with the vital employees retention skills. The study has theoretically verified that under the influence of the Social Exchange Theory, transformational leadership can interact with pull variables and diminish their effects on inter-organisational labour mobility in the Tanzanian setting, thus adding new knowledge to the current labour mobility model. The limitations of this study form avenues for further research. For instance, considering the interaction effect of pull and push factors and transformational leadership on inter-organisational labour mobility may generate additional insights.

Keywords: Pull factors, compensation, training and development, transformational leadership, turnover intention/ inter-organisational labour mobility

Introduction

Labour mobility is the process of an employee moving across different jobs until she/he finds the one with the right fit (Agarwal, Bidwell, Cirillo, & Tzabbar, 2020). Labour mobility is one of the important factors that facilitate productive employer-employee matches, by helping employees to locate organisations that suit their skills and enable them to earn their income (Akgündüz, Aldan, Bağır, & Torun, 2019). However, in the contemporary world, retaining valued employees remains one of the most persistent managerial challenges today (Linhartová & Urbancová, 2013; Oh & Chhinzer,

[1] Institute of Finance Management – Tanzania
Email: rosemarymasae@gmail.com
[2] University of Dar es Salaam Business School – Tanzania
3 University of Dar es Salaam Business School – Tanzania

2021). Organisations spend massive resources to make employees happy to work effectively and efficiently. Nevertheless, employees still voluntarily leave the organisation and join new ones (Cregård, Corin, & Skagert, 2017).

Existing studies show that literature on labour mobility and inter-organisational labour mobility (ILM) particularly remains comparatively under-explored in management research, hence providing an avenue for further insights (Agarwal et al., 2020; Rubenstein, Eberly, Lee & Mitchell, 2018; Steenackers & Guerry, 2016). Inter-organisational labour mobility (ILM) is an external turnover that is founded on the mobility of employees to a totally new organisation (Mbah & Ikemefuna, 2012). However, from the Human Resources management standpoint, inter-organisational labour mobility has costs with negative consequences for an organisation, such as labour turnover costs. Estimates indicate that the total costs related with turnover can range from 90% to 200% of the yearly income due new staffs replacement costs such as recruitment, selection, and training expenses (Bryant & Allen, 2013).

The push-pull model is a keystone for understanding ILM (Haldorai, Kim, Pillai, Park, & Balasubramanian, 2019). This study, however, concentrates only on the pull-to-leave factors for inter-organisational labour mobility, which involves forces that lead the employee to move to a new working organisation (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979). Pull factors have been considered because research shows that they are relatively underexplored when compared to push factors. Push factors are the employees' psychological motivations for leaving an organisation in contrast to pull factors which are the economic motives for leaving (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Rubenstein et al., 2018). Different scholars assert that, career advancement, compensation, working environment, and promotional opportunities are major explanatory of inter-organisational labour mobility (Akgündüz et al., 2019; Shah, Fakhr, Ahmad, & Zaman, 2010; Vimala, Thangaraja, Mohamad, & Balakrishan, 2016). Hence, the researchers find it worth investigating the impact of pull factor in the context of developing countries. Therefore, this study's first objective is to determine the influence of compensation on inter-organisational labour mobility while the second is to determine the influence of training and development on inter-organisational labour mobility in the public sector. The researchers have selected those pull factors because they are more explanatory of the employees' inter-organisational labour mobility.

Researchers assert that much of leadership studies have been done on developed countries and few of these have considered the role of leadership on ILM (Rubenstein et al., 2018). Prior studies have called for further research on the role of transformational leadership (TL) as an important pull-to-stay factor to facilitate its generalization (Herman, Huang, & Lam, 2013; Waldman, Carter, & Hom, 2015). Transformational leadership has also been considered because managers' behaviours are the primary reasons for employees to leave their organisations (Reina, Rogers, Peterson, Byron, & Hom, 2018). Therefore, this study considered the indirect impact of transformational leadership which has never been examined using the variables under consideration. The assumption is that a higher level of transformational leadership neutralizes the pull factors more effectively than a low level of transformational leadership. The inter-organisational labour mobility in the Tanzania public sector can be facilitated by the provisions of the Public Service Management and Employment Policy 1999 as amended in 2008 (URT, 1999), that there shall be free movement of labour both within the public service and between the public service and the private sector. The

provisions of this policy are contrary to the labour retention principles, which consider higher level of inter-organisational labour mobility to be unhealthy for organisations.

Different scholars such as Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) and Herman et al. (2013) assert that Social Exchange Theory (SET), due to its attributes of interpersonal confidence, shared faithfulness, emotional discernment, can help to explain how and why transformational leadership should be considered a necessary "pull-to-stay" factor, from theoretical point of view. Consequently, this study's third objective is to test the interaction effect of transformational leadership and pull factors on inter-organisational labour mobility, which is considered a fit perspective that is a basis for theoretical extension (Venkatraman, 1989). In addition, a study by Sousa-Poza and Henneberger (2004) suggests that customs and practices must greatly influence inter-organisational labour mobility. As a result, it is possible that the findings of earlier studies conducted in developed nations cannot always be applied to developing nations.

From the gap identified above, this study examines the moderating effect of transformational leadership on the relationship between compensation and training and development and inter-organisational labour mobility in the Tanzania public sector. The insights obtained from this study will contribute to the existing labour mobility model, particularly on the role of transformational leadership as an important factor to be considered by managers, researchers, and policymakers to enhance employee retention.

Theoretical underpinning

Social Exchange Theory (SET)

The theoretical underpinning of this research is rooted in Social Exchange Theory (SET). It was developed by Blau (1964) under the 'basic rules and norms of exchange' within the social relationship, which is known as reciprocity. According to Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005), the fundamental value SET is that the relationship between two social beings relies on how each of these beings respects the social rules and norms of exchange agreed between the two. Examples of the features defining the value of the relationship are loyalty and mutual commitment. For example, Rahman and Nas (2013) argue that investing in the development of employees provides the employers' side of such exchange, with employees reciprocating it with a positive mind-set towards the organisation.

Consequently, Human Resource management practices are vital inputs in the employer-employee relationship. For example, when compensation is provided to enhance employees' job satisfaction, they will ultimately be retained (Rahman & Nas, 2013). Ngo-Henha (2018) asserts that from the view of SET, turnover intention (TOI) results from ignoring social rules and norms agreed upon by management and co-workers. Consequently, management should work hard to strengthen these rules for talent retention.

Scholars such as Herman et al. (2013) and Sun and Wang (2017) assert that SET can help to explain how and why transformational leadership (TL), should be considered a vital "pull-to-stay" factor that which deters employees from forming an intention to leave. Herman et al. (2013) further reveal that through SET, TL can facilitate leadership-based social exchange, making employees more likely to be indebted and obliged to repay in kind by remaining in their organisation. They further suggest that interpersonal trust, mutual loyalty and constant emotional identification from social

relationship are vital "pull-to-stay" force in an organisation. Despite its usefulness in explaining the research variables, SET lacks sufficient theoretical precision i.e., it only indicates how employees would respond to what management provides on behalf of the organisation, but it does not provide specific constructs under study (Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, & Hall, 2017). Hence, Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory complemented the SET.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

One of the most influential theories in the study of turnover intention and labour mobility in general is Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (Chiat & Panatik, 2019). This theory recognizes that employees have two needs affecting job satisfaction: hygiene and motivation. Achievement, recognition, work, responsibility, development, and opportunity for growth are all motivational aspects that contribute to job satisfaction (Alshmemri, Shahwan-Akl, & Maude, 2017). Hygiene factors include the policy of the company and administration practices, quality supervision, interpersonal relationship, physical working conditions, salary, status and job security, the negative aspects of which lead to dissatisfaction (Alshmemri et al., 2017). This study assumes that good compensation packages and leadership behaviour will reduce inter-organisational labour mobility (ILM) for hygiene factors, whereas training and development will motivate employees to continue working with their current organisation. Relating to hygiene factors, this study assumes that providing competitive salary, incentives, and supervision will enable employees to feel secure, hence reducing ILM (Alshmemri et al., 2017). Furthermore, basing on the propositions of the Two-Factor Motivation Theory, in this study, it is assumed that if government organisations' employees are availed of opportunities for training and mentorship, and awarded the scholarships for further developmental programmes they will be motivated to stay in their workplace. It is also assumed that the vice versa is true.

Research Model and Hypotheses

The conceptual model shows the association between the predictor variables (compensation and training and development) and transformational leadership, a moderating variable, and ILM the dependent variable. From the reciprocity principle of Social Exchange Theory (SET), when employees do not receive good compensation and they do not get an opportunity for training and development, they will normally move to another organisation. Moreover, Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory highlights the value of enhancing hygienic and motivating elements.

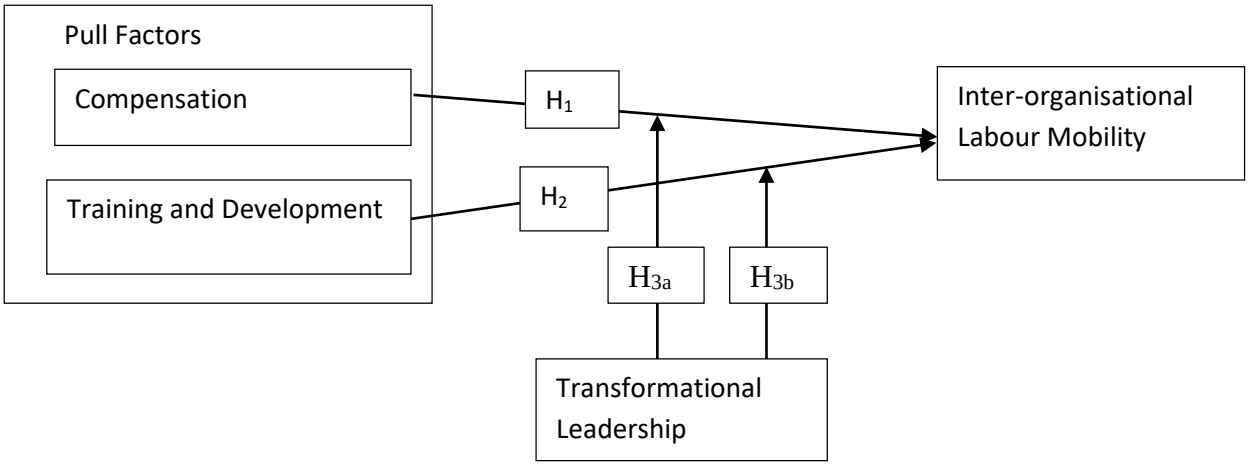


Figure 1: Conceptual model
Source: Literature Review (2022)

Inter-organisational labour mobility and pull factors
Inter-organisational labour mobility (ILM) is a type of employee turnover based on the mobility of employees to a new organisation called external turnover (Mbah & Ikemefuna, 2012). However, turnover intention (TOI) is addressed as an ILM indicator and a replacement for actual turnover behaviour (Liljegren & Ekberg, 2009). According to Na-Nan, Kanthong, and Dhienhirun (2020), TOI is associated with employees' sentiments and actions about leaving their current employers and moving to a new one soon. However, in this study, inter-organisational labour mobility was used interchangeably with turnover intention (TOI) and was considered to be employees' turnover intention, which refers to "a conscious and deliberate wilfulness of government public employees to seek an alternative within public service organisations" (Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Several studies have identified various pull and push factors leading to TOI. For example, Sasso et al. (2019); Semmer, Elfering, Baillod, Berset, and Beehr (2014) revealed that TOI is a mixture of pull and push factors. However, very few studies that considered both push and pull factors, such as Shah et al. (2010), indicated that pull factors such as research facilities and funding opportunities, were more explanatory of employees' TOI than the push factors. In addition, very few studies, such as Vimala et al. (2016), Wynen, Op de Beeck, and Hondeghem (2013), revealed that pull factors such as compensation and benefits, promotion opportunities, training and development opportunities, and working conditions to be more explanatory of ILM. However, this study has considered the moderating effect of transformational leadership on pull factors and ILM which has never been existed.

Compensation and inter-organisational labour mobility
Compensation is considered one of the key elements in enticing and keeping an organisation's talent pool (Aburumman, Salleh, Omar, & Abadi, 2020; Chiekezie, Emejulu, & Nwanneka, 2017). Schmelzer (2012) indicates a positive relationship between voluntary external labour mobility and salary attainment. These results contradict Latzke, Kattenbach, Schneidhofer, Schramm, and Mayrhofer (2016), who state that German income gains decreased over time due to voluntary job changes. This can be explained by contextual factors. According to previous studies, higher-paying

positions with greater perks could tempt individuals away from their current employers (He, Shaw, & Fang, 2017; Owence, Pinagase, & Mercy, 2014). This is consistent with SET which explains how people feel about their relationship with others built on their discernment of the evenness between what they put into the relationship and what they get from it. Hence competitive compensation would reduce their TOI and vice versa for non-competitive compensation. Based on this discussion, the following hypothesis is made:

H_1: Competitive compensation has a positive influence on inter-organisational labour mobility.

Training and Development Opportunities and Inter-organisational Labour Mobility

According to earlier research, training substantially and negatively impacts employee turnover intentions (Huang & Su, 2016; Rahman & Nas, 2013). However, this contrasts with the studies that have reported a positive relationship between training and voluntary turnover rate explained by contextual factors (Gardner, Wright, & Moynihan, 2011). Moreover, Theron, Barkhuizen, and Du Plessis (2014) opine that workers leave due to insufficient career growth and development opportunities. So, given the purpose of this study, workers seeking opportunities for training and career growth will be drawn to another organisation to pursue their professional aspirations. According to the reciprocity rule of Social Exchange Theory, investing in an employee's development can foster a good attitude toward their employer. As a result, it is less probable for employees to quit. The opposite is true if there is little investment in staff training and development opportunities. As a result, it is hypothesised that:

H_2: Training and development opportunities positively influence inter-organisational labour mobility.

The moderating role of transformational leadership

Several leadership models have been built through research to forecast the connections between leadership and work-related outcomes in the public sector (Moon & Park, 2019; Trottier, Van Wart, & Wang, 2008). However, transformational leadership (TL) is considered slightly more important than transactional leadership, and organisations gain more advantage from TL with a wide span of control (Moon & Park, 2019). According to the study by Waldman et al. (2015), high levels of TL as a moderator suppress the effects of both push and pull variables for leaving. In contrast to our study these push and pull to leave factors are not explicitly outlined. In addition, the higher level of TL as a moderator variable has been found to lessen the impacts of family work conflicts on turnover intention, however, in contrary to the previous studies, this study considers only one push factor (Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). This was further backed by Herman et al. (2013) who contend that interpersonal trust, shared loyalty, emotional identification, and continuing reciprocal behaviour resulting from social exchange connections enables TL to provide a strong pull-to-stay force in the organisation as results prevent employees from leaving organisations hence retained and committed to it. Additionally, Hughes, Avey, and Nixon (2010) find that followers' insights of TL have inverse relationships with their intentions to leave and job hopping behaviour. Given this argument, the following hypothesis is postulated:

H3: Transformational leadership moderates the influence of pull factors on inter-organisational labour mobility.

$H3_a$: The higher the transformational leadership, the weaker the influence of compensation on inter-organisational labour mobility.
$H3_b$: The higher the transformational leadership, the weaker the influence of training and development opportunities on inter-organisational labour mobility.

Methodology

This study used the positivist research approach (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2016). In positivism, the commonly used approach is a deductive approach to theory testing (Creswell, 2012). In order to gather quantitative data for analysis using descriptive and inferential statistics, a survey technique was employed (Saunders et al., 2016).

Area of the study and population

This study was undertaken in Tanzania mainland. There were 27 government agencies with 8856 employees at the time of the research. The existing website of the government agencies establishment (www.estabs.go.tz) obtained from the Treasurer Registrar head office provided the useful information. The executive agency was launched in Tanzania in 1997 for the purpose of refining the performance of public services because they adopted New Public Management agency model operating in flexible business manner (URT, 2005). However, most of these executive agencies' human resource management practices are currently centralized, leading to a decreased sense of autonomy. Geographically 78% of these executive agencies' head offices are located in Dar es Salaam, with the rest located in the Coastal region (11%), Morogoro (7%) and Dodoma (4%).

Sample size

A sample of 383 employees was derived using Yamane's formula, $n = N / [1 + N (e)^2]$ (Yamane, 1973). Government agencies with more than 200 hundred employees were used to draw the sample. Hence, eight government agencies located in Dar es Salaam city were selected purposefully because of their large size. Explicitly, large organisations were preferred for investigation because of the belief that they have formal Human Resource (HR) departments that influence HR practices (Michael, 2009). This study adopts probability sampling with a simple random sampling technique (Saunders et al., 2016). Therefore, the sample was selected proportionally, based on the list obtained from HR department as follows: The sample size assumed was n=460, the total population was N=3029 divided into 8 agencies, such that N1=227 for Tanzania Public Service College (TPSC), N2=222 for Tanzania Institute of Accountancy (TIA), N3=768 for Tanzania Airport Authority (TAA), N4=358 for Tanzania Building Agency (TBA), N5=236 for Weight and Measure Agency (WMA), N6=266 for Tanzania Medicine & Medical Device Authority (TMDA), N7=686 for Tanzania National Roads Agency (TANROADS) and N8=266 for GPSA. Then, the sample size was obtained as follows: For Government Procurement Service Agency N1=227, we had P1 = 227/3029 and hence n1=n*P1= 460 (227/3029)=35; n2=n*P2= 460 (222/3029) = 34; n3 = n*P3 = (768/3029) = 117; n4 = n*P4 = 460 (358/3029) = 54; n5 = n*P5 = 460 (236/3029) = 36; n6 = n*P6 = 460 (266/3029) = 40; n7 =n*P7 = 460 (686/3029) = 104; n8 = n*P8 = 460 (266/3029) = 40.

Data collection

The study was based on primary data collection using a survey questionnaire. Scholars proposed that a pilot should be tested before using a questionnaire for data collection (Creswell, 2012). The

researchers conducted a pilot study from March to April 2021. The data were thoroughly analysed and the researcher proved that the measurement model was of good quality through data validity and reliability. The data were maintained for further analysis since no adjustment to the instrument was made (Saunders et al., 2016). The participating agencies were contacted first through physical addresses and telephone numbers. Afterward, the questionnaire was dropped-off to each respondent based on the staff lists obtained from HR officers and gathered later after completion (Jackson-Smith et al., 2016).

Therefore, a total of 460 participants surveyed was considered suitable for the current study, as it considers a buffer of a risk of non-response, which is estimated to be 20% for management studies in Tanzania (Goodluck, 2009). A total of 389 questionnaire were gathered, leading to a 84.6% rate of response. All received responses were scrutinised for missing values; responses with a more substantial number of missing values (more than 15%) were excluded per recommendation (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2017). In this study, IBM SPSS 20 software was used for missing data analysis, such that among the 389 questionnaires that were collected 56 were removed due to having a lot of missing values. Hence, 333 were retained for data analysis, which had a total of three missing values accounting for only 0.9% of the total data set. Hence, the few missing values were retained and given a code of (–99) for treating missing value (Hair et al., 2017).

Measurement of Variables

Six items modified from Neog and Barua (2014) and Theron (2015) were used to measure compensation. Training and development were measured by six items that were adapted from Neog and Barua (2014); Theron (2015). In addition, Transformational leadership was measured by six items that were adapted from Jensen et al. (2019). Moreover, six measures derived from Jung and Yoon (2013) and Walsh, Ashford, and Hill (1985) were used to measure turnover intention, both as indicated in Table 2, below.

The two independent and moderator variables were operationalized based on validated scales using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1= (strongly disagree) to 7= (strongly agree). However, the turnover intention was operationalized based validated a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1= (strongly disagree) to 5= (strongly agree). The use of two different scale was among the procedural remedies taken to prevent Common Method Bias (CMB) (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Data Analysis Method

Since the researchers collected data using a self-reported questionnaire, they had to examine the CMB, to confirm that regression outcome were unbiased (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Tehseen, Ramayah, and Sajilan (2017) recommend using procedural and statistical remedies to test CMB. Researchers used variance inflation factor (VIF) as a statistical way to assess CMB. According to Kock (2015), VIF values emanating from the full collinearity test identical to or less than 3.3 shows that the model is safe from CMB. In this study, a more constrained VIF value of 3 was used to measure CMB via SmartPLS 3.2.7 (Hair Jr, Risher, Sarstedt, & Ringle, 2019). All VIF values were lower than 3 Table 1, indicates that the model was free from CMB.

Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) was the preferred method because the primary purpose of the research objective is the prediction and explanation of the target endogenous latent variable.

Table 1: Multicollinearity outcomes

Latent variables	VIF	If VIF>3? (Multicollinearity problem)
Turnover intention		
Compensation	1.734	NA
Training and Development	1.165	NA
Transformational Leadership	1.680	NA

NB: NA = Not at all.

PLS-SEM was predominantly beneficial as it dealt with complex models and allowed the estimation of variables with many indicators and structural path regardless of their distributional assumptions (Hair et al., 2017).

The current study used SmartPLS 3.2.7 to estimate two PLS structural models (Ringle, Wende, & Becker, 2015). The evaluation of PLS-SEM results comprises two implementation stages: examining the measurement model to ascertain the quality. The second stage is evaluating the structural model (Hair Jr et al., 2019). Thus following Hair et al. (2017), the structural models were primarily determined based on the following model's predictive capabilities: the coefficient of determination (R^2), effect size f^2, predictive accuracy (Q^2), the statistical significance and relevance of the path coefficients (β), and model's out-of-sample predictive power using partial least square predict algorithm procedure (PLSpredict).

Study findings

Demographic characteristics

The results indicated that most respondents were males, 209 (62.8%), whereas females were 124 (37.2%). It implies that male employees dominate government agencies' employees. The masculine nature of work explains this scenario in most of these agencies, such as engineers and surveyors. In terms of age, the study consisted of employees of various age groups as follows 20-30 years were 79 (23.7%); 31-40 were 152 (45.6%); 41-50 were 69 (20.7%); whereas those above 50 years of age were 33 (9.9%). It implies that the youth made a great composition of the working staff. This is explained by the business nature of the organisation that need employees who are very aggressive and energetic capable of undertaking various activities.

Reflective measurement model assessment results

The model was made by a total of 24 reflective indicators. Indicator reliability is attained when standardized outer loading is 0.708 or higher. However, indicator loadings between 0.4 and 0.7 are considered to be retained when deleting them could not have any impact on the composite reliability or average variance extracted (AVE) (Hair et al., 2017). Consequently, only 22 reflective indicators passed the required minimum threshold as indicated in Figure 2. Hence, the revised measurement model proves that all latent variables have quality indicator reliability.

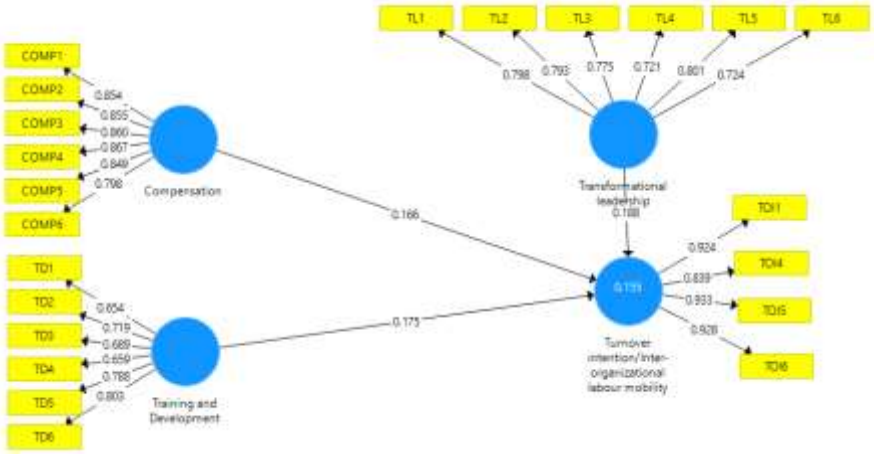


Figure 2. Measurement model for the main effect PLS path model

The study assesses internal consistency reliability by using composite reliability (ρc). Pc values above 0.7 were regarded satisfactory in this study (Hair et al., 2017). Entirely all the latent variables exceeded the minimum required threshold of ρc, proof that there were internal consistency reliability on all identified measures see Table 2. An average value extracted (AVE) value of 0.5 or higher was appropriate to ascertain convergent validity, being the minimum proposed threshold. This is a proof that more than half of the variance of its indicators are accounted for by the latent variable (Hair et al., 2017). All reflective latent variables indicated that convergent validity was attained see Table 2.

Discriminant validity was assessed using the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlation (HTMT) approach as a novel approach. HTMT 0.85 and HTMT 0.90 are criteria of assessing discriminant validity, of the two HTMT 0.85 is the most conservative one. On the other hand, HTMTinference is the statistical test of assessing discriminant validity. HTMTinference is the most liberal approach of all due to its much higher specific values. Hence, with HTMTinference, it is possible to compute bootstrap confidence interval (C.I), whereby the C.I containing the figure of 1 signify lack of discriminant. However, if the value of 1 is not within the C.I range, this recommends that latent variables are empirically distinct (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015). The maximum value of HTMT was 0.642, which is below 0.85, the most traditional HTMT. Hence, the results proved that all the latent variables in the measurement model were conceptually distinct from each other. In addition, the derived bootstrap C.I shows that figure 1 falls outside the C.I range. Hence the model is considered of high quality due to meeting the threshold criteria for measurement model assessment of reliability, convergent and discriminant validity.

Table 2: Assessment of latent variable reliability and convergent validity

Latent variable	Code	Composite reliability	AVE
Turnover intention	TOI	0.949	0.822
Compensation	COMP	0.939	0.718
Training and development	TD	0.866	0.520
Transformational leadership	TL	0.897	0.592

Assessment of the structural model relationships

Examining the collinearity before assessing the path model relationship is important, as its presence would bias the regression results. VIF values above 5 indicate collinearity problems among latent predictor variables (Becker, Ringle, Sarstedt, & Völckner, 2015); nonetheless, it can also occur at minor values of 3-5. Consequently, the accepted VIF values should be close to 3 or below, of which the analysis results from Table 1 indicate that multicollinearity is not a problem (Hair Jr et al., 2019). The next stage was to examine the coefficient of determination (R^2) presented in Figure 2, for the indirect model and summarized in Table 5 below. The rule of thumb for R^2 ranges from weak (0.19), moderate (0.33), to substantial (0.67) (Chin, 1998). However, according to Hair et al. (2017) R^2 of 0.10 can be considered satisfactory. Table 5, below indicates that the R^2 for the direct effect model has attained a value of 0.131, which is considered reasonable, confirming the direct model explanatory power. This suggests that compensation and training and development explain 13.1% of the variation in inter-organisational labour mobility (ILM), whereas other factors account outstanding 86.9%.

Additionally, Figure 2 above indicates that the R^2 for the main effect model was 0.155, which is also considered satisfactory. More exactly, this suggests that compensation, training and development and transformational leadership explain 15.5% of the variation in ILM, leaving the outstanding 84.5% to be accounted for by other factors. Moreover, Table 5, below indicates that the R^2 for the interaction effect model was 0.218. According to Ramayah, Cheah, Chuah, Ting, and Memon (2018), the R^2 change becomes an essential issue in moderation analysis. The R^2 for the main effect model was 0.155, and the R^2 for the interaction effect model was 0.218. The R^2 change of 0.063 indicates that the R^2 has changed about 6.3% by adding two interaction terms. The numerical suggestion from the blindfolding procedure specifies that the direct relationship between pull factors and ILM in the PLS structural model has attained a minor predictive relevance Q^2 value of 9.8%, confirming the main effect model predictive relevance, because the value is above 0 (Hair et al., 2017). Additionally, the predictive relevance of Q^2 for the main effect model value was 0.12 (12%), which also confirms the main effect model predictive relevance.

Then, the model's predictive power was calculated by running the PLSpredict procedures with 10 folds and ten reiterations. Out-of-sample predictions are helpful for evaluation when the attention is on the model's capability to generalize the results (Shmueli, Ray, Estrada, & Chatla, 2016). The emphasis was on the model's key target variable, ILM/turnover intention (TOI) and its four scale items. Table 4, below, shows that all four indicators achieve $Q^2_{predict}$ greater than zero, demonstrating that the model outdoes the naïve standard. Furthermore, prediction errors analysis indicates non highly unsymmetric distribution. Henceforth, the appropriate examination concentrates on the root mean square error (RMSE) statistics. The analyses show that the RMSE values produced by the PLS path model were reliably lower than those of the linear model (LM) standard as indicated in Table 4 below. According to the rule of thumb for running PLSpredict, PLS-SEM < LM for all TOI scale items: if all indicators in the PLS-SEM analysis have lower RMSE values than the naïve LM standard, the model has high predictive power, consequently the results confirming the model's large out of sample predictive power, that facilitate its broader generalization.

Significance testing results of the structural model

Table 5 demonstrates that compensation significantly influenced ILM (β = 0.275) in a manner similar to how training and development influenced ILM (β = 0.426). The significance and the favourable impact of compensation on ILM were subsequently confirmed by bootstrapping analysis [β = 0.275, p < 0.001]. H_1 was accepted since the bootstrapping analysis revealed that the C.I [0.177; 0.367] did not contain zero. Likewise, the positive relationship between training and development and ILM is significant [β = 0.169, p < 0.001].

Table 4: PLSpredict results

	PLS-SEM		LM	PLS-SEM-LM
	RMSE	$Q^2_{predict}$	RMSE	RMSE
TOI1	1.117	0.127	1.140	-0.023
TOI4	1.226	0.044	1.256	-0.03
TOI5	1.214	0.137	1.238	-0.024
TOI6	1.235	0.109	1.268	-0.033

Table 5: Significance test results

Relationships	Path coefficients	t-Values	p-Value	95%Confidence interval	f^2
COMP→TOI/ILM	0.275	4.770***	0.000	[0.117, 0.367]	0.02
TD →TOI/ILM	0.169	3.432***	0.000	[0.074, 0.236]	0.03
COMP*TL→ TOI/ILM	-0.216	4.071***	0.000	[-0.309, -0.136]	N/A
TD*TL → TOI/ILM	0.127	2.661**	0.004	[0.051, 0.201]	N/A

Q^2 Direct model 0.098; R^2 Main effect model 0.155; Q^2 Main effect model 0.12; R^2 Simple effect model 0.218; f^2 of interaction effect 0.08.

Note: NS = Not significant; COMP = Compensation; TD = Training and Development; TOI/ILM = Turnover intention/inter-organisational labour mobility *** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01,*p < 0.05

Further, the bootstrapping analysis indicated that the C.I [0.074;0.236] did not contain zero, which leads to the acceptance of H_2.

Hypotheses for a moderation effect

The significant testing results from Table 5, above using bootstrapping procedure reveal significant results of the two interaction terms. The first moderation effect (COMP*TL→ TOI/ILM) show that [$\beta = -0.216$, $p < 0.001$]. Further, the bootstrapping analysis specified that the C.I [-0.309; -0.136] does not contain zero, justifying the moderating effect. Therefore, compliance with H_{3a}: Hence, the finding implies that the lower the TL, the stronger the influence of compensation on ILM and vice versa for the higher. Additionally, the second moderation effect (TD*TL→ TOI/ILM) shows that [$\beta = 0.127$, $p < 0.001$]. Moreover, the bootstrapping analysis showed that the C.I [0.051; 0.201] does not contain zero, justifying the moderating effect. Therefore, compliance with H_{3b} implies that the higher the TL, the weaker the influence of training and development on ILM, and vice versa for the lower.

The moderating effect H3a can be explained more by looking at the interaction plot. Standardized β coefficients were 0.075 from compensation to TOI/ILM, 0.093 from TL to ILM, and the interaction effect of -0.216, with R^2 of 0.218, as shown in Table 5, above. Hence, by looking at the interaction plot in Figure 3, below, we can interpret it as follows: the relationship between compensation and TOI/ILM is 0.075 for an average level of TL. For a higher level of TL, the relationship between compensation and ILM decreased by the size of the interaction term from 0.075 to -0.141 (i.e., 0.075 - 0.216= -0.141) because the slope is not steeper. Similarly, for the lower level of TL, the relationship between compensation and ILM increased by the size of the interaction term from 0.076 to 0.291 (i.e., 0.075 + 0.216=0.291) because the slope is steeper.

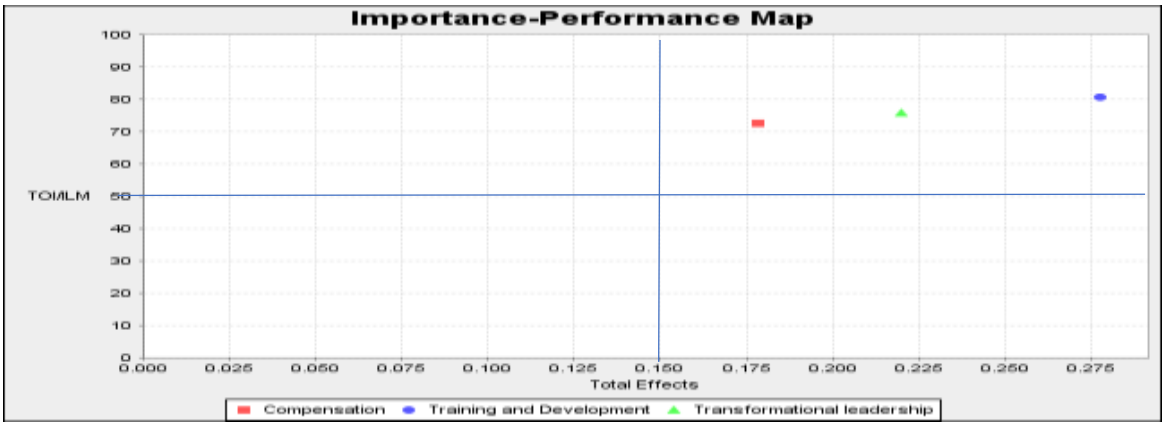
The interpretation of the moderating effect two, H_{3b} can be explained more by looking at the interaction plot. Standardized β coefficients are 0.231 from training and development to ILM, 0.093 from TL to TOI/ILM, and the interaction effect of 0.127, with R^2 of 0.218, as shown in Table 5, above. Hence, by looking at the interaction plot from Figure 4, below, we can interpret it as follows: the relationship between training and development and ILM is 0.231 for an average level of TL. For a higher level of TL, the relationship between training and development and ILM increase by the size of the interaction term from 0.231 to 0.324 (i.e., 0.231+0.093= 0.324) because the slope is steeper. Similarly, for the lower level of TL, the relationship between training and development and ILM decreases by the size of the interaction term from 0.231 to 0.138 (i.e., 0.231-0.093=0.138) because the slope is not as steep.

Figure 3: Simple slope plot for moderating effect of transformational leadership on the relationship between compensation and inter-organisational labour mobility

Figure 4: Simple slope plot for moderating effect of transformational leadership on the relationship between training and development and inter-organisational labour mobility

Importance-performance map analysis (IPMA) of the path modeling results

Since that all study's independent variables were reflectively measured, IPMA was restricted to the structural model. Figure 5, below shows each latent variable's performance and impact on ILM. The IPMA is divided into four areas, with importance and performance values below and above average (Ringle & Sarstedt, 2016). Each IPMA concentration is on the lower right area to enhance improvement because items plotted in this area have high importance with low performance. Figure 5, below shows that training and development (TD) is highly relevant to ILM due to its significant influence. Therefore, government agencies need to maintain the good performance of TD by ensuring that adequate TD programs are implemented. Study outcomes also indicate that as both TD, and COMP are chief antecedents of employees' ILM, and TL is a significant pull-to-stay factor, government agencies must have the relevant TD programs to empower their



Note: TOI/ILM = Turnover Intention/Inter-organisational Labour Mobility

Figure 5: Importance performance-map analysis

leaders at all levels to acquire TL behaviour which will enable them to maintain and communicate the vision of their organisation both to the individual, groups and organisation at large. Not only that TL view problems as opportunity, and take active action in enhancing individual career development.

Discussion

The findings support H_1, demonstrating a strong positive link between compensation and inter-organisational labour mobility (ILM). The study's findings are consistent with those of Schmelzer (2012) and Owence et al. (2014) who discovered a notable favourable impact on the link between external voluntary mobility and compensation. These results are inconsistent with the findings of Nair, Mee, and Cheik (2016) and Shah et al. (2010), who indicated the absence of a significant effect on the relationship between compensation and external voluntary mobility of academic staffs in higher learning institutions. This could be explained by the fact that academic staffs are attracted to other higher learning institutions by other factors such as career development opportunities, research funds, university location, and image rather than compensation. These findings concur with He et al. (2017), who found that underpaying CEOs in China causes them to leave their companies. The findings are also supported by Herzberg et al. (1959), who revealed that unfair compensation policies are hygiene factors that will result in job dissatisfaction and increase ILM.

Moreover, the results show a substantial link between training and development and ILM, which supports H_2. The results are consistent with Theron et al. (2014), who found that employees leave and join another organisation due to inadequate career development opportunities. SET also supported this relationship in the sense that if an organisation, through inspiring, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration transformational leadership (TL), will enable employees to acquire the necessary training and development programs which will enhance their retention (Blau, 1964). Hence, if an organisation invests effectively in employee training and development, employees reciprocate by being loyal to their employers and reduce ILM. The inconsistent results were also reported by Nawaz and Pangil (2016), who revealed that providing employees with an opportunity to develop their abilities cannot promise that they would have less probability of leaving their organisation. This could be explained by contextual factors because developed countries are quite different from low-developed countries in terms for HR management practices.

Concerning H_{3a} (COMP -> TOI/ILM), results indicate that TL moderates the influence of compensation on ILM. The lower the TL, the stronger the influence of compensation on ILM. From the theoretical point of view, this study's findings align with Venkatraman (1989), who supports the concept of fit between the predictor and moderator variables in determining the criterion variable. Hence, employees are pulled to leave because of the better compensation packages that other public organisations offer due to a lower level of TL. This was verified by research by Ahmad, Yei, and Bujan (2013), which asserted that monetary and non-monetary rewards influence employee intention to stay or leave the organisation. Additionally, results show that H_{3b} was supported as follows, TL moderates the influence of training and development on ILM such that the higher the TL, the weaker the influence of training and development on ILM. These findings are significant because TL behaviour enables managers to retain their employees because it exerts the pull-to-stay force in the form of social networks, which creates embedding forces, according to the theoretical prediction by Venkatraman (1989) and empirical study by Herman et al. (2013). The findings align with the previous study by Waldman et al. (2015), who revealed that TL could exert a pull-to-stay force that can weaken the impact of pull factors.

Conclusion

This study sought to expose how transformational leadership interacts with pull factors that influence inter-organisational labour mobility in the public sector. No studies have examined the interaction between pull factors (training and development and compensation) and transformational leadership on inter-organisational labour mobility, despite researchers examining the moderating effect of transformational leadership on several push variables on inter-organisational labour mobility. With the moderating influence of transformational leadership, this study represents empirical efforts supporting the systematic examination of the causal hypotheses between pull variables and ILM. The findings have significant implications for how transformational leadership can act as an important pull-to-stay factor and minimise the impacts of compensation and training and development on ILM in developing world. Hence, under the presence of transformational leadership, employees are obliged to stay and reciprocate in kind by being loyal to the organisation, reducing their ILM. Public organisations must invest in transformational leadership development for all managerial personnel.

Theoretical implications

The current study's findings illustrate how organisations can combine transformational leadership and pull factors to increase employee retention, which adds to our understanding of the labour mobility model and pull factors. This research article will advance knowledge in the following way: Firstly, this study is of value due to little research on transformational leadership, especially in developing countries (Herman et al., 2013; Oh & Chhinzer, 2021). Several models have been established to predict ILM (Haldorai et al., 2019; Wynen et al., 2013). However, non-have integrate transformational leadership, pull factors (compensation, and training and development) and ILM. Hence, the study has proved that transformational leadership is an important pull-to-stay factor that could suppress the impacts compensation and training and development with the help of Social Exchange Theory (SET), which is considered as a new theoretical insight. The positive transformational leadership behaviour under the influence of SET, will act as an embedding force to employees as they will respond by being loyal and committed to the organisation from the principle of reciprocity. Consequently, the study has resulted in an indirect relationship model with transformational leadership as an interaction variable from the existing direct employer-employee relationship, which contribute significantly to moderation literature.

Additionally, the findings go beyond Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory in that transformational leadership can interact with the hygiene factor (compensation) and motivational factor (training and development) in theory to increase employee job satisfaction and prevent them from experiencing job dissatisfaction, which will limit their ILM. Therefore, empirical findings, have confirmed that pull variables are positively related to ILM. The study's findings also supported the hypothesis that transformational leadership may be a moderator in the link between pull variables and ILM. So, enhancing leaders the capacity to acquire transformational leadership behaviour is very essential in stimulating shared understanding, common goals, collaborative culture, individual recognition, intellectual growth, idealised influence and inspirational motivation to employees which facilitates their job satisfaction and prevent ILM.

Practical implications

Firstly, given the link between transformational leadership and pull-to-leave factors on ILM, organisations must be aware of the transformational leadership effect on minimizing employees'

ILM. Organisations should set up leadership development programs to help employees in all managerial positions acquire the behaviours that can improve staff perceptions of their supervisors' transformational leadership, which is highly important for them to execute their duties in the organisation (Kelloway, Barling, & Helleur, 2000; Sun & Wang, 2017). This recommendation would be especially useful in Tanzanian public organisations, where employee retention is very important and difficult.

Secondly, the increasingly turbulent contemporary economy has resulted in boundary less careers and job-hopping behaviour. Consequently, employees constantly move from organisation to organisation to enhance their career satisfaction. Hence, managerial personnel must identify the factors leading to employees quitting their current organisation and joining new ones. This study offered empirical proof that ILM is significantly influenced by compensation and training and development. Therefore, this study's results give managers crucial information that should be adjusted to increase staff retention.

Nevertheless, the importance performance map analysis results have demonstrated that training and development is a significant element that, when compared to other factors, plays a crucial part in explaining ILM. As a result, managerial action should place a high priority on enhancing training and development in order to improve staff retention and organisational success. The findings of this study indicated that compensation, training and development, and transformational leadership interactively explain 15.5% of ILM variation. This means that other factors (85.5%) influence ILM; however, they have not been accounted for in this study. Hence, the findings call for further studies to investigate the influence of both push and pull factors on ILM. Furthermore, future studies may consider doing qualitative research design to explore other factors influencing ILM.

References

Aburumman, O., Salleh, A., Omar, K., & Abadi, M. (2020). The impact of human resource management practices and career satisfaction on employee's turnover intention. *Management Science Letters, 10*(3), 641-652.

Agarwal, R., Bidwell, M., Cirillo, B., & Tzabbar, D. (2020). Two perspectives on employee mobility: A conversation between Rajshree Agarwal and Matthew Bidwell. In *Employee Inter-and Intra-Firm Mobility*: Emerald Publishing Limited.

Ahmad, R., Yei, E. T. P., & Bujan, S. (2013). Relationship between Types of Benefit (leave, loan and retirement plan) and Employees' Retention. *International Journal of Education Research, 1*(8), 1-13.

Akgündüz, Y. E., Aldan, A., Bağır, Y. K., & Torun, H. (2019). Job mobility in Turkey. *Central Bank Review, 19*(3), 83-91.

Alshmemri, M., Shahwan-Akl, L., & Maude, P. (2017). Herzberg's two-factor theory. *Life Science Journal, 14*(5), 12-16.

Becker, J.-M., Ringle, C. M., Sarstedt, M., & Völckner, F. (2015). How collinearity affects mixture regression results. *Marketing Letters, 26*(4), 643-659.

Blau, P. (1964). *Exchange and Power in Social Life*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Bryant, P. C., & Allen, D. G. (2013). Compensation, benefits and employee turnover: HR strategies for retaining top talent. *Compensation Benefits Review, 45*(3), 171-175.

Chiat, L. C., & Panatik, S. A. (2019). Perceptions of employee turnover intention by Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory: A systematic literature review. *Journal of Research in Psychology, 1*(2), 10-15.

Chiekezie, O. M., Emejulu, G., & Nwanneka, A. (2017). Compensation management and employee retention of selected commercial banks in Anambra State, Nigeria. *Archives of Business Research, 5*(3), 115-127.

Chin, W. W. (1998). *The partial least squares approach to structural equation modeling*. *In: G. A. Marcoulides (Ed.), Modern Methods for Business Research* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Cregård, A., Corin, L., & Skagert, K. (2017). Voluntary turnover among public sector managers: A review. *Scandinavian Journal of Public Administration, 21*(2), 89-114.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research* (4th ed.). Boylston Street, Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.

Cropanzano, R., Anthony, E. L., Daniels, S. R., & Hall, A. V. (2017). Social exchange theory: A critical review with theoretical remedies. *Academy of Management Annals, 11*(1), 479-516.

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management, 31*(6), 874-900.

Gardner, T. M., Wright, P. M., & Moynihan, L. M. (2011). The impact of motivation, empowerment, and skill-enhancing practices on aggregate voluntary turnover: The mediating effect of collective affective commitment. *Personnel Psychology, 64*(2), 315-350.

Goodluck, C. (2009). *Competitive Advantage in Small and Medium Scale Enterprises: A Resource-Based Analysis of Tanzanian Family and Non-Family Firms.* (PhD). University of Dar es Salaam, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.

Griffeth, R. W., Hom, P. W., & Gaertner, S. (2000). A meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of employee turnover: Update, moderator tests, and research implications for the next millennium. *Journal of Management, 26*(3), 463-488.

Hair, J., Hult, T. M., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2017). *A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS – SEM)* (2nd ed.). SAGE Publications, Inc.: Thousand Oaks, CA.

Hair Jr, J. F., Risher, J. J., Sarstedt, M., & Ringle, C. M. (2019). When to use and how to report the results of PLS-SEM. *European Business Review, 31*(1), 2-24.

Haldorai, K., Kim, W. G., Pillai, S. G., Park, T. E., & Balasubramanian, K. (2019). Factors affecting hotel employees' attrition and turnover: Application of pull-push-mooring framework. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 83*(1), 46-55.

He, L., Shaw, T. S., & Fang, J. (2017). Managerial labor market during institutional transition: A study of CEO compensation and voluntary turnover. *Corporate Governance: An International Review, 25*(3), 167-185.

Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 43*(1), 115-135.

Herman, H., Huang, X., & Lam, W. (2013). Why does transformational leadership matter for employee turnover? A multi-foci social exchange perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly, 24*(5), 763-776.

Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snydermann, B. (1959). *The Motivation to Work.* New York: Wiley.

Huang, W.-R., & Su, C.-H. (2016). The mediating role of job satisfaction in the relationship between job training satisfaction and turnover intentions. *Industrial and Commercial Training, 48*(1), 42-52.

Hughes, L. W., Avey, J. B., & Nixon, D. R. (2010). Relationships between leadership and followers' quitting intentions and job search behaviors. *Journal of Leadership Organisational Studies, 17*(4), 351-362.

Jackson-Smith, D., Flint, C. G., Dolan, M., Trentelman, C. K., Holyoak, G., Thomas, B., & Ma, G. (2016). Effectiveness of the drop-off/pick-up survey methodology in different neighborhood types. *Journal of Rural Social Sciences, 31*(3), 3.

Jensen, U. T., Andersen, L. B., Bro, L. L., Bøllingtoft, A., Eriksen, T. L. M., Holten, A.-L., . . . Salomonsen, H. H. (2019). Conceptualizing and measuring transformational and transactional leadership. *Administration Society, 51*(1), 3-33.

Jung, H. S., & Yoon, H. H. (2013). The effects of organisational service orientation on person–organisation fit and turnover intent. *The Service Industries Journal, 33*(1), 7-29.

Kelloway, E. K., Barling, J., & Helleur, J. (2000). Enhancing transformational leadership: The roles of training and feedback. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal, 21*(3), 145-149.

Kock, N. (2015). Common method bias in PLS-SEM: A full collinearity assessment approach. *International Journal of e-Collaboration (ijec), 11*(4), 1-10.

Latzke, M., Kattenbach, R., Schneidhofer, T., Schramm, F., & Mayrhofer, W. (2016). Consequences of voluntary job changes in Germany: A multilevel analysis for 1985–2013. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 93*, 139-149.

Liljegren, M., & Ekberg, K. (2009). Job mobility as predictor of health and burnout. *Journal of Occupational Organisational Psychology, 82*(2), 317-329.

Linhartová, L., & Urbancová, H. (2013). Results of analysis of employee mobility: factors affecting knowledge continuity. *Acta Universitatis Agriculturae et Silviculturae Mendelianae Brunensis, 60*(4), 235-244.

Mbah, S. E., & Ikemefuna, C. (2012). Job satisfaction and employees' turnover intentions in total Nigeria plc. *Lagos State. International Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 2*(14), 275-287.

Michael, F. K. (2009). *Human Resources Management Practices and Employee Job Satisfaction in Private Work Organisations: A Tanzanian Context.* (PhD). University of Dar es Salaam, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.

Mobley, W. H., Griffeth, R. W., Hand, H. H., & Meglino, B. M. (1979). Review and conceptual analysis of the employee turnover process. *Psychological Bulletin, 86*(3), 493-522.

Moon, K.-K., & Park, J. (2019). Leadership Styles and Turnover Behavior in the US Federal Government: Does Span of Control Matter? *International Public Management Journal, 22*(3), 417-443.

Na-Nan, K., Kanthong, S. N., & Dhienhirun, A. (2020). Development and validation of an instrument to measure turnover intention of Generation Y in Thailand. *International Journal of Organisational Analysis, 29*(3), 682-698.

Nair, S., Mee, L. Y., & Cheik, A. N. (2016). Internal push factors and external pull factors and their relationships with lecturers' turnover intention. *International Journal of Business Management, 11*(12), 110-126.

Nawaz, M., & Pangil, F. (2016). The relationship between human resource development factors, career growth and turnover intention: The mediating role of organisational commitment. *Management Science Letters, 6*(2), 157-176.

Neog, B. B., & Barua, M. (2014). Factors influencing employee's job satisfaction: An empirical study among employees of automobile service workshops in Assam. *The SIJ Transactions on Industrial, Financial Business Management, 2*(7), 305-316.

Ngo-Henha, P. E. (2018). A review of existing turnover intention theories. *International Journal of Economics and Management Engineering, 11*(11), 2760-2767.

Oh, J., & Chhinzer, N. (2021). Is turnover contagious? The impact of transformational leadership and collective turnover on employee turnover decisions. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal, 42*(7), 1089-1103.

Owence, C., Pinagase, T. G., & Mercy, M. M. (2014). Causes and effects of staff turnover in the Academic Development Centre: A case of a Historically Black University in South Africa. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, 5*(11), 69.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(5), 879-903.

Rahman, W., & Nas, Z. (2013). Employee development and turnover intention: theory validation. *European Journal of Training Development, 37*(6), 564-579.

Ramayah, T., Cheah, J., Chuah, F., Ting, H., & Memon, M. A. (2018). Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) using smartPLS 3.0:An updated and practical guide to statistical analysis. In (2nd ed.). Kuala Lumpur Malaysia: Pearson.

Reina, C. S., Rogers, K. M., Peterson, S. J., Byron, K., & Hom, P. W. (2018). Quitting the boss? The role of manager influence tactics and employee emotional engagement in voluntary turnover. *Journal of leadership & Organisational Studies, 25*(1), 5-18.

Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2016). Gain more insight from your PLS-SEM results: The importance-performance map analysis. *Industrial Management & Data Systems, 116*(9), 1865-1886.

Ringle, C. M., Wende, S., & Becker, J.-M. (2015). SmartPLS 3. *Boenningstedt: SmartPLS GmbH*.

Rubenstein, A. L., Eberly, M. B., Lee, T. W., & Mitchell, T. R. (2018). Surveying the forest: A meta-analysis, moderator investigation, and future-oriented discussion of the antecedents of voluntary employee turnover. *Personnel Psychology, 71*(1), 23-65.

Sasso, L., Bagnasco, A., Catania, G., Zanini, M., Aleo, G., & Watson, R. (2019). Push and pull factors of nurses' intention to leave. *Journal of Nursing Management, 27*(5), 946-954.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2016). *Research methods for business students* (7th ed.). Harlow, England: FT Prentice Hall.

Schmelzer, P. (2012). The consequences of job mobility for future earnings in early working life in Germany—placing indirect and direct job mobility into institutional context. *European Sociological Review, 28*(1), 82-95.

Semmer, N. K., Elfering, A., Baillod, J., Berset, M., & Beehr, T. A. (2014). Push and pull motivations for quitting. *Zeitschrift für Arbeits-und Organisationspsychologie, 58*(4), 173-185.

Shah, I. A., Fakhr, Z., Ahmad, M. S., & Zaman, K. (2010). Measuring push, pull and personal factors affecting turnover intention: a case of university teachers in Pakistan. *Review of Economic and Business Studies, 3*(1), 167-192.

Shmueli, G., Ray, S., Estrada, J. M. V., & Chatla, S. B. (2016). The elephant in the room: Predictive performance of PLS models. *Journal of Business Research, 69*(10), 4552-4564.

Sousa-Poza, A., & Henneberger, F. (2004). Analyzing job mobility with job turnover intentions: An international comparative study. *Journal of Economic Issues, 38*(1), 113-137.

Steenackers, K., & Guerry, M.-A. (2016). Determinants of job-hopping: an empirical study in Belgium. *International Journal of Manpower, 37*(3), 494-510.

Sun, R., & Wang, W. (2017). Transformational leadership, employee turnover intention, and actual voluntary turnover in public organisations. *Public Management Review, 19*(8), 1124-1141.

Tehseen, S., Ramayah, T., & Sajilan, S. (2017). Testing and controlling for common method variance: A review of available methods. *Journal of Management Sciences, 4*(2), 142-168.

Tett, R. P., & Meyer, J. P. (1993). Job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover: path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. *Personnel Psychology, 46*(2), 259-293.

Theron, M. (2015). *The development of a scale for talent retention.* University of Pretoria, Unpublished Doctoral Thesis.

Theron, M., Barkhuizen, N., & Du Plessis, Y. (2014). Managing the academic talent void: Investigating factors in academic turnover and retention in South Africa. *Journal of Industrial Psychology, 40*(1), 01-14.

Trottier, T., Van Wart, M., & Wang, X. (2008). Examining the nature and significance of leadership in government organisations. *Public Administration Review, 68*(2), 319-333.

URT. (1999). *Public Service Management and Employment Policy*. Dar es Salaam: President Office-Public Service Management.

URT. (2005). *The State of Public Service Report*. Dar es Salaam: President's Office Public Management Service.

Venkatraman, N. (1989). The concept of fit in strategy research: Toward verbal and statistical correspondence. *Academy of Management Review, 14*(3), 423-444.

Vimala, K., Thangaraja, A., Mohamad, H. S., & Balakrishan, P. (2016). Pull factors, career anchor and turnover of academician in Malaysia. *Journal of International Business and Economics, 16*(4), 59-80.

Waldman, D. A., Carter, M. Z., & Hom, P. W. (2015). A multilevel investigation of leadership and turnover behavior. *Journal of Management, 41*(6), 1724-1744.

Walsh, J. P., Ashford, S. J., & Hill, T. E. (1985). Feedback obstruction: The influence of the information environment on employee turnover intentions. *Human Relations, 38*(1), 23-46.

Wang, & Walumbwa, F. O. (2007). Family-friendly programs, organisational commitment, and work withdrawal: the moderating role of transformational leadership. *Personnel Psychology, 60*(2), 397-427.

Wynen, J., Op de Beeck, S., & Hondeghem, A. (2013). Interorganisational mobility within the US federal government: Examining the effect of individual and organisational factors. *Public Administration Review, 73*(6), 869-881.

Yamane, T. (1973). *Statistics; An introductory analysis* (2nd ed.). New York: Harper & Row.