

TESTING PROXIMAL WITHDRAWAL STATES THEORY WITH AN INTERACTION
MODEL

A Senior Honors Thesis
Presented to
The Faculty of the Department
of Psychology
University of Houston

In Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree of
Bachelor of Arts

By
Julianna Penso
May 2019

TESTING PROXIMAL WITHDRAWAL STATES THEORY WITH AN INTERACTION
MODEL

Julianna Penso

APPROVED:

Caitlin Porter, Ph.D.
Committee Chair

Robert Eisenberger, Ph.D.

Richard Garner, Ph.D.

Antonio D. Tillis, Ph.D.
Dean, College of Liberal Arts and Social Sciences
Department of Hispanic Studies

TESTING PROXIMAL WITHDRAWAL STATES THEORY WITH AN INTERACTION
MODEL

An Abstract of a Senior Honors Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department

of Psychology

University of Houston

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree of

Bachelor of Arts

By

Julianna Penso

May, 2019

ABSTRACT

Current thesis project evaluates some of the assumptions by Hom, Mitchell, Lee, and Griffeth's (2012) Proximal Withdrawal States Theory (PWST). Hom et al. (2012) describe four cognitive states that may lead employees to either participate or withdraw from organizations; these are formed based on two factors: Perceived Control and Preferences to Stay or Leave. However, it remains unclear whether PWS come from such factors stated by Hom et al. (2012); and whether such factors lead to employee withdrawal. An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) were used to develop reliable measures of preferences to stay or leave and perceived behavioral control. Also, linear and multinomial regression analyses were used to investigate whether preferences to stay or leave, internal perceived control and external perceived control; interacted to predict self-selected PWS and withdrawal outcomes (e.g., job search and turnover intentions). The EFA and CFA supported a three-factor structure but highlighted the consideration of a four-factor structure. Moreover, linear and multinomial regression analysis indicated how preferences to stay or leave; internal perceived control and external perceived control did not interact to predict self-selected PWS, nor they interacted to predict withdrawal outcomes. In sum, current findings show how future research must replicate my findings utilizing an accurate conceptualization of control or perhaps implementing a person-center analytic approach to further evaluate Hom et al.'s (2012) PWST. Moreover, these findings lead researchers questioning if, Hom et al.'s (2012) PWST (specifically their conceptualization of control) in truth, is accurate, valid and reliable to evaluate further. And lastly, if Hom et al.'s (2012) PWST appropriately assessed the construct of control, there needs to be an empirical evaluation of how PWS arise and if they lead to withdrawal outcomes.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract	iii
List of Tables	5
Introduction.....	6
Theoretical Background: Turnover Conceptualizations and Theories	8
Core Components of Turnover Process Models	9
Job attitudes.	9
Employment opportunity.	9
Behavioral Intentions.	10
Linkages between Core Turnover Predictors.....	11
Questioning the Importance of Turnover Intentions	12
Preferences to stay or leave.....	14
Perceived Behavioral Control	15
Direct examinations of Hom et al.'s PWST.....	17
Limitations of Existing Examinations of PWST	18
The Current Study	19
Methods.....	21
Participants.....	21
EFA Participants.	22

CFA Participants	22
Measures	22
Internal Perceived Control.	22
External perceived control.	23
Preferences to leave/stay.	23
Job Search.	23
Turnover Intentions.....	24
Analytic Approach.....	24
Exploratory Factor Analysis.	24
Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	25
Regression Analysis.....	27
Results.....	28
Exploratory Factor Analysis	28
Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	29
Regression Analysis.....	31
Discussion.....	34
Research Implications	35
Practical Implications.....	38
Limitations and Future Directions	38

Conclusion	41
References	42

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Pattern Matrix of Rotated Factor Loadings from the EFA	52
Table 2. Pattern Matrix of Rotated Factor Loadings from the EFA	53
Table 3. CFA Correlations Between Factors	54
Table 4. CFA Comparison of Factor Structures	55
Table 5. Means, Standard Deviations and Correlation Matrix	56
Table 6. Regression Results for Turnover Intentions	57
Table 7. Regression Results for Active Search.....	58
Table 8. Regression Results for Preparatory Search.....	59
Table 9. Multinomial Regression Model Testing	60
Table 10. Multinomial Regression Results	61
Figure 1. Scree test of Eigenvalues	62
Figure 2. Two-Factor Model, Structural Model CFA.....	63
Figure 3. Three-factor Model, Structural Model CFA =	64
Figure 4. Four-factor Model, Structural Model CFA	65

INTRODUCTION

Since the 20th century, understanding how and why people vacate jobs has inspired multiple turnover studies (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberly, 2008), meta-analyses (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000) and comprehensive literature reviews. Over many years, employee turnover has been viewed as having negative consequences for any organization's performance and operations (Maertz & Campion, 1998) since it results in undesirable financial outcomes by lowering sales (Kacmar, Andrews, Van Rooy, Steilberg, & Cerrone, 2006), reducing profits (Heavey, Holwerda, & Hausknecht, 2013) and harming a firm's likelihood of survival (Phillips, 2002). Turnover has also caused organizations high costs associated with recruiting and training new employees to replace the ones who have left (Allen et al., 2010) because it results in the loss of valuable talent, which decreases products and services quality (Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2011).

Most turnover theories attempt to help explain voluntary quits (Price, 2004). In 1958, March and Simon proposed two variables as the primary explanations for voluntary turnover: movement desirability and movement ease (March & Simon, 1958). Their model inspired many contemporary turnover models with the purpose of explaining and predicting quits. Other theorists (e.g., Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985; Price & Mueller, 1981, 1986; Hom & Kinicki, 2001; Maertz & Campion, 2004) have depended on job satisfaction and perceived job alternatives to embody perceived desirability and ease of movement, respectively. Moreover, meta-analytic research has empirically supported job satisfaction, over perceived job alternatives, as the most dominating construct in predicting turnover (e.g., Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Rubenstein, Eberly, Lee, & Mitchell, 2015). Modern

turnover models have extended this original conceptualization by identifying additional motivational forces for leaving, such as responsibilities, outside pressures from peers/families and job embeddedness (Maertz & Campion, 2004; Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001).

Recently, Hom, Mitchell, Lee, and Griffeth (2012) elaborated upon traditional turnover process theories by proposing Proximal Withdrawal States Theory (PWST). Proximal Withdraw States (PWS) are cognitive states that emerge from an employee's preferences to either stay or leave and their perceived control over such preference. PWS are theorized to motivate employees to either stay or quit their employing organization. Despite Hom et al.'s (2012) PWST being an essential contribution to turnover literature, it has not been thoroughly tested. Hom et al. (2012) theorize how perceived control and preferences to leave/stay influence PWS; however, they did not provide an explanation on how to measure such constructs.

Furthermore, no research to date has empirically evaluated how preferences to stay/leave and perceived control interact to give rise to PWS. The current study aims first to develop reliable measures of perceived control and preferences to stay/leave. Having developed measures of these constructs, I evaluate whether Proximal Withdraw States arise from preferences to stay/leave and perceived control. Finally, I examine whether varying levels of preferences to stay and perceived control predict employee withdrawal (i.e., job search and turnover intentions).

Theoretical Background: Turnover Conceptualizations and Theories

Researchers and organizations often classify turnover as either voluntary or involuntary (Maertz & Campion, 1998). The distinction between voluntary and involuntary turnover rests on perceptions of control. For instance, in some cases, organizations hold power over the turnover decision by concluding that they no longer need or want a particular employee (Holtom et al., 2008, Campion 1991), which is referred to as involuntary turnover. Involuntary turnover is also seen when neither employing organizations nor the employees hold control over a turnover decision; for example death, illness or a relocation (Price, 1975). In contrast, voluntary turnover is any instance where the employee voluntarily terminates employment, for example, people who quit in favor of another job offer, relocate, go back to school, or become stay-at-home parents (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979). Extensive research and turnover theory has been concerned with decreasing the costs and consequences of undesirable quits (Price, 2004). Therefore, rather than focusing on terminations, layoffs, and other actions taken by organizations (Barrick & Zimmerman, 2005; Holtom et al., 2008), turnover research has primarily targeted voluntary turnover decisions attributed to each employee, treating it as a motivated individual choice of behavior (Campion 1991).

Primarily addressing voluntary turnover decisions, research has developed and tested many theoretical models that describe employee's voluntary turnover processes. Most turnover models focus on decision-making processes that conclude in turnover actions such as quitting (March & Simon, 1958; Lee and Mitchell, 1994; Steel, 2002). According to Holtom (2008), the decision to quit is a process that develops or unfolds over a long period and incorporates various constructs at multiple levels. Theoretical convergence among

turnover models exist since they all include environmental and psychological antecedents (Holtom et al., 2008) and show consistency among three core components: job attitudes, (perceived or actual) employment opportunities, and behavioral intentions (Steel and Lounsbury, 2009), all which help to better explain and predict turnover.

Core Components of Turnover Process Models

Job attitudes. Almost all theoretical models have incorporated job attitudes as a critical turnover antecedent (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). Job attitudes are stable evaluative dispositions that express feelings, beliefs or commitment about one's job or organization (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Empirical evidence in turnover literature has linked attitudinal constructs, such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction, to turnover decisions (e.g., Mobley, 1977; Steers & Mowday, 1981). Organizational commitment is defined as the degree to which an employee feels attached with his or her organization (Schleicher et al., 2011), whereas job satisfaction refers to an individual's attitude towards their job or aspects of that particular job (Spector, 1997). Within the realm of job satisfaction, turnover theory has identified job dissatisfaction as one of the principal reasons why people quit their jobs (Maertz & Campion, 1998). In other words, a sense of discomfort or discontent with one's job often precedes voluntary turnover. All in all, previous research contributions state that contextual conditions and job attributes (autonomy), shape individual attitudes which underpin quit intentions and actions, making attitudinal mechanisms a vital part in the understanding of turnover decisions (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom et al., 1992).

Employment opportunity. Generally, most turnover models suggest that employees who have a better chance of obtaining alternative employment are more likely to quit their

current jobs (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). Perceptual and objective job-market indicators have been widely used by researchers to measure employment opportunities (Steel, 2004; Crossley et al., 2007). However, job market perceptions of an individual are highly dependent on the accuracy of job information available to him/her, and labor market data does not reflect the specific job opportunities available to each presenting his/her skills, abilities and experiences (Hulin et al., 2005). All in all, there is weak empirical support for perceived employment alternatives influencing turnover decisions. To solve this issue and provide a better evaluation of perceived job alternatives, Griffeth, Steel, Allen, and Bryan (2005) created a better measure of job market cognitions, termed the employment opportunity index (EOI). This measure has contributed to a clearer understanding of how perceived alternatives influence voluntary employee turnover by identifying five cognitions about one's employment opportunities; Griffeth et al. (2005) found that the EOI has helped reinforce the prediction and understanding turnover better than other measures of perceived job alternatives.

Behavioral intentions. The final component is behavioral intentions or the specific intent to engage in voluntary turnover behavior. Empirical literature has shown that turnover intentions, usually defined as intentions to quit or stay, are the best predictors of employee turnover (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). A considerable amount of research has illustrated that attitudes predict behaviors across situations via the intention to perform that specific behavior. Ajzen's (1985, 1991) theory of planned behavior (TPB) remains the most influential model when addressing the link between attitudes and behavior. TPB states that attitudes toward a behavior, subjective norms concerning the behavior, and perceived control over the behavior are usually found to predict behavioral intentions with a high degree of

accuracy (Ajzen, 1991). This theory concludes that the most proximal cause of any behavior is an individual's intention to perform that given behavior; for instance, the stronger the intention to engage in a behavior, the more likely the individual is to perform it (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). In turnover literature, extensive research activity has shown consistency with Ajzen's (1991) TPB. Individual attitudes towards their jobs or employing organizations will underpin their quit intentions and actions, and turnover intentions have been seen as the strongest predictor of individual turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000; Maertz & Campion, 1998).

Linkages Between Core Turnover Predictors

Extensive evidence has shown that these core mechanisms- affective (i.e., job attitudes, morale), employment opportunities (expressed as perceptual mechanisms or job market mechanisms), and intentions to quit/stay--are essential for predicting turnover, having been acknowledged in most theoretical turnover process models (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). For example, the most critical foundational turnover models, such as March and Simon's (1958) "Organizational Equilibrium" model, Price's (1975) "Model of Employee Turnover", and Mobley's (1977) "Intermediate Linkages" model, shares previously mentioned core mechanisms about this process, assuming that: individual and job characteristics (e.g., distal antecedents) lead to job satisfaction and organizational commitment (e.g., attitudinal antecedents), which influence voluntary quits and quit intentions (e.g., turnover criterion space). Given these research contributions, it can also be concluded how thanks to the strong foundation laid by Mobley's linkage model and March and Simon's (1958) model, research activity has evaluated behavioral intentions as the most immediate precursor of employee turnover.

Questioning the Importance of Turnover Intentions

Given that an employee's quit intentions are the most proximal predictor of turnover (Mobley et al., 1979; Steel & Ovalle, 1984), the majority of turnover research has become reliant on turnover intentions as a turnover criterion. However, researchers have suggested that using turnover intentions as the turnover criterion produces several limitations and problems (Allen, Weeks, & Moffitt, 2005; Griffeth et al., 2000). First, turnover intentions only share 25% of the variance with turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000; Allen, Weeks, & Moffitt, 2005), suggesting that turnover intentions lack utility in predicting behavioral turnover (Graen & Ginsburgh, 1977; Hanisch, Hulin, & Roznowski, 1998). Second, treating turnover intentions as the turnover criterion overlooks a variety of moderators and mediators that influence intention-quit relationships (Allen, Weeks & Moffitt, 2005). Many impediments can intervene between the formations of intentions and the final choice of whether to stay or leave one's current job. For instance, a person who desires a better job opportunity will engage in job search for attractive alternatives, but if this person fails to secure those alternatives, the intention this person possessed can be weakened (Ajzen, 1991).

Furthermore, the relationship between intentions to quit and actual turnover varies widely (Steel & Ovalle, 1984), as quit intentions can predict other forms of job behaviors rather than quitting, such as absenteeism and being fired (Bowen, 1982). Variability in this relationship may be partially due to economic factors that limit an employee's sense of control over leaving their current organization (Steel & Ovalle 1984; Trevor 2001). Lastly, according to Steel and Lounsbury (2009), an employee's weak intentions to quit also account for strong desires to stay. For example, intra-organizational opportunities promote retention

by offering other alternatives of employment, mobility opportunities such as training courses to enhance skills and abilities, promotions that could increase employee's incomes or transfer opportunities (March and Simon, 1958). In sum, turnover intentions are vague and less precise than actual leaving behavior (Maertz, 2012), making them not only inappropriate as a turnover criterion but also less useful in terms of diagnosing why people are leaving.

Turnover Theory Re-conceptualization

Recently, Hom et al. (2012) re-conceptualized existing traditional views on turnover. Consistent with previous turnover models, Hom et al.'s framework sees turnover as a developing process where influences, such as job and individual characteristics, lead to intermediate antecedents, such as job attitudes or job embeddedness, which lastly lead to intentions and job search behaviors that result in actual leaving from organizations (Hom et al., 2012). The theory also recognizes that even though everyone eventually leaves their current organization, turnover varies across individuals in its velocity, nature, and destinations.

However, their theory differs from previous process models in that they draw greater attention to the distinction between psychological and physical quits (Greenhalgh, 1980). Specifically, they treat turnover intentions as a distinctive psychological state of quitting that mediates how other antecedents influence turnover, rather than intent to leave as a criterion. The authors re-contemplate turnover intentions to encompass a broader domain, including the full amplitude of organizational withdrawal and participation, which they term "Proximal Withdraw States" (PWS)—psychological motivations/cognitive states to participate in or withdraw from organizations. They include all types of leaving and staying, as well as

turnover destinations and argue that an employee's withdrawal cognitions are better captured by measuring their PWS, which arise due to *preferences to stay or leave* as well as their *perceived control* over those preferences. These cognitive states develop over time and guide actual departures.

Hom et al. (2012) also adopted Maertz & Griffeth's (2004) Motivational Forces framework, which explains the antecedents of perceived control and preferences. The framework includes forces such as affective, behavioral, calculative, contractual, constituent, alternative, normative, and moral/ethical forces. Maertz & Griffeth (2004) argue that external environments and insights can trigger thoughts about one's current employing organization involving doubt and reacting (Maertz & Campion, 2004) thus, subjective reactions to these thoughts create motivational forces to stay or quit the current job (Maertz & Campion, 2004) which is highly relevant to the decision to participate or withdraw.

Preferences to Stay or Leave

Preferences to stay or leave are defined as an employee's desire for leaving (or staying). Hom et al. (2012) highlight the importance of differentiating a desire or preference versus a behavioral intention (such as turnover intentions), stating that the distinction relies on the fact that preferences are not as specific in timing and situations. Consistent with the above discussion, behavioral intentions are more specific, therefore, evaluating such a construct may lack utility in the explanation and prediction of underlying behavioral constructs (Hanisch, Hulin, & Roznowski, 1998). Hom et al.'s model of PWS evaluates preferences to stay or leave, which has the potential to predict a broader range of behaviors and attitudes. Such preferences to stay or leave are influenced by various organizational

practices, for example, time investments, workforce structures as well as motivational forces including affective, calculative, constituent, moral or ethical and alternatives (Hom et al., 2012). For instance, employees may become attracted to other work options or by non-working opportunities, which may influence their feelings about their current employing organizations. Furthermore, employees may not possess other job alternatives, making their motivation to stay stronger (Brasher, 2016).

Perceived Behavioral Control

Perceived behavioral control refers to people's perceptions over the ease or difficulty of performing a behavior of interest (Parker 1993; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Hom et al. (2012) incorporated perceived control to address a limitation of most turnover models; these models typically assume that employees have full responsibility to either stay or leave at any time (Hom et al., 2012). However, employees may feel limited from staying or leaving due to several restrictions (e.g., available job opportunities, family responsibilities, or costs of leaving). Given certain limitations, multiple researchers have drawn from Ajzen's (1985) TPB to explain turnover decisions better. As stated previously, attitudes toward a behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control can predict intentions, which combined with perceived behavioral control to predict actual behavior regardless of their accuracy (Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen, 1991). According to Hom et al. (2012), perceived control can be categorized as employer control and other forms of extrinsic control. Employer (e.g., internal control), involves being pressured by terminations, practices, job protection systems, performance-enhancing HRM practices. Other forms of extrinsic control (e.g., external control), refers to pressures from relocating spouses, staying at home parenting, community

sacrifices, family hardships or even scarce job opportunities, all forces that can weaken or strength control beliefs.

By crossing perceived control and preferences to stay or leave, Hom et al. (2012) proposed four proximal withdrawal states: enthusiastic leavers, enthusiastic stayers, reluctant leavers, and reluctant stayers. These proximal withdrawal states characterize different mind-sets, which may lead to various turnover destinations (Hom et al., 2012). *Enthusiastic leavers* (characterized by high preferences to leave and high control) wish to leave, and they believe they can. They are often “voluntary leavers”—people who display negative attitudes towards their jobs, usually engage in job search and maintain low performance. When enthusiastic leavers anticipate being laid off or are pressured to leave, they do so without being discouraged (Hom et al., 2012).

In contrast, *reluctant leavers* (characterized by low preferences to leave and low control) must leave, but they prefer to remain. Research defines them as “involuntary leavers,” or people who know they are the first option for layoffs or dismissals, and who possess high job-insecurity due to a suspicion of job loss. Various subtypes of reluctant leavers are identified: prospective retirees, for example, old veterans with high job satisfaction; coerced leavers, people who leave to fulfill a social obligation or another demanding role (e.g., full-time parents); and resistant leavers, employees who display tension from their families to remain because of valuable benefits.

Enthusiastic stayers (characterized by high preferences to stay and high control) remain because they wish to remain, and they believe they can. Among this profile, three subtypes are identified: engaged/embedded stayers are people who possess strong work effort

due to intrinsic forces; and slackers, employees who want to stay due to extrinsic forces such as remaining loyal to their paychecks or benefits. Finally, *Reluctant Stayers* (characterized by low preferences to stay and low control), believe they cannot leave, but they prefer to do so. There are two subtypes: trapped stayers, who exhibit weak intentions to stay and hold more absences/tardiness; and contractual stayers, people who entered employment because of appealing contracts, financial offers or could potentially be because of attractive firms searching for skills and talents. Overall, Hom et al. (2012) claim that these states are the most proximal turnover predictors and could explain a wide range of other job behaviors and attitudes. These states assist in the explanation of a wide range of different behaviors such as job attitudes and actions, but most importantly, they help in the understanding of why people stay and leave.

Direct Examinations of Hom et al.'s PWST

Li, Lee, Hom, Mitchell, and Griffeth (2016) presented the first investigation of Hom et al.'s (2012) Proximal Withdrawal States Theory (PWST) to demonstrate that PWS enhances the understanding and prediction of employee's turnover behaviors. They implemented two studies to provide initial empirical tests of underlying propositions from PWST, claiming that the four PWSs would likely exhibit different relationships with traditional predictors of turnover: continuance and affective commitment, job satisfaction, and job embeddedness. Li et al. (2016) argued that reluctant stayers are similar to enthusiastic leavers since they carry low affective commitment, job satisfaction, and job embeddedness. Furthermore, they argued that reluctant leavers and enthusiastic stayers have comparably high job satisfaction, job embeddedness and affective commitment (Li et al.,

2016). They say that the presence of reluctant stayers and leavers reduces the predictive validity of commitment, satisfaction, and embeddedness. Also, they claim to improve the prediction of PWS by extending Hom et al.'s (2012) PWST. They investigated the proposition that turnover is better predicted by accounting for PWS and suggested that predominant turnover models more accurately explain and predict turnover in employees who have high levels of control (enthusiastic leavers and stayers) over their preference to leave or stay, as opposed to people with low levels of control (reluctant stayers and leavers) over their preferences.

Consistent with their claims, Li et al. (2016) demonstrated that traditional turnover antecedents (i.e., job attitudes, job search behaviors and intent to leave) accurately predict and explain turnover in employees that have high levels of control over their preferences to leave or stay. These antecedents are poor predictors and fail to fully explain turnover among employees who have low levels of control over their preferences to stay or leave. One implication of their findings states that turnover predictors such as job satisfaction, job embeddedness and intent to leave will improve if reluctant stayers and leavers are excluded from turnover models (Li et al., 2016). Thus, Li et al. (2016) not only offer initial evidence in support of PWST, but they also uncover that taking into consideration perceived control can improve the prediction of leaving behavior.

Limitations of Existing Examinations of PWST

Although Li et al.'s (2016) evidence is promising, it has a few limitations. First, Li et al. (2016) allowed people to self-select into one of the four PWS (Li et al., 2016). Using the self-selection method could result in people misclassifying themselves into a PWS, which in

turn, can lead to an overestimation of outcomes. Apart from this methodological limitation, no research to date has examined how PWS arise, despite Hom et al.'s suggestion that they arise from preferences to stay/leave and perceived behavioral control. Thus, research needs an empirical evaluation of how employee's perceptions of control and their preferences to stay or leave, contribute to their proximal withdrawal states and in turn, predict employee withdrawal (e.g., job search and turnover intentions). Furthermore, a concern exists concerning the lack of valid and accurate measures of the dimensions of perceived control and preferences to stay or leave. Given that Hom et al. (2012) propose that different levels of preferences to stay or leave and perceived behavioral control predict PWS, it is useful to directly test their theorizing.

The Current Study

As previously discussed, one of the significant contributions by Hom et al. (2012) is their delineation of the forces underlying employee perceptions of volitional control (internal and external perceived control) and to suggest how it combines with staying or leaving preferences to yield motivational states for organization participation or withdrawal (Hom et al., 2012). By combining these factors, four categories (PWS) emerge, enthusiastic leavers, enthusiastic stayers, reluctant leavers and reluctant stayers. According to Hom et al. (2012), this categorical approach encourages a person-centered approach that better captures the interactions among factors driving employees preferences and control over leaving and staying. Drawing from these conclusions, the interaction between preferences to leave or stay, external perceived control and internal perceived control must be present to give rise to the different mindsets or categories of PWS. Based on Hom et al.'s theorizing, I propose that

the three factors they identified—preferences to leave/stay, intrinsic control, and extrinsic control—interact to give rise to the four proximal withdrawal states.

Hypothesis 1: A three-way interaction between preferences to stay/leave, external perceived control, and internal perceived control will predict participants' self-selected Proximal Withdrawal State category.

Furthermore, if perceptions of volitional control (internal and external perceived control) in truth interact with preferences to stay/leave to yield PWS, then this interaction should predict an increase in withdrawal outcomes, such as turnover intentions and job search. For instance, high internal control, high external control, and low preferences to stay should predict higher levels of withdrawal. The reason why I believe this combination will predict higher levels of withdrawal is that employees who have low preferences to stay and no pressures from neither their organizations nor other external forces will have more control or more freedom to act on their desires, making them more likely to withdraw from their current jobs. Moreover, high preferences to leave a current employing organization, high internal and external control, should predict higher levels of turnover intentions. For example, an employee who desires to leave their current job and has no pressure from his/her employing organization nor other extrinsic forces, will be more likely to develop the psychological state of quitting (something that can intervene in how other antecedents experienced by the individual will influence the actual leaving from his/her employing organization). Similarly, high desires to leave a current job, high internal control and high external control, should predict high levels of job search behaviors.

Hypothesis 2: A three-way interaction between preferences to stay/leave, external perceived control, and internal perceived control will predict higher levels of turnover intentions, such that turnover intentions will be higher when preferences to leave, external control, and internal control are high.

Hypothesis 3: A three-way interaction between preferences to stay/leave, external perceived control, and internal perceived control will predict higher levels of job search behaviors, such that job search behaviors will be higher when preferences to leave, external control, and internal control are high.

In summary, this study offers an alternative test of Hom et al.'s (2012) PWST. First, this study develops reliable measures of perceived behavioral control and preferences to stay or leave as a basis for empirically evaluating Hom et al.'s (2012) theorizing. Second, once developing reliable measures, I utilize them to assess whether PWS arise from preferences to stay/leave and perceived behavioral control over the decision to leave. Finally, I examine whether varying levels of preference to stay, intrinsic control and extrinsic control (representing PWS) in truth predict employee withdrawal outcomes (i.e., job search, turnover intentions). All in all, this research will extend PWST by clarifying how these states arise and how they lead to withdrawal.

Methods

Participants

An online survey was sent to a sample of 1022 employees who were collected from Amazon's Mechanical Turk. These adults worked at least part-time (worked a minimum of 20 hours a week) and had the right to work in the United States. Within this large sample, the average age of the participants was 40; 55% of them were women, 81% White, 7% Black and

4% were Asian. To ensure participants fully understood and were engaged with the items provided throughout the online survey, several attention checks were presented. 86% of the participants successfully passed these attention checks, reducing the sample to a total of 800 participants. Lastly, I randomly split the sample into two separate samples, one for the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and a second sample for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), consistent with recommendations by Hinkin (1998).

EFA participants. An exploratory factors analysis was conducted using half of the total sample of 400 adults, who were randomly selected. Within this sample, 54% were Women, 84% White, 9% Black and 4% were Asian. Moreover, participants presented an average income of \$44,000. In terms of the level of education, 17% had Associates degrees, 44% Bachelors, 17 % Professional and 14% had some college experience. Finally, 11% were part of a union and 89% were not.

CFA participants. A confirmatory factor analysis was executed using the other half of the sample of 400 randomly selected adults who worked at least part-time with an average income of 75k. In this sample, 60% were Women, 83% White, 8% Black and 5% were Asian. Moreover, 14% had Associates degrees, 46% Bachelors, 17% Professional and 13% had some college experience. Finally, 9% of the participants were part of a union, and 91% were not.

Measures

Unless otherwise noted, participants responded using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly agree* (7) to *strongly disagree* (1).

Internal perceived control. Internal perceived control was assessed using four items from Li et al. (2016) that asked about the amount of control the employee believed he/she

had to stay or quit their current job due to forces within their employing organization (e.g., organizational policies, coworkers, supervisors). An example item is “It is mostly up to me whether or not I am able to leave my current organization.” The coefficient alpha for internal perceived control is .80.

External perceived control. External perceived control was measured using the same four items I used to measure internal perceived control from Li et al. (2016). However, in this section participants were asked about the amount of control the employee believed he/she had over staying or quitting their current job due to forces *outside* their employing organization (e.g., job markets, conditions, family pressures or personal goals). External perceived control reported a coefficient alpha of .88.

Preferences to leave/stay. Preference to leave/stay was measured with six items I developed based on Hom et al. (2012) research. An example item of preference to stay is “I would prefer to remain at my current employing organization,” and an example of preferences to leave is “I want to quit working at my employing organization.” The coefficient alpha for preferences to leave/stay is .98.

Job search. Job search behaviors were evaluated using ten items from Blau (1993). Five items indicated Active job search; for example, “Sent out resumes to potential employers”; and five other items indicated Preparatory job search such as “Prepared/revised your resume.” Participants were required to indicate the frequency in which they engaged in job search behaviors in the last six months. Both active and preparatory job search responses were reported on a 5-point Likert scale from 0= *Never* (0 Times) to 5= *Frequently* (at least ten times). Active search reported a coefficient alpha of .88, and preparatory search reported an alpha of .81.

Turnover intentions. Turnover intentions were measured using three items from Hom and Griffeth (1991). An example item is “I feel strongly that I will leave the organization in the next 12 months” (Hom et al., 2012). Responses were implemented according to a 5-point Likert scale that anchored *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). Coefficient alpha for turnover intentions was .99.

Analytic Approach

Exploratory factor analysis. To examine the psychometric properties of the measures of preference to stay/leave, internal perceived control, and external perceived control, I used exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is a statistical method used to summarize and describe the variability of observed variables, with the intention being to identify whether these observed variables are indicators of a minor number of unobserved variables or latent factors (“Factor Analysis”. n.d). When running exploratory factor analysis, an oblique rotation (direct) geomin can be executed, which permits the correlation among latent factors while enhancing their interpretability (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). Depending upon the nature of the investigation, an oblique rotation allows for a more accurate and realistic representation of the relationships amongst observed variables.

Most importantly, EFA should be used when the researcher does not have a prior hypothesis of constructs/factors or patterns of measured variables. When performing the EFA, no specifications are made in regards to the number of factors (initially) or factor loadings (relationships between common factors and indicators) since it is entirely data-driven. Researchers usually employ descriptive techniques because no boundaries are implemented in this pattern of relationships between latent variables and observed measures

(Brown 2015). However, despite the EFA being a descriptive technique, decisions about the number of factors should be guided by statistical guidelines and substantive considerations about the interpretability of factors and evaluations of the overall model.

Eigenvalues close to and greater than 1.0 and the implementation of a scree-test, permitted the selection of a two-factor solution (Preferences and Perceived Control) and a three-factor solution (Preferences, Internal perceived control and External Perceived Control). Given interrelated factors, several indicators were retained based on the loadings being greater than or closer to .40: three stay preferences, three quit preferences, four internal perceived control, and four external perceived control. Finally, this study targeted a solution of a *single structure*, where (1) each factor was characterized by a number of indicators that loaded highly on that particular factor; (2) each indicator loaded highly on a single factor (primary loading) and was close to zero loading on the remaining factors (cross-loading).

Confirmatory factor analysis. To confirm that the EFA findings were consistent, I also used confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). When performing CFA, the researcher must specify the number of factors. This specification is driven by strong theory and previous research evidence, in other words, a firm conceptual foundation in the evaluation of a model. The critical aspect of this evaluation is the ability of the parameters from the measurement model (factor loadings and factor correlations) to specify the relationships among the measurement errors (unique variances) of the indicators (Brown 2015). It is important to note that rotations are not necessary for the completion of this analysis since a simple structure is already obtained by the specification of indicators and their loadings with one particular factor.

Fit statistics such as Chi-square, Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), The Standardized Root-mean-square Residual (SRMR), Akaike's Information Criteria (AIC), and Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) were evaluated to determine each model's quality to the data (i.e., to identify the best fitting model). Chi-square indicates the complete model fit and calculates the degree to which covariances stated in the model's structure are consistent with the observed covariances. A non-significant Chi-square is the ideal, the smaller the chi-square, the better the fit of the respective model. Thus, the greater the departure from zero, the more make the Chi-square a "badness of fit" measure. Chi-square is also sensible to sample sizes; therefore if using a large sample size the chi-square will always be significant; a reason why researchers tend to benchmark it relative to its degrees of freedom.

To determine the quality of each model to the data, this study also uses Comparative Fix Index (CFI) to compare the fit of the given model to a baseline model that presents no covariances among variables (Bentler, 1990). CFI is commonly used along with the calculation of Chi-square, and it ranges from 0 to 1, the closer to 1 the better fit. A common heuristic is that a value greater than .90 or higher indicates a reasonably good model fit. Furthermore, an additional index called the Root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) reports discrepancy relative to degrees of freedom targeting a perfect fit of zero. However, this fit is nearly impossible; therefore various researchers have utilized values that indicate poor fit which are values less than .10 indicate a good fit. Another advantage that the RMSEA possess is a *confidence interval of 90%* which means preciseness of measures. The Standardized Root-mean-square Residual (SRMR) is an absolute fix index that is a badness-of-fit statistic, more specifically, a measure of the mean absolute correlation residual, or the

general difference between the predicted and observed correlations. To indicate a poor fit, the values must be less than .10.

To justify the selected models the indices: Akaike's Information Criteria (AIC) and Bayesian Information criterion BIC are reported since both take model fit and model complexity into account. The AIC is an estimator of the quality of statistical models depending on the collected models for a data set. For instance, the less negative or, the larger the likelihood of the data given the model's estimates, the better the model fits the data. In the prediction of data, the BIC measures the efficiency of the parameterized model and penalizes the complexity of a model when complexity attributes to the number of parameters in a respective model. Moreover, it also utilizes likelihood to some extent, but it differs from AIC because the models possessing the lowest BIC are preferred.

To conclude, Chi-square values closer to 0, CFI values of .90 or above, RMSEA values less than .10 and SRMR values lower than .10 indicate a satisfactory model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). AIC values that are less negative indicate a better fit; and BIC models with lower BIC values are preferable.

Regression analysis. Using the full sample of 800 participants, I ran two types of regression analysis: multinomial regression to test Hypothesis 1 predicting categories of proximal withdrawal states, and linear regression to test Hypothesis 2 and 3 predicting turnover intentions and job search behaviors. Specifically, I used hierarchical regression, with three steps to examine Main Effects (Step 1), Two-way Interactions (Step 2), and Three-way Interactions (Step 3) of preferences to stay or leave, external perceived control and

internal perceived control, examining whether each set of variables explained a statistically significant amount of variances in the dependent variables.

Results

Exploratory Factor Analysis

I ran an exploratory factor analysis with an oblique rotation (direct goemin) on the preferences to leave/stay, internal control, and external control items. The eigenvalues indicated that up to three factors were present (First Eigenvalue = 6.26, Second Eigenvalue = 4.15, Third Eigenvalue = 0.94). I also used the “Scree test” to help determine the appropriate number of factors (see Figure 1). I inspected the scree plot to determine the last substantial decline on the magnitude of the eigenvalues, or the point where lines drawn through the plotted eigenvalues change slope (Brown 2015). Based on these indices, I determined that either a two-factor or three-factor solution was appropriate. The two-factor solution contained two interrelated factors of Preferences to stay/leave and Perceived Control. In this solution, all items were reasonable indicators of the two latent dimensions as evidenced by their factor loadings being greater or equal to .40. Factor 1 comprised all items that were related to people’s preferences to either continue working or withdraw from their current jobs or employing organization. Factor 2 was represented by items associated with the type of control, internal or external, that each employee/individual perceived he/she possessed over continuing or leaving their current jobs or employing organization (see Table 1).

The three-factor solution contained three interrelated factors: Preferences to stay/leave, Internal Perceived Control, and External Perceived Control. In this solution, all items were reasonable indicators of the latent variables, as illustrated by factor loadings of

greater than .40. As shown in Table 2, each of the three factors centered on the items referring to preferences, internal and external perceptions of control. Factor 1 concluded in the same findings for the previous two-factor model. Factor 2 contained all items associated with the internal control that each employee/individual perceived he/she possessed over continuing or leaving their current jobs or employing organization. Finally, Factor 3 focused on items analogous to the amount of external control that employees or individuals perceived they had over staying or quitting their current jobs or employing organizations.

When analyzing the three-factor model results, Factor 2 (Internal Perceived Control) contained a problem item. Item number 2, “I have a great deal of control over being able to leave my current organization”; overlapped with Factor 3 (External Perceived Control). The factor loading for item 2, Internal perceived control presented a value of .37 and the factor loading for item 2, External perceived control showed a value of .29. Given the item’s cross-loading, I decided to drop it and rerun EFA analysis without this item. Once the problem item was eliminated, all items in the three-factor solution were reasonable indicators of the latent variables, as illustrated by factor loadings of greater than .40 (see Tables 1 and 2).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Factor correlations were evaluated and reported in Table 3. The two-factor model presented a correlation of .20 between Preferences and Perceived Control. As to the three-factor model, the correlation between Preferences and Internal perceived control was .15; the correlation between preferences and external perceived control were .20, and lastly, the correlation between Internal and External perceived control was .77. These findings indicate that these three factors can be distinguished from each other (Table 3). Based on these findings, I concluded that the three-factor solution was the most appropriate, where

preference to stay/leave, internal perceived control, and external perceived control were separate factors.

Next, I compared the fit of three models in CFA. The first model was a two-factor model including Preferences to stay/leave and overall Perceived Control; the second model was a three-factor model inclusive of Preferences (to stay or quit), Internal and External Perceived Control; and lastly, a four-factor model including Preferences to stay, Preferences to quit, Internal perceived control and External perceived control.

Fit statistics from the three models are displayed in Table 4. Considering the results in Table 4, the best fitting model is the four-factor model over the three-factor and two-factor models. The three-factor model provided acceptable fit to the data (CFI = .90, RMSEA = .15, SRMR = .04, AIC = 14182.061, BIC = 14216.434), and a highly superior fit as compared to the two-factor model (CFI = .88, RMSEA = .16, SRMR = .05, AIC = 14304.780, BIC = 14337.516). One way to compute how the three-factor model is superior to the two-factor model is by using a Chi-square difference test. Chi-square difference test can be computed only in models that are “nested,” meaning that one is a restricted version of the other. The difference between the three-factor and the two-factor models is ($\Delta \chi^2 = 126.72$), and it is distributed as chi-square with ($\Delta df = 2, p < .01$) degrees of freedom. The fact that this is significant leads to conclude that the three-factor model fits better than the two-factor model. If comparing the three models, the 90% confidence interval of the RMSEA can also be considered. There is some controversy in the confidence intervals of each model because they slightly overlap but, despite the overlapping of the models, the three-factor model remains more significant than the two-factor model.

In terms of the four-factor model, (CFI = .93, RMSEA = .12, SRMR = .04, AIC = 13992.000, BIC = 14028.828) fit statistics did improve. The CFA indicated that the four-factor model had a better fit to the data compared to the other models; however, the correlation between Preferences to stay and Preferences to leave was very high (-.96), suggesting the two variables are not distinct from one another (Brown, 2015; Figure 4). These results indicated the need for further research to clarify how Preferences to stay and Preferences to leave are distinct from one another. Indeed, whether the decision to stay and the decision to leave can be distinguished from one another is debated by turnover scholars (cf. Maertz, 2012). Given the above results and the fact that the three-factor factor model indicated a better fit to the data than the two-factor model, this study utilizes the three-factor model as the best fitting model.

Regression Analysis

Hypothesis 1 suggested that a three-way interaction between internal perceived control, external perceived control, and preferences to stay/leave would predict participants' self-selected proximal withdrawal state. I used hierarchical, multinomial regression to test this hypothesis, using PWS (a four-level categorical variable) as the outcome variable and perceived control and preferences to stay/leave as potential predictors for people's self-selected PWS. The first step included main effects between the three predictors: preferences to stay/leave, internal perceived control and external perceived control- as predictors of self-selected PWS. For the second step, I added two-way interactions for the three predictors- internal perceived control, external perceived control, and preferences to stay/leave- as predictors of self-selected PWS. Interactions between internal perceived control and external perceived control; preferences to leave and internal perceived control; and preferences to

leave and external perceived control, did not significantly predict self-selection into the different categories of PWS. Lastly, for the third step, I added three-way interactions for the same three predictors as predictors of self-selected PWS. Table 9 indicates how fit statistics such as AIC and BIC, suggested that the models that only included the main effects were appropriate. The chi-square indicated that the three-way interaction model offered an improved fit; however, because chi-square does not penalize for additional parameters, I chose to test the main effect only model since it remained more parsimonious. Parameter estimates and significance tests were interpreted relative to each reference group (see Table 10). The three-way interaction between preferences to leave, internal perceived control and external perceived control did not predict self-selected PWS, which shows that Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Despite the lack of support for Hypothesis 1, I did find an association between preferences to leave/stay and people's likelihood of being in a particular category of PWS, in other words, an increase in preferences to leave/stay can lead to an increased likelihood of being in a certain category of PWS. When evaluating enthusiastic stayers as the reference group, I found: (1) An increase in preferences to quit is associated with an increased likelihood of being a reluctant stayer, a reluctant leaver and an enthusiastic leaver relative to an enthusiastic stayer. (2) An increase in internal and external perceived control is associated with less likelihood of being a reluctant stayer compared to an enthusiastic stayer.

When evaluating reluctant stayers as the reference group, I found: (1) An increase in preferences to quit is associated with less likelihood of being a reluctant leaver, an enthusiastic stayer and an enthusiastic leaver relative to a reluctant stayer. (2) An increase in internal and external perceived control is associated with an increased likelihood of being a

reluctant leaver, an enthusiastic stayer and an enthusiastic leaver relative to a reluctant stayer. Lastly, I evaluated enthusiastic leavers as the reference group and found: (1) An increase in preferences to quit, internal and external perceived control is associated with less likelihood of being a reluctant stayer relative to enthusiastic leavers.

Overall, I found a pattern of results indicating that reluctant stayers differ from enthusiastic stayers in that they have lower perceived control and higher preferences to quit. I also concluded that reluctant leavers are different from enthusiastic stayers in that they present higher preferences to quit (Table 10).

Hypotheses 2 and 3 suggested that a three-way interaction between internal perceived control, external perceived control, and preferences to stay/leave would predict increased turnover intentions (H2) and job search behaviors (H3). I used hierarchical linear regression to test this hypothesis; I implemented three steps. The first step included three predictors— internal perceived control, external perceived control, and preferences to stay/leave— as predictors of job search and turnover intentions. For the second step, I added two-way interactions for the three predictors- internal perceived control, external perceived control, and preferences to stay/leave- as predictors of job search and turnover intentions. Interactions between internal perceived control and external perceived control; preferences to leave and internal perceived control; and preferences to leave and external perceived control did not significantly predict job search, and turnover intentions. Lastly, for the third step, I added three-way interactions for the same three predictors, as predictors of job search, and turnover intentions. Interactions between preferences to leave, internal perceived control and external perceived control predicted neither job search nor turnover intentions, which shows how hypothesis 2 and 3 were not supported (see Tables 6, 7, 8).

Although Hypotheses 2 and 3 were not supported, I found that the main effects (Step 1) were significant. For turnover intentions, I found a negative relationship for internal perceived control ($b = -.21, p < .01$); this means that as an employee has strong control over forces within his/her employing organization, he or she will have fewer turnover intentions, or vice-versa. Moreover, I found a negative relationship for external perceived control ($b = -.17, p < .01$) predicting turnover intentions; this means that as an employee has strong control over forces outside his/her organization, he/she will have fewer turnover intentions, or vice-versa (see Table 6). Second, I analyzed active search as the dependent variable (Table 7). I found a significant relationship predicting active search in a negative direction for external perceived control ($b = -.06, p < .01$); meaning that as an employee has strong external perceived control, he or she will more likely engage in active search. Third, I analyzed preparatory search as the dependent variable (Table 8). I found a significant relationship predicting preparatory search in a negative direction for internal perceived control ($b = -.08, p < .01$); which means that as an employee has strong internal perceived control, the more likely he/she will be to engage in preparatory search.

Discussion

The topic of turnover has captured the attention of researchers for decades. Its negative consequences have encouraged organizations to develop a better understanding of how and why people voluntarily vacate their jobs. Many researchers still focus on turnover intentions as the most proximal predictor of turnover (Hom et al. 2012). Hom et al. (2012) recently challenged this practice by proposing PWS, which are motivational states that stem from whether an employee wants to stay or leave a job, as well as their perceived control

over acting on that preference (Brasher 2016). These states broaden conceptualizations of both proximal antecedents for staying/leaving and turnover criteria (Hom et al. (2012).

The current thesis project makes three important contributions when studying Hom et al.'s (2012) PWS model to better understand withdrawal and participation. First, it develops reliable measures of perceived control and preferences to stay/leave. Second, it studies whether perceived control and preferences to stay/leave lead to the different categories of PWS. Third, it evaluates whether varying levels of perceived control and preferences to stay/leave predict employee withdrawal (e.g., job search and turnover intentions).

Research Implications

This study examined the psychometric properties of measures of internal perceived control, external perceived control, and preferences to stay or leave. An exploratory factor analysis retained a three-factor solution that corresponded to preferences to stay/leave, internal perceived control, and external perceived control. Furthermore, confirmatory factor analysis was implemented to verify these findings; this analysis provided evidence that these measures assess these same constructs across samples (DiStefano & Hess, 2005; Thompson & Daniel, 2005). This approach demonstrates that these measures represent a crucial and essential step that should be used in future research to evaluate PWST further. The EFA and CFA provided some initial evidence of construct validity for these measures. The results of factor loadings, internal consistencies, model comparisons, and fit indices indicated support for preferences to leave and perceived control as separate unrelated factors corresponding to the constructs discussed in Hom et al.'s (2012) PWST.

Furthermore, I used hierarchical linear regression to examine whether preferences to stay/leave, internal perceived control, and external perceived control interact to predict PWS or employee withdrawal (e.g., turnover intentions; active and preparatory job search). Contradictory with Hom et al.'s (2012) theorizing, this study found that Internal Perceived control, External Perceived control and Preferences to stay/leave did not interact to give rise to the different PWS, nor did the interaction predict withdrawal outcomes of job search or turnover intentions.

One reason why my study did not find a significant interaction amongst the three factors may be due to a limitation concerning the conceptualization of control. By evaluating such findings, I noticed how this study's conceptualization of control might differ with Hom et al.'s (2012) theory. Hom et al. (2012) differentiate two main categories of perceived control over staying or leaving which are: employer control and other forms of extrinsic control. According to PWST, a person has high control over leaving or staying when he/she has no pressures from either inside or outside forces to leave or stay, therefore the decision to stay or leave will entirely depend on the employee. Neither the employer nor other extrinsic forces will have control over the employee's decision to leave or stay. In other words, high control over staying or leaving is not the same as having a strong push to stay or a strong push to leave from either the employer or extrinsic forces. In sum, high control does not give us any insights on whether or not a person is encouraged to stay or leave. If it were the case where the employer had high control, that would clarify if an employee is being pushed out or stock in an organization. Moreover, when looking at employees who have low control, it is not clear in Hom et al.'s (2012) theorizing how having low control over staying is different from having low control over leaving.

Li et al.'s (2016) theory also address some of the limitations that Hom et al.'s (2012) conceptualization of control has. They discuss how it is theoretically unreliable to define perceived control as a unitary construct (Li et al., 2016). Control over leaving and control over staying are independent since it is possible that an employee has low control over leaving (no other alternatives or opportunities) as well as high control over staying (the employee is not being pressured by any inside or outside force) or vice-versa. Moreover, they argue Hom et al.'s (2012) purpose that PWS arise from people preferences to leave/stay and their perceived control over that decision; therefore, control over leaving does not matter for individuals who prefer to remain and control over staying does not matter for individuals who prefer to leave. This suggests that control over leaving serves as a mediator in reluctant stayers but not reluctant leavers while control over staying is relevant for reluctant leavers but not reluctant stayers. In this manner, separating them as moderators are weak impressions of the central idea in PWS (Li et al., 2016).

Both, the current study and Li et al.'s (2016) findings give emphasis on the importance of an accurate conceptualization of control. The current study provides new insights into how to conceptualize perceived control; it highlights how high control to stay or leave is not the same as having a strong push to stay or leave from either the employer or extrinsic forces. Perhaps further research may also adopt new measures that evaluate this construct more efficiently.

Another reason why my approach did not verify Hom et al.'s (2012) model is that they propose a "person-centered" theory, where they suggest there are different types of people characterized by varying levels of perceived control and preferences to stay/leave. It

may be that a person-centered analytic approach would be more appropriate for testing their theory, such as latent profile analysis.

Although I did not find support for the interaction between preferences to leave or stay, internal control and external perceived control, my findings expanded Hom et al's (2012) PWST in various ways. Primarily, my findings provided initial evidence on how preferences to leave and preferences to stay might be distinct from one another, something that future research should consider when evaluating PWST. Furthermore, this study highlights how preferences to leave is a strong predictor of withdrawal, which could be used by organizations to identify potential leavers, and can help further research to better evaluate if PWS arise from such factors proposed by Hom et al. (2012).

Practical Implications

The current study offers unique suggestions to practitioners. First, the study's findings suggest that preferences to leave is a strong predictor of withdrawal; perhaps this insight or factor should be given weight when identifying potential leavers in organizations. HR departments and senior executives should be aware of how an employee's preference to leave is highly influenced by many organizational practices thus, implementing the correct strategies, procedures, and rewards systems should be a priority to ensure their employees do not become potential leavers; something that could result in withdrawal.

Limitations and Future Directions

This study adopted a cross-sectional, rather than a longitudinal design by sending an online survey to a large sample of employees. When implementing cross-sectional designs, Common Method Variance (CMV)- defined as a variance that is attributable to the measurement method- is a potential concern because it may inflate the observed correlations

between two types of variables. Method biases are an issue because they are a source of systematic measurement error which provides another alternative explanation for the observed relationships between measures of different constructs that is independent of the one hypothesized (Podsakoff et al. 2003) and also threatens the validity of the conclusions about the relationships between measures. This problem emerges due to several reasons, could be because the respondent providing the measurement of the predictor and the criterion is the same; because of a consistency motif; it may be produced due to the items characteristics; because of a measurement context problem, etc. Further research should implement longitudinal designs (e.g., different surveys across time) as opposed to cross-sectional designs to overcome this limitation.

Moreover, despite the current study's adoption of a three-factor model based on several eigenvalues that resulted from the EFA, the CFA demonstrated how fit statistics improve for the four-factor model (preferences to leave, preferences to stay, internal control and external control), indicating how it had a better fit to the data as opposed to the two-factor and three-factor model. This finding suggests how more research needs to directly evaluate the distinction between the choice of leaving versus the choice of staying (e.g., preferences to leave vs. preferences to stay). Future research must provide evidence for this distinction since it is not empirically clear, perhaps by adopting different considerations than the ones implied in the current study.

As discussed above, future research must address the issue of an accurate conceptualization of control. There is not an empirical evaluation on how low control over leaving is different from low control over staying, nor there is a reasonable one on how having

high control over leaving or staying is different from having pressures or a strong push to stay or leave. Further research must develop alternative approaches or different ways to empirically evaluate pressures to leave or to stay to explain perceived control adequately. Perhaps the accurate conceptualization of control would permit interaction among preferences to stay or leave, internal and external perceived control thus, giving rise to the different categories of PWST and demonstrating if they, in truth, lead to different withdrawal outcomes such as job search and turnover intentions.

In sum, this study purposes new or other ways of evidence that demonstrate the need for an empirical evaluation of Hom et al.'s 2012 PWST. First, further research must adopt several techniques to control CMV could be through the design of the study's procedures and statistical controls. Also, future research may try to repeat these findings in an organizational setting, in which researchers and practitioners can evaluate turnover among a more extended timeframe and find more turnover variance rather than implementing a cross-sectional design which is insensitive to changes over-time (Li et al., 2016). Second, further research should evaluate the distinction between preferences to leave versus preferences to stay since it remains unclear. Lastly, future research must develop alternative ways of empirically evaluating perceived control (e.g., pressures to stay and leave) since they present a conceptual limitation that must be addressed to ensure construct validity and accurate measurement assessment.

CONCLUSION

Hom et al.'s (2012) PWST is useful for a broad understanding of employee turnover because it challenges pre-existing models of turnover. There are still potential questions in need for future research attention: (1) can perceived control be accurately measured?, if so (2) how do we capture perceived push and pull?, (3) does a longitudinal design be more efficient in evaluating PWST? (4) are preferences to stay and preferences to stay different from one another? (5) what factors give rise to the various categories of PWST? (6) do PWS in truth lead to job search and turnover intentions? In my view, PWS are worthy of future empirical evaluation and theoretical analysis to determine its real impact in turnover literature.

REFERENCES

- Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to action: A theory of planned behavior. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckmann (Eds.), *Action-control: From cognition to behavior* (pp. 11-39). Heidelberg: Springer.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50, 179 –211. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978\(91\)90020-T](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90020-T)
- Allen, D. G., Bryant, P. C., & Vardaman, J. M. (2010). Retaining talent: Replacing misconceptions with evidence-based strategies. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 24, 48 – 65. doi:10.5465/AMP.2010.51827775
- Allen, D. G., Weeks, K. P., & Moffitt, K. R. (2005). Turnover intentions and voluntary turnover: The moderating roles of self-monitoring, locus of control, proactive personality, and risk aversion. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 980–990. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.90.5.980
- Allison, P. (1999). *Logistic regression using the SAS system*. Cary, NC: SAS Institute.
- Barrick, M. R., & Zimmerman, R. D. (2005). Reducing voluntary, avoidable turnover through selection. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(1), 159-166. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.90.1.159
- Bentler, P. M. (1990). Comparative t indices in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin*, 107, 238–246. [3]
- Blau, G. (1993). Further exploring the relationship between job search and voluntary individual turnover. *Personnel Psychology*, 46(2), 313-330. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.1993.tb00876.x

- Bowen, D. (1982). Some unintended consequences of intention to quit. *Academy of Management Review*, 7, 205–211.
- Brasher, E. E. (2016). You can't always get what you want: Developing and validating measures of leaving preference and perceived control (Doctoral dissertation, Ohio University, August).
- Brown, T. A. (2015). *Confirmatory factor analysis for applied research*. New York: Guilford.
- Campion, M. A. (1991). Meaning and measurement of turnover: Comparison of alternative measures and recommendations for research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(2), 199-212. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.76.2.199
- Crossley, C. D., Bennett, R. J., Jex, S. M., & Burnfield, J. L. (2007). Development of a global measure of job embeddedness and integration into a traditional model of voluntary turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(4), 1031-1042. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.92.4.1031
- DiStefano, C., & Hess, B. (2005). Using confirmatory factor analysis for construct validation: An empirical review. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, 23(3), 225-241. doi:10.1177/073428290502300303
- Fabrigar, L. R., Wegener, D. T., MacCallum, R. C., & Strahan, E. J. 1999. Evaluation of the use of exploratory factor analysis in psychological research. *Psychological Methods*, 4: 272-99.

- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention, and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Graen, G., & Ginsburgh, S. (1977). Job resignation as a function of role orientation and leader acceptance: A longitudinal investigation of organizational assimilation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 19, 1–17. doi:10.1016/0030-5073(77)90051-4
- Greenhalgh, L. (1980). A process model of organizational turnover: The relationship with job security as a case in point. *Academy of Management Review*, 5, 299–303.
- 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, 463–488.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/014920630002600305>
- Griffeth, R. W., Lee, T. W., Mitchell, T. R., & Hom, P. W. (2012). Further clarification on the Hom, Mitchell, Lee, and Griffeth (2012) model: Reply to Bergman, Payne, and Boswell (2012) and Maertz (2012). *Psychological Bulletin*, 138(5), 871-875.
doi:10.1037/a0029277
- Griffeth, R. W., Steel, R. P., Allen, D. G., & Bryan, N. (2005). The development of a multidimensional measure of job market cognitions: The employment opportunity index (EOI). *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 335–349. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.90.2.335
- Hancock, J., Allen, D., Bosco, F., McDaniel, K., & Pearce, C. (2011). Meta-analytic review of employee turnover as a predictor of firm performance. *Journal of Management*. Advance online publication. doi: 10.1177/0149206311424943

- Hanisch, K. A., Hulin, C. L., & Roznowski, M. (1998). The importance of individuals' repertoires of behaviors: The scientific appropriateness of studying multiple behaviors and general attitudes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 19, 463–480. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(199809)19:5<463::AID-JOB3899>3.0.CO;2-5
- Heavey, A. L., Holwerda, J. A., & Hausknecht, J. P. (2013). Causes and consequences of collective turnover: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98, 412–453. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0032380>
- Hinkin, T.R. (1998). A brief tutorial on the development of measures for use in survey questionnaires. *Organizational Research Methods*, 1(1), 104-121. doi:10.1177/109442819800100106
- Holtom, B. C., Mitchell, T. R., Lee, T. W., & Eberly, M. B. (2008). Turnover and retention research: A glance at the past, a closer review of the present, and a venture into the future. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 2, 231–274. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/19416520802211552>
- Hom, P. W. (2011). Organizational exit. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 67–117). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Hom, P. W., & Griffeth, R. W. (1991). Structural equations modeling test of a turnover theory: Cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(3), 350.

- Hom, P. W., & Kinicki, A. J. (2001). Toward a greater understanding of how dissatisfaction drives employee turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44, 975–987.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3069441>
- Hom, P. W., Caranikas-Walker, F., Prussia, G. E., & Griffeth, R. W. (1992). A meta-analytical structural equations analysis of a model of employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77, 890–909. [http:// dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.77.6.890](http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.77.6.890)
- Hom, P. W., Mitchell, T. R., Lee, T. W., & Griffeth, R. W. (2012). Reviewing employee turnover: Focusing on proximal withdrawal states and an expanded criterion. *Psychological Bulletin*, 138, 831– 858. [http:// dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0027983](http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0027983)
- Hu and Bentler's (1999) findings. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 11, 320–341. [3, 11]
- Hulin, C. L., Roznowski, M., & Hachiya, D. (1985). Alternative opportunities and withdrawal decisions: Empirical and theoretical discrepancies and an integration. *Psychological Bulletin*, 97, 233–250. doi:10.1037/ 0033-2909.97.2.233
- Judge, T. A., & Kammeyer-Mueller, J. D. (2012). Job attitudes. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 63, 341-367. doi:10.1146/annurev-psych-120710-100511
- Kacmar, K. M., Andrews, M. C., Van Rooy, D. L. V., Steilberg, R. C., & Cerrone, S. (2006). Sure everyone can be replaced . . . but at what cost? Turnover as a predictor of unit-level performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49, 133–144.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2006.20785670>
- Lee, T. W., & Mitchell, T. R. (1994). An alternative approach: The unfolding model of voluntary employee turnover. *The Academy of Management Review*, 19, 51–89.
- Li, J. (., Lee, T. W., Mitchell, T. R., Hom, P. W., & Griffeth, R. W. (2016). The effects of proximal withdrawal states on job attitudes, job searching, intent to leave, and

- employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 101(10), 1436-1456.
doi:10.1037/apl0000147
- Maertz, C. P. (2012). Further clarifying proximal withdrawal states and the turnover criterion space: Comment on Hom, Mitchell, Lee, and Griffeth (2012). *Psychological Bulletin*, 138(5), 859-864. doi:10.1037/a0028897
- Maertz, C. P., & Campion, M. A. (1998). 25 years of voluntary turnover research: A review and critique. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 13, 49–83.
- Maertz, C. P., & Campion, M. A. (2004). Profiles in quitting: Integrating process and content turnover theory. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47, 566–582.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/20159602>
- Maertz, C. P., & Griffeth, R. W. (2004). Eight motivational forces and voluntary turnover: A theoretical synthesis with implications for research. *Journal of Management*, 30(5), 667-683. doi:10.1016/j.jm.2004.04.001
- March, J. G., & Simon, H. A. (1958). *Organizations*. New York, NY: Wiley. Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108(2), 171-194. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.108.2.171
- Mitchell, T. R., Holtom, B. C., & Lee, T. W. (2001). How to keep your best employees: Developing an effective retention policy. *Academy of Management Executive*, 15, 96–108. doi:10.5465/AME.2001.5897929

- Mitchell, T. R., Holtom, B. C., Lee, T. W., Sablinski, C. J., & Erez, M. (2001). Why people stay: Using job embeddedness to predict voluntary turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44, 1102–1121. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3069391>
- Mobley, W. H. (1977). Intermediate linkages in the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 62(2), 237-240.
doi:10.1037/0021-9010.62.2.237
- 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, 493–522. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.86.3.493>
- Muchinsky, P. M., & Tuttle, M. L. (1979). Employee turnover: An empirical and methodological assessment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 14(1), 43-77.
doi:10.1016/0001-8791(79)90049-6
- Parker, L. E. (1993). When to fix it and when to leave: Relationships among perceived control, self-efficacy, dissent, and exit. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(6), 949-959. doi:10.1037//0021-9010.78.6.949
- Phillips, D. J. (2002). A genealogical approach to organizational life chances: The parent-progeny transfer among Silicon Valley law firms, 1946–1996. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 47, 474–506. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3094848>
- Price, J. L. (1975). A theory of turnover. In B. O. Pettman (Ed.), *Labour turnover and retention* (pp.151-176). New York: Wiley.

- Price, J. L. (2004). The development of a causal model of employee turnover. In R. W. Griffeth, & P. W. Hom (Eds.), *Innovative theory and empirical research on employee turnover* (pp. 3-32). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing Inc.
- Price, J. L., & Mueller, C. W. (1981). A causal model for turnover for nurses. *Academy of Management Journal*, 24, 543–565. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/255574>
- Price, J. L., & Mueller, C. W. (1986). *Absenteeism and turnover of hospital employees*. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- 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. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879-903. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879
- Rubenstein, A. L., Eberly, M. B., Lee, T., & Mitchell, T. R. (2015). Looking beyond the trees: A meta-analysis and integration of voluntary turnover research. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 2015(1), 12779. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMBPP.2015.20>
- Russell, C. J. (2013). Is it Time to Voluntarily Turn Over Theories of Voluntary Turnover? *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 6(02), 156-173. doi:10.1111/iops.12028
- Schleicher, D. J., Hansen, D., & Fox, K. E. (2011). Job attitudes and work values. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology, Vol. 3: Maintaining, expanding, and contracting the organization* (pp. 137-190).

- Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- Steel, R. P. (2002). Turnover theory at the empirical interface: Problems of fit and function. *The Academy of Management Review*, 27, 346–360.
- Steel, R. P. (2004). Job markets and turnover decisions. In R. Griffeth, & P. Hom (Eds.), *Innovative theory and empirical research on employee turnover* (pp. 73-82). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.
- Steel, R. P., & Lounsbury, J. W. (2009). Turnover process models: Review and synthesis of a conceptual literature. *Human Resource Management Review*, 19, 271–282.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2009.04.002>
- Steel, R. P., & Ovalle, N. K. (1984). A review and meta-analysis of research on the relationship between behavioral intentions and employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69(4), 673-686. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.69.4.673
- Steel, R. P., Griffeth, R. W., & Hom, P. W. (2002). Practical retention policy for the practical manager. *Academy of Management Executive*, 16(2), 149-162.
doi:10.5465/AME.2002.7173588
- Steers, R. M., & Mowday, R. T. (1981). Employee turnover and post-decision accommodation processes. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 3, pp. 235–281). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Thompson, C. A., & Prottas, D. J. (2005). Relationships among organizational family support, job autonomy, perceived control, and employee well-being. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 10(4), 100-118. doi:10.1037/1076-8998.10.4.100

Trevor, C. O. (2001). Interactions among actual ease-of-movement determinants and job satisfaction in the prediction of voluntary turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44, 621–638. doi: 10.2307/3069407

Table 1

Pattern Matrix of Rotated Factor Loadings from the Exploratory Factor Analysis

Two-Factor Model (N = 400) Without Problem Item

Item	PFC	PC
<i>Preferences to Stay/Leave</i>		
1. I have a preference to stay in my current job.	0.93	-0.03
1. I would prefer to remain at my current employing organization.	0.96	0.00
1. I desire to continue working at my employing organization.	0.97	0.00
1. I want to leave my current organization.	-0.95	-0.01
1. I have a preference to exit my current job.	-0.91	0.01
1. I want to quit working at my employing organization.	-0.95	-0.01
<i>Perceived Control</i>		
2. I have a great deal of control over being able to stay in my current job.	0.09	0.60
2. It is NOT up to me whether I am able to stay in my job. (reverse).	0.07	-0.69
2. It is mostly up to me whether or not I am able to leave my current organization.	-0.01	0.69
2. I have a great deal of control over being able to stay in my current job.	0.08	0.79
2. I have a great deal of control over being able to leave my current organization.	0.05	0.77
2. It is NOT up to me whether I am able to stay in my job. (reverse).	0.05	-0.87
2. It is mostly up to me whether or not I am able to leave my current organization.	0.00	0.82

a. Statistics that load > .40 are indicated in **BLOD**

Table 2

Pattern Matrix of Rotated Factor Loadings from the Exploratory Factor Analysis

Three-Factor Model (N = 400) Without Problem Item

Item	PFC	EXTTPC	INTPC
<i>Preference to Stay/Leave</i>			
1. I have a preference to stay in my current job.	0.94	0.01	0.14
1. I would prefer to remain at my current employing organization.	0.96	0.02	0.11
1. I desire to continue working at my employing organization.	0.98	-0.00	0.08
1. I want to leave my current organization.	-0.97	0.08	0.01
1. I have a preference to exit my current job.	-0.93	0.08	0.00
1. I want to quit working at my employing organization.	-0.97	0.08	0.01
<i>Internal Perceived Control</i>			
2. I have a great deal of control over being able to stay in my current job.	0.14	0.10	-0.61
2. It is NOT up to me whether I am able to stay in my job. (reverse).	0.01	-0.00	0.92
2. It is mostly up to me whether or not I am able to leave my current organization.	0.01	0.34	-0.46
<i>External Perceived Control</i>			
3. I have a great deal of control over being able to stay in my current job.	0.08	0.67	-0.16
3. I have a great deal of control over being able to leave my current organization.	0.03	0.84	0.03
3. It is NOT up to me whether I am able to stay in my job. (reverse).	0.04	-0.63	0.33
3. It is mostly up to me whether or not I am able to leave my current organization.	-0.01	0.87	-0.01

b. Statistics that load > .40 are indicated in **BLOD**

Table 3

CFA Correlations Between Factors

Structure		PFCS	PFCQ	PFC	INTPC
2-Factor Model (N = 400)	<i>PC</i>	-	-	.20**	-
3- Factor Model (N = 400)	<i>INTPC</i>	-	-	.15**	-
	<i>EXTPC</i>	-	-	.20**	.77**
4- Factor Model (N = 400)	<i>PFCQ</i>	-.96**	-	-	-
	<i>INTPC</i>	.13**	-.17**	-	-
	<i>EXTPC</i>	.20**	-.20**	-	.77**

Note. PFCS = Preferences to Stay; PFCQ = Preferences to Quit; PFC = Preferences; PC = Perceived Control; INTPC = Internal Perceived Control; EXTPC = External Perceived Control.

** $p < .01$

Table 4

CFA Comparison of Factor Structures

Structure	χ^2	CFI	df	RMSE A	RMSEA C.I	SRM R	AIC	BIC
2-Factor (<i>N</i> = 400)	764.052	.88	64	.16	(.15, .17)	.05	14304.780	14337.516
3-Factor (<i>N</i> = 400)	637.332	.90	62	.15	(.14, .16)	.04	14182.061	14216.434
4-Factor (<i>N</i> = 400)	441.271	.93	59	.12	(.11, .13)	.04	13992.000	14028.828

Table 5

Means, Standard Deviations and Correlation Matrix

Variable	Mean	SD	PFC	INTPC	EXPC	PREPSEAR	ACTSEAR	TOI
<i>PFC</i>	3.99	.37						
<i>INTPC</i>	4.76	.65	0.02					
<i>EXTPC</i>	4.66	.72	-0.01	0.52***				
<i>PREPSEAR</i>	1.66	.71	.19***	-0.16***	-0.2***			
<i>ACTSEAR</i>	1.42	.68	.11**	-0.21***	-0.16***	0.69***		
<i>TOI</i>	2.68	1.88	.22***	-0.11*	-0.11*	0.57***	0.51***	-

Note. PFC = Preferences, INTPC = Internal perceived control, EXTPC = External perceived control, TOI = Turnover Intentions, ACTSEAR = Active Search, PREPSEAR = Preparatory Search

** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$

Table 6

Regression Results for Turnover Intentions

	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3			
	<i>B</i>	<i>s.e.</i>	β	R^2	<i>B</i>	<i>s.e.</i>	β	R^2	<i>B</i>	<i>s.e.</i>	β	R^2
<u>Step 1</u>				.060								
<i>PFCQ</i>	1.11	.17	.22		1.30	1.30	.22		-.80	7.26	.23	
<i>INTPC</i>	-.21 [†]	.11	-.07 [†]		-1.66	1.19	-.06		-3.47	6.25	-.06	
<i>EXTPC</i>	-.17 [†]	.10	-.06 [†]		.32	1.21	-.06 [†]		-1.51	6.36	-.06 [†]	
<u>Step 2</u>								.060				
<i>PFCQ</i> $\times$ <i>INTPC</i>					.23	.27	.02		.68	1.56	.02	
<i>PFCQ</i> $\times$ <i>EXTPC</i>					-.27	.27	-.03		.19	1.59	-.03	
<i>INTPC</i> $\times$ <i>EXTPC</i>					.12	.11	.03		.51	1.33	.03	
<u>Step 3</u>												.058
<i>PFCQ</i> $\times$ <i>INTPC</i> $\times$ <i>EXTPC</i>									-.9	.33	-.00	

Note. Model 1 = Main Effects, Model 2 = Two-way Interactions, Model 3 = Three-way Interactions; PFC = Preferences, INTPC: Internal perceived control, EXTPC: External perceived control

[†] $p < 0.10$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

Table 7

Regression Results for Active Search

	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3			
	<i>B</i>	<i>s.e.</i>	β	R^2	<i>B</i>	<i>s.e.</i>	β	R^2	<i>B</i>	<i>s.e.</i>	β	R^2
<u>Step 1</u>				.058								
<i>PFC</i>	.21	.06	1.63		.40	.47	.12		-.035	2.63	.12	
<i>INTPC</i>	-.18	.04	-.17		-.52	.43	-.17		-1.18	2.27	-.17	
<i>EXTPC</i>	-.06†	.03	-.07		.38	.44	-.07		-.27	2.31	-.07	
<u>Step 2</u>								.057				
<i>PFCQ x</i>					.08	.09	.02		.24	.56	.02	
<i>INTPC</i>												
<i>PFCQ x</i>					-.12	.09	-.04		.04	.57	-.04	
<i>EXTPC</i>												
<i>INTPC x</i>					0.00	.04	.00		.14	.48	.00	
<i>EXTPC</i>												
<u>Step 3</u>												.056
<i>PFCQ x</i>												
<i>INTPC x</i>									-.03	.12	-.00	
<i>EXTPC</i>												

Note. Model 1 = Main Effects, Model 2 = Two-way Interactions, Model 3 = Three-way Interactions; PFC = Preferences, INTPC: Internal perceived control, EXTPC: External perceived control

† $p < .10$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

Table 8

Regression Results for Preparatory Search

	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3			
	<i>B</i>	<i>s.e.</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	<i>B</i>	<i>s.e.</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	<i>B</i>	<i>s.e.</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²
<u>Step 1</u>				.076								
<i>PFC</i>	.36	.06	8.88		.74	.49	.19		3.94	2.73	.17	
<i>INTPC</i>	-.08†	.04	-.07		-.03	.45	-.09		2.71	2.35	-.09	
<i>EXTPC</i>	-.15	.03	-.16		.66	.45	.15		3.46	2.39	-.15	
<u>Step 2</u>								.077				
<i>PFCQ x</i>					.05	.10	.01		-.63	.58	.02	
<i>INTPC</i>												
<i>PFCQ x</i>					-.13	.10	-.05		-.83	.60	-.04	
<i>EXTPC</i>												
<i>INTPC x</i>					-.06	.04	-.03		-.65	.50	-.03	
<i>EXTPC</i>												
<u>Step 3</u>												.078
<i>PFCQ x</i>												
<i>INTPC x</i>									.14	.12	.03	
<i>EXTPC</i>												

Note. Model 1 = Main Effects, Model 2 = Two-way Interactions, Model 3 = Three-way Interactions; PFC = Preferences, INTPC: Internal perceived control, EXTPC: External perceived control

†*p* < .10, * *p* < 0.05, ** *p* < 0.01

Table 9

Multinomial Regression Model Testing

Model	Param	AIC	BIC	Deviance	χ^2	df	p-value
Main	4	1667.993	1724.208	1643.993	-	-	-
Two-Way	7	1680.462	1778.839	1638.462	5.530225	3	0.136842
Three-Way	8	1681.669	1794.1	1633.669	4.79336	1	0.02857

Table 10

Multinomial Regression Results

Reference Group = Enthusiastic Stayer									
	Reluctant Stayer			Reluctant Leaver			Enthusiastic Leaver		
	B	Exp(B)	s.e.	B	Exp(B)	s.e.	B	Exp(B)	s.e.
Intercept	-1.15	0.32	1.39	-4.02	0.02	1.61	-6.05	0	1.55
Preference to Quit	1.89	6.61	0.3	1.33	3.79	0.34	1.43	4.17	0.32
Internal Control	-0.81	0.44	0.18	-0.33	0.72	0.21	-0.11	0.9	0.21
External Control	-0.87	0.42	0.16	-0.29	0.75	0.19	-0.14	0.87	0.19

Reference Group = Reluctant Stayer									
	Reluctant Leaver			Enthusiastic Stayer			Enthusiastic Leavers		
	B	Exp(B)	s.e.	B	Exp(B)	s.e.	B	Exp(B)	s.e.
Intercept	-2.87	0.06	1.77	1.15	3.16	1.39	-4.9	0.01	1.73
Preference to Quit	-0.56	0.57	0.37	-1.89	0.15	0.3	-0.46	0.63	0.35
Internal Control	0.48	1.62	0.23	0.81	2.26	0.18	0.7	2.02	0.24
External Control	0.57	1.78	0.21	0.87	2.38	0.16	0.73	2.08	0.21

Reference Group = Enthusiastic Leaver									
	Reluctant Stayer			Reluctant Leaver			Enthusiastic Stayer		
	B	Exp(B)	s.e.	B	Exp(B)	s.e.	B	Exp(B)	s.e.
Intercept	4.9	134.45	1.73	2.03	7.59	1.92	6.05	424.42	1.55
Preference to Quit	0.46	1.58	0.35	-0.1	0.91	0.38	-1.43	0.24	0.32
Internal Control	-0.7	0.5	0.24	-0.22	0.8	0.27	0.11	1.12	0.21
External Control	-0.73	0.48	0.21	-0.16	0.85	0.24	0.14	1.14	0.19

Figure 1

Scree test of Eigenvalues

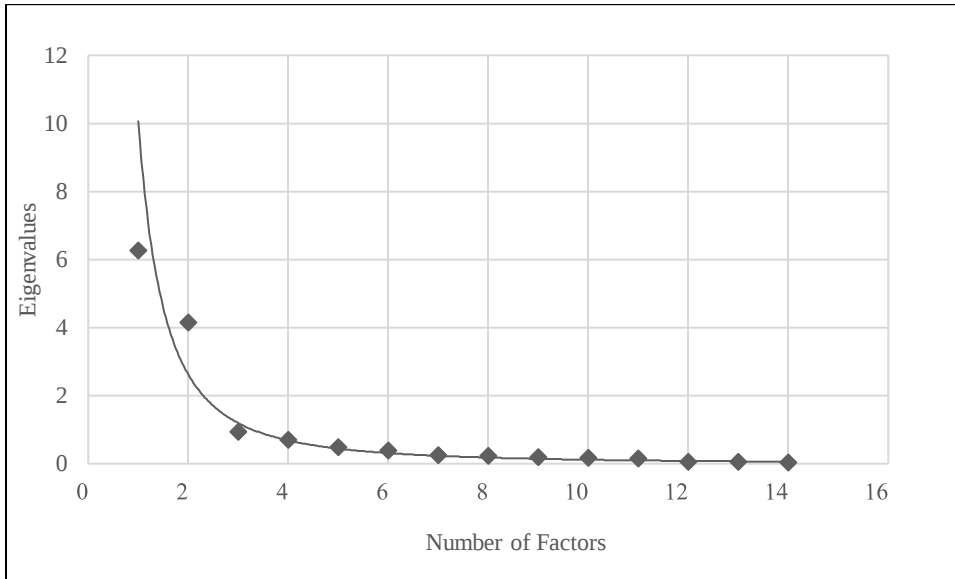


Figure 2

Two-Factor Model, Structural Model CFA

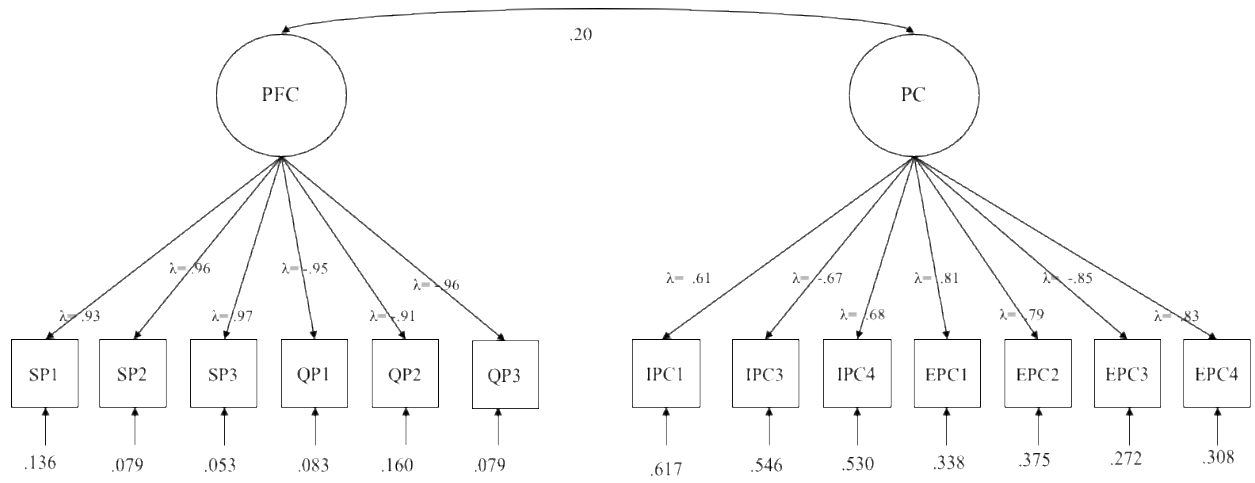


Figure 3

Three-factor Model, Structural Model CFA

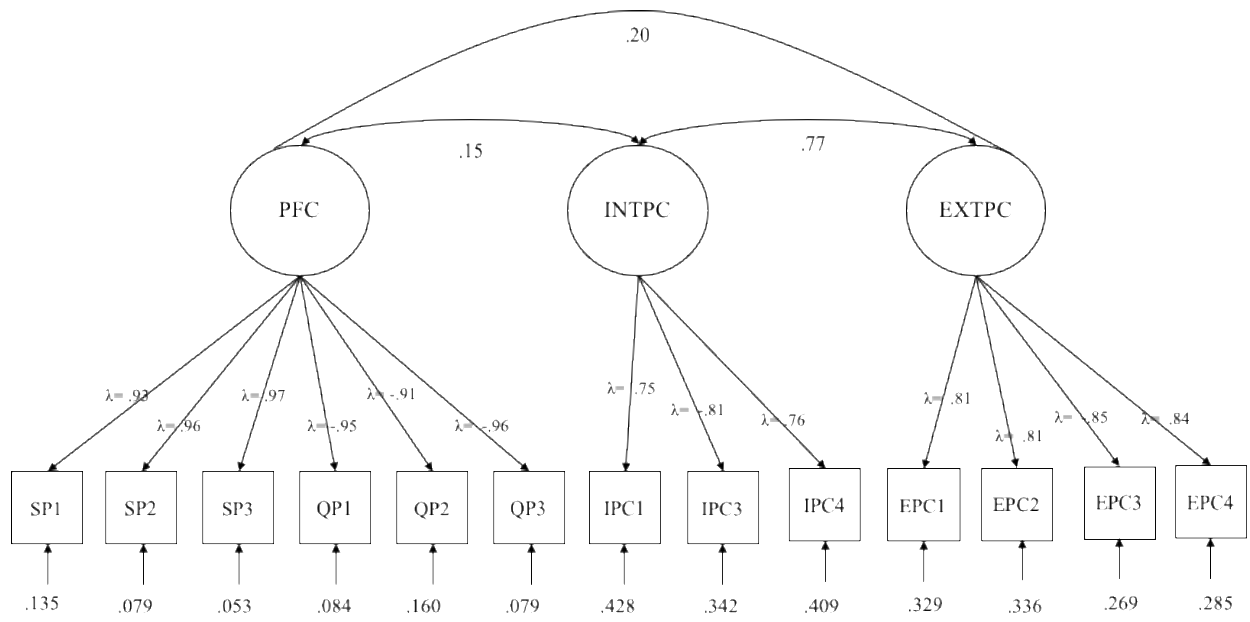


Figure 4

Four-factor Model, Structural Model CFA

