CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

This chapter describes the literature review and conceptual framework of the study. It comprises the following headings:

1. Intent to stay
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3. Situation Related to Shortage of Nursing Faculty Members in Malawi
4. Conceptual Framework

Intent to Stay

The concept of intent to stay has long been developed and modified over time. It has widely been used among nurses and currently extending among faculty members.

Definitions of Intent to Stay

Price and Mueller (1981) described intent to stay as one dimension of commitment and significantly and negatively related to turnover. They defined intent to stay as the estimated likelihood of continued membership in an organization. This definition described the intent to stay concept as a state of the mind that reflects a continuous process, emphasizing on the willingness to maintain membership.

Iverson and Roy (1994) referred to intent to stay as behavioral commitment and defined it as the degree of an employee's intent to stay with an organization. This definition has further described intent to stay as measurable behavior (degree).

Similarly, Kim, Price, Mueller, and Watson (1996) defined intent to stay as the extent to which an employee plans to continue membership with his or her employer. This definition looked at intent to stay as both the state of the mind (plans) and measurable behavior (extent).

Makorwitz (2012) adopted the latter definition in his work among faculty members. He defined intent to stay as the perception to continue working as a faculty member in an institution. His definition embraced the meanings in all the definitions above and reflected the education setting.

As a behavioral outcome reflecting an education setup, intent to stay as described in Markorwitz (2012) work, was therefore adopted. Intent to stay in this study referred to the perception to continue working as a faculty member in the nursing college.

Theory and Models Related to Intent to Stay

Intent to stay in this study was best explained in expectancy theory. The use of expectancy theory in intent to stay studies has widely been evidenced (Al-Omari et al., 2008; Daly & Dee, 2006; Dee, 2002; Iverson & Roy, 1994).

Vroom (1964) theory of expectancy. Basic to the idea of expectancy theory is the notion that people enter work organizations with expectations and values, and if these expectations and values are met, they will likely remain a member of the organization (Vroom, 1964). Thus, people have certain expectations for the structural properties of work. When these structural expectations are met, people tend to report higher levels of satisfaction, attach themselves more strongly to work and the organization, thereby increasing their intent to stay and decreasing turnover (Al-Omari et al., 2008; Daly & Dee, 2006; Dee, 2002; Lunenburg, 2011). According to Lunenburg (2011), through studies grounded in expectancy theory, several important issues that pose a risk to employees' expectations and values can be identified and manipulated in order to motivate employees and fulfill their effort-to-performance expectancy, performance-to-reward expectancy, and reward valences. The expectancy framework suggests important managerial implications for motivating employees including 1) effort-to-performance expectancy – leaders should try to increase the belief that employees are capable of performing the job successfully, 2) performance-to-reward expectancy – leaders should try to increase the belief that good performance will result in valued rewards, 3) valences of rewards – leaders should try to increase the expected value of rewards resulting from desired performance.

A range of models that explained intent to stay were grounded in Vroom (1964) expectancy theory. Study findings evidenced that models based in expectancy theory, contributed to more understanding of faculty members' intent to stay (Al-Omari et al., 2008; Daly & Dee, 2006; Iverson & Roy, 1994; Markowitz, 2012). Models that follow

are grounded in expectancy theory and describe intent to stay among faculty members only.

An integrated behavioral commitment causal model. This model was developed by Iverson and Roy (1994) and is grounded in expectancy theory. It combines the economic, psychological and sociological phenomenon of turnover. The model identifies four general classes of variables: pre-entry (met expectations), structural, psychological, and environmental, that determine and meet employees values and expectations in an organization. It assumes that the leader's role in an organization is to determine the extent to which an employee's organizational life (pre-entry variable) has been met on the job so as to enhance intent to stay and retention. Behavioral commitment (intent to stay) and attitudinal commitment (organizational commitment) were studied as employee orientation, environmental opportunity reflected environmental variable, whereas pay and supervisor support were studied as structural variables among other variables in this model (Iverson & Roy, 1994).

Conceptual model and the theoretical path model for intent to stay. These models were developed by Daly and Dee (2006) and Al-Omari et al. (2008), respectively. They all adopted Iverson and Roy (1994) integrated framework that is grounded in expectancy theory. The conceptual model by Daly and Dee (2006), explained 53% of the variance in faculty members' intent to stay and exceeded the amount of variance (42%) explained by the theoretical model for intent to stay by Al-Omari et al. (2008), in a similar study among faculty members. The two models comprised similar variables from structural, psychological and environmental variables, except for kinship responsibility and other demographic variables in the Al-Omari et al. (2008) theoretical path model. These models assume that intent to stay can be enhanced by manipulating the structural faculty members' work place while observing for environmental factors that may pose a threat to allegedly satisfied and committed faculty members (Al-Omari et al., 2008; Dee & Daly, 2006). The variables measured in these models included organizational commitment, job opportunity and intent to stay among others.

Conceptual model for intent to stay. This model is an extension of the work of Daly and Dee (2006) and that of Al-Omari et al. (2008) done by Markowitz (2012), and explained 65% of the variance in faculty members' intent to stay. Likewise, the model

employed expectancy theory in explaining faculty members' satisfaction. It described intent to stay by examining the relationship between faculty members' perceptions of the quality of the faculty-administrator relationship and intent to stay at their institution. The variables measured included intent to stay, faculty-administrator relationship, organizational commitment and pay satisfaction. The perception of the quality of the faculty-administrator relationship operated as leader-member exchange (LMX) concept in this model. The model assumes that it is how employees interpret the quality of their faculty-administrator relationship, identify and accept the goal and values of the organization, and believe their pay is equitable, that builds upon their organizational commitment and determines if they will maintain employment or seek opportunities elsewhere. When faculty members believe that they are fairly compensated, they are more trusting of their administrators hence perceiving a higher quality faculty-administrator relationship. Faculty members who perceive a higher quality faculty-administrator relationship have higher levels of organizational commitment and in turn, higher levels of intent to remain employed with the organization (Markowitz, 2012).

In conclusion, all of the above models evidenced a satisfactory explanatory power in providing meaning to the concept of intent to stay. Vroom (1964) expectancy theory was widely adopted by scholars in these previous models, hence was equally utilized in this study. The model by Makorwitz (2012) included variables that can easily be manipulated, and explained a stronger variance in intent to stay among those reviewed, therefore adopted for this study.

Measurement of Intent to Stay

There were several scales that were reviewed as measuring intent to stay. This study focused on those that had been used among faculty members. Their validity and reliability were also scrutinized.

Intent to Stay Scale (ITSS) developed by Kim et al. (1996). This is a four-item scale, originating from the Price and Mueller model and scale of 1986. It measures one's intentions to remain employed in an organization. The Cronbach's Alpha of the original scale was .85. Factor analysis of this scale showed it to be a distinct factor by itself (Kim et al., 1996).

Intent to Stay Scale (ITSS) by Markowitz (2012). This scale was modified from ITSS by Kim et al. (1996) to fit the faculty members' population and reflected in several studies among faculty members. It is a four-item scale. The items were measured on a five point Likert scale from 1(Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree), and ranged from 4-20. A high level of intent to stay within this scale was defined as scores greater than or equal to 14. Its reliability ranged from Cronbach's Alpha of .82 to .89 in three studies, indicating a good ($0.70 \leq \alpha < 0.90$) internal consistency (Al-Omari et al., 2008; Daly & Dee, 2006; Makorwitz, 2012). Content validity done by 10 experts in the field of education in Hashemite University was reported as good in Al-Omari et al. (2008) study.

In this study, the 4-items modified version of the ITSS by Markowitz (2012). It was used as it was evidenced as valid by content in experts' validation, and reliable.

Research Studies Related to Intent to Stay

The studies that were targeted were those that used the scales originating from ITSS by Kim et al. (1996), and fitting faculty members' population.

Daly and Dee (2006) conducted a study on intent to stay among 1500 faculty members from urban public universities (various unspecified disciplines), in the US. The ITSS yielded moderated levels of intent to stay ($\overline{X}$ = 3.32; SD = 1.02). In a similar study done by Al-Omari et al. (2008) among 150 faculty members from Jordanian Universities, the same scale yielded moderated levels of intent to stay ($\overline{X}$ = 3.15; SD = .95) too. It was found out that whenever faculty members structural and psychological expectations were met to an extent that they felt supported in their work, motivated in their rewards and stimulated, when threats in their environment were taken care of, intent to stay decisions increased (Al-Omari et al., 2008; Daly & Dee, 2006).

Markowitz (2012) described intent to stay at a Career- focused University in the US too. The study was done among 423 graduates and under-graduate faculty members that responded to an online questionnaire, from a pool of 1,085 full-time faculties within 14 Florida-based campuses (various disciplines) of Kaiser University. The level of intent to stay in this study was reported as high ($\overline{X}$ =14.71; SD = 3.78). Faculty members feeling of being supported in their job by the organization and their supervisors, as well as

perceptions of being fairly rewarded in their performance, increased their levels of intent to stay (Markowitz, 2012).

Garbee and Killacky (2008) conducted a study among nursing faculty members but used another scale. It was a mixed methods study that aimed at exploring factors that influence intent to stay in nursing education. It was done on a random cluster sample of 316 nursing faculty members from 39 schools of nursing in the US. The study examined both, faculty intent to stay and leave. It was evidenced that when intent to stay scores were high among nursing faculty members, intent to leave scores were low and vice versa. Intent to stay was described qualitatively in this study. To be part of student success and faculty members' love of nursing were the satisfaction themes that influenced intent to stay decisions, whilst lack of faculty, workload and long commute made them dissatisfied and likely to leave. Intent to stay score was found to be higher in faculty members that worked 40hours than those working 60 hours per week (Garbee & Killacky, 2008).

Likewise, Loquias and Sana (2012) conducted a correlation study to determine the factors associated with intentions to stay or leave among 107 faculty members in 12 Colleges of Pharmacy in Metro Manila in the Philippines. It was also a mixed methods study. Results revealed that faculty members were more likely to stay ($\overline{X}$ =5.04) than leave ($\overline{X}$ =3.13) in the next 5 years. Interest in the teaching job influenced intent to stay decisions whilst feeling of being unfairly rewarded led to more intent to leave decisions (Loquias & Sana, 2012).

In conclusion, studies on intent to stay had mainly been done in the US with inconsistent findings among faculty members from undefined disciplines. Some studies indicated high and others moderate levels of intent to stay. The results reflected various sample groups and disciplines that could not explain nursing. Differences in faculty members' characteristics, institutional capabilities, roles, and social cultural contexts across countries and institutions reflected in the differences in levels of intent to stay, hence could also differ in Malawi.

Factors Related to Intent to Stay Among Faculty Members

There were several factors that had been reviewed as relating to intent to stay. Only those factors that had shown a stronger relationship and can be manipulated were selected for this study, including organizational commitment, pay satisfaction, faculty-administrator relationship and job opportunity.

Organizational Commitment

Several researchers had studied organizational commitment in higher education studies either as a dependent or independent variable. In this study, organizational commitment was studied as one of the independent variables.

Definition of organizational commitment. Researchers have conceptualized organizational commitment as both a multidimensional and global construct. Jaros (2007) adopted Meyer and Herscovitch multidimensional conceptualization of commitment; defining it as a force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets.

Likewise, in 1997 Meyer and Allen defined organizational commitment as a multidimensional psychological state that characterizes the person's relationship with the organization in question and has implications for the decision to remain involved in the organization (Jaros, 2007).

Globally constructed, organizational commitment centers on the organization as a whole and its major emphasis is placed on the congruence between individual and organizational goals (Daly & Dee, 2006). This conceptualization defines organizational commitment as the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday et al., 1982). It is a stable attitude that develops over time (Bluedorn, 1982).

This study adopted the globally constructed conceptualization of organizational commitment. The definition by Mowday et al. (1982) was therefore adopted. Organizational commitment referred to the strength of a faculty member’s identification with and involvement in a particular nursing college.

Theory and models of organizational commitment. Three theoretical models reflected in the reviewed studies and were briefly explained. Their explanatory power and link to intent to stay was analyzed.

Organizational commitment theory developed by Mowday and Steers in 1979. This theory is based not just on an employee's level of dedication and loyalty to an organization. Rather, it centers on an individual's general affective response to the organization as a whole, determining the congruence between individual goals and that of the organization. Commitment emphasizes attachment to the organization and develops when individuals who have needs, desires, and skills find that the organization is able to utilize their skills and satisfy their needs. It entails the relative strength of an employee's identification and involvement with his employer manifesting as three responses: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization - thus intent to stay. Specifically, when organizational commitment is strong, there is a belief and congruence in, acceptance of organizational goals and values, a willingness to exert effort for the organization, and a desire to remain in the organization (Mowday et al., 1982).

Three-component model of commitment conceptualized by Meyer and Allen in 1997. This model has been used by researchers in studies among nursing faculty members (Gormley & Kennerly, 2011; Gutierrez, Candela, & Carver, 2012) and other higher education studies (Noor, 2011). The theory behind this model assumes that characteristics of the work setting, management practices, socialization experiences, personal and psychological characteristics, all affect worker behavior. These, in turn, manifest into the three components of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative. When positive, the consequences of which are retention, productive behavior, psychological and physiological well-being among others (Gutierrez et al., 2012).

Dual process theoretical model of organizational commitment developed by Yoon and Thye in 2002. This is a model that focused on two pathways: job satisfaction and perceived organizational support (Al-Hussami, Saleh, Abdalkader, & Mahadeen, 2011) studied among nursing faculty members. The model linked specific job behaviors and organizational practices including pay, to the emotions (centered on job satisfaction) and

cognitions (focused on perceptions of organizational support) in order to determine faculty member's commitment to the university.

In conclusion, this theoretical rationale by Mowday et al. (1982) explained organizational commitment in this study. It was observed to be congruent to the conceptual definition as it explained the faculty member's general affective response to the college as a whole and described the congruence between the individual faculty member's goals and that of the college. Its explanatory power is equally evidenced as well linking to intent to stay in this study.

Measurement of organizational commitment. According to the studies reviewed, the following were used as constructs of organizational commitment:-

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). Mowday and Steers originally developed this construct in 1979 as a fifteen-item questionnaire measured on a seven-point Likert-type scale. Factor analysis by Mowday et al. in 1979 recommended the need to include both positively and negatively phrased items when using a shorter version of their scale (Makorwitz, 2012).

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) as adopted by Garbee and Killacky (2008). This is another construct modified from an original OCQ developed by Mowday and Steers in 1979. It consists of nine positively worded items on a seven point Likert-type scale. Cronbach's alpha was 0.82 in Garbee and Killacky (2008) study among nursing faculty members, in the US. Details of validation of this scale could not be found but the risk for response set bias with all positive statements was acknowledged as a limitation. As the total number of items increased, the risk for respondent burden was also weighted.

Measure of Organizational Commitment by Markowitz (2012). This construct is also a modified version of the original Mowday et al. OCQ above; used by Daly and Dee (2006) , Al-Omari et al. (2008), and Markowitz (2012) in the US. This seven- item five point Likert-type scale included both positively and negatively phrased items as recommended by Mowday, Steers, and Porter in 1979 when using a shorter version of their scale. Scores ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), with a total

sum of score of 7-35. Items two, six and seven are reverse-scored. This construct has widely been used in higher education studies among faculty members, proven reliable and valid (Al-Omari et al., 2008). The Cronbach's alpha for the initial scale was .90. Reliability was good ($0.7 \leq \alpha < 0.9$), in Iverson and Roy (1994); Daly and Dee (2006) and Al-Omari et al. (2008) studies; and excellent ($\alpha \geq 0.9$) in Markowitz (2012) study.

The Measure of Organizational Commitment used by Makorwitz (2012) was used in this study. It had both positively and negatively phrased items as recommended by original author and fitting faculty population. The MOC was tested for content validation by 10 experts in education at Hashemite University and described as good (Al-Omari et al., 2008).

Relationship between organizational commitment and intent to stay. Organizational commitment has been widely studied along with other variables. This study focused on those that studied organizational commitment along with intent to stay and applying the global conceptualization.

In a study done among 150 faculty members in Jordan, Al-Omari et al. (2008) found out that organizational commitment demonstrated a strong positive correlation ($r = .628$; $p < 0.05$) with intent to stay. The seven items Measure of Organizational Commitment modified from the original OCQ was used. The study findings revealed that faculty members were likely to stay when commitment that resulted from fair rewards, academic freedom and communication openness was strong (Al-Omari et al., 2008).

Daly and Dee (2006) reported similar findings in a similar study done among faculty members in urban public universities of the US. Organizational commitment was more strongly and positively correlated ($r = .660$; $p < 0.01$) to intent to stay. The researchers used the same conceptualization and Measure of Organizational Commitment as in Al-Omari et al. (2008) study. Faculty members from undefined disciplines perceived a stronger attachment to college when they perceived that they were fairly rewarded and when in less role conflict (Daly & Dee, 2006).

In a study done by Markowitz (2012) among graduate and under graduate faculty members from several disciplines, organizational commitment was found to be directly

and more strongly positively related to intent to stay ($r = .76$; $p<.001$) than the other two outlined studies. Administrators support in fair reward allocation contributed to strong attachment and intent to stay, whereas institutional structure and centralized governance decreased commitment and intent to stay in this study.

Garbee and Killacky (2008) studied the predictive ability of organizational commitment scores for intent to stay across one, three and five year periods in a mixed methods study. It was done among a random cluster sample that consisted of 316 nursing faculty members from 39 schools of nursing in the US. Regression analyses showed that organizational commitment can significantly predict intent to stay one year ($F(1,314) = 75.012$, $p <.001$) with an R^2 of .193, and intent to stay 5 years ($F(1,314) = 81.225$, $p<.001$), R^2 of .206. The study used another version of the OCQ that consisted of nine positively worded items on a 7-point Likert scale. They acknowledged the risk for response set bias as a limitation since all items were in positive statements. Organizational image of excellence and collegial environment influenced commitment and intent to stay whilst low pay and time demands decreased commitment and intent to stay (Garbee & Killacky, 2008).

Likewise, in a study that explored institutional researchers (IR) intent to stay and leave (Knight & Leimer, 2010), it was found out that whenever IR professionals felt that they were supported by their organization, they were likely to be committed to that organization ($r = .34$; $p <0.05$) and likely to stay in their job. This study was also done in the US.

All in all, it was deduced that organizational commitment had been widely studied among faculty members' with consistently strong positive relationship. The only study among nursing faculty members had a mixed methods design and used regression analysis and presented predictive findings. In addition, the researchers used a different version of the measurement tool which had a risk for response set bias as all items were in positive statements. Study findings reflected developed than developing countries.

Faculty-administrator Relationship

Faculty-administrator relationship has been conceptualized in line with social exchange theories to describe a form of shared-governance in an organization that allows for faculty and administrator transaction as they involve themselves in interdependent sets of roles and responsibilities, central to institutional decision making. The goal is to move beyond tolerance and toward productive, cooperative, and mutually satisfying governance-related interaction (Del Favero, 2002).

Scholars have used numerous terms including leader-follower relationships, leader-subordinate relationships, supervisor-subordinate relationships, dean/chair/administrator support, supervisor support, and leader-member exchange (LMX) to explain the faculty-administrator relationship in higher education studies. Burns and Otte (1999) asserted to this greatest difficulty in scholarly work and proposed the use of LMX as an umbrella term. LMX goes beyond just average leadership styles and behaviors (Wilhelm, Herd, & Steiner, 1993). Although faculty would not want to be called members (Del Favero, 2002), the faculty-administrator concept could not explain this relationship better than leader-member exchange conceptualization in this study. Leader-member exchange and faculty-administrator relationship were therefore used interchangeably and conceptualized in leader-member exchange theory as adopted from Markowitz (2012) model.

Definition of faculty-administrator relationship. LMX was defined as the quality of the exchange relationship between an employee and his or her immediate superior (Hwa et al., 2009). Relational components of trust, respect, greater support and obligation between the leader and the member described this high quality-exchange (Masyln & Uhl-Bien, 2001). In this study, faculty-administrator relationship was therefore defined as the quality of the exchange relationship between a nursing faculty member and his or her administrator.

Model related to faculty-administrator relationship. A model that explained the faculty-administrator relationship in this study was based on the leader-member exchange theory from social exchange theories. The theory described the transaction processes among persons in a group or society.

Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) Model developed by Graen & Schiemann in 1978. The model is based on the social exchange theory norm of reciprocity, which posits that when a person provides something of value to another person, it obligates the recipient to reciprocate in a dyadic relationship; until a relational exchange of trust, respect and obligation later, commitment is achieved (Masyln & Uhl-Bien, 2001). On the other hand, LMX theory is based on the assumption that supervisors' actions can produce feelings of obligation and commitment from the employee towards the organization (Liden & Graen, 1980; Wilhelm et al., 1993). The VDL model focuses on this understanding of the heterogeneity of the leader-member dyadic relationship.

The behavior of the leader towards members that present a positive interaction (in-group) is characterized by high trust, greater support, frequent interaction and more rewards (Wilhelm et al., 1993). Followers are provided more challenging and desirable work assignments, more support and attention from the leader; are encouraged to work closely with their co-workers as a way to reciprocate to their leader, have increased employee commitment, increased positive attitudes and satisfaction with the job (Masyln & Uhl-Bien, 2001; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009; Stringer, 2006). Therefore, higher quality leader-member exchange relationships within this dyad, mean that a leader provides a positive work atmosphere that meets the members' values and expectations thereby increasing their effort, satisfaction and commitment to the job and organization (Gagnon & Michael, 2004; Liden & Graen, 1980; Stringer, 2006); hence intent to stay.

Measurement of faculty-administrator relationship. Measurement of this relationship related to its theoretical explanation based on the model. The instrument that measured this relationship and adopted for this study is described below.

Leader-member Exchange Version 7 (LMX-7) Instrument developed by Scandura and Graen (1984) and modified by Makorwitz (2012). The construct measures the perception of the quality of the faculty-administrator relationship with their direct supervisor (be it a Principal, Dean, Head of department, Coordinator). The perceived faculty-administrator relationship was measured using the Leader-member Exchange Version 7 (LMX-7) instrument in a study done by Markowitz (2012) and adopted for this study. This instrument was developed by business school scholars, and recommended by Graen and Uhl-Bien in 1995 (Makorwitz, 2012) for use by either party of the dyad. It

tests only the direct-line faculty-administrator relationship and not the dotted line. The seven-item instrument was designed on a five-point Likert-type scale that had a range of 1 (negative response) to 5 (strong response), measuring interpersonal sensitivity and vertical exchange behaviors, with a total point range of 7-35. The higher the score, the higher the quality of the faculty-administrator relationship (Markowitz, 2012). It was evidenced as highly reliable, convergent and discriminately a valid research tool (Lagace, 1990; Stringer, 2006). Cronbach's alpha values for the LMX-7 instrument were consistently high in previous studies, indicating excellent ($\alpha \geq 0.9$) internal consistency. Masyln and Uhl-Bien (2001) and Markowitz (2012) reported Cronbach's alpha values of .90 and .94, respectively.

Relationship between faculty-administrator relationship and intent to stay. Studies demonstrated an existence of this relationship among several populations and in different settings. Faculty-administrator relationship moderately and positively correlated to intent to stay ($r = 0.39$; $p < .001$) in a study by Markowitz (2012). When faculty members perceived a positive collegial environment, collaborative relationships and a positive working relationship, they perceived higher quality faculty-administrator relationships and stayed with their institution. The longer they interacted with immediate supervisor, the less happy they became and left.

Han and Jekel (2011) conducted a similar study but on hospital nurses and explored the relationship between LMX but, with nurse turnover intentions. Another version of the LMX-7 (7-point Likert-scale) questionnaire was used on 181 nurses from seven units in the US hospitals in three locations. Higher LMX was associated with lower turnover intentions ($r = -0.4$, $p < 0.01$); consequently higher levels of intent to stay. Similarly, Mayfield and Mayfield (2009) used the LMX-7 scale and LMX model in a study done on health care professionals (discipline not specified) from a southeastern US health-care facility. This subject pool consisted of 475 health care professionals with 151 providing usable responses. The findings revealed a congruency between good leader-follower relationships and positive worker outcomes.

Lawrence, Ott, and Bell (2011) studied exchange along with other variables among 4,550 faculty members including medical faculty in a state system of higher education in the US but did not use the LMX-7 instrument. The researchers posited that administrators

who are able to use high quality exchange relationships are well equipped to build positive relationships with faculty, which in turn, can lead to increased organizational commitment and satisfaction thereby indirectly, increasing levels of intent to stay.

Likewise, Gagnon and Michael (2004) employed the leader-member exchange theory to examine the effects of the employee- supervisor relationship on important job-related outcomes in a sample of wood manufacturing employees. Employee perceptions of their relationship with their supervisor were evaluated and compared using a measure of perceived supervisor support for production employees at three wood manufacturers. Findings indicated that employees who perceived themselves to be in a supportive relationship with their supervisor had higher organizational commitment and were therefore likely to stay.

Supervisory support had a direct strong positive ($r = 0.50$; $p < .05$) relationship with intent to stay in a study done by Iverson and Roy (1994), among Australian blue-collar employees. Conversely, in a study that explored institutional researchers (IR) intent to stay and leave in the US, administrative support indirectly increased intent to stay. It is said that whenever IR professionals felt that they were supported by their organization, they were likely to be committed to that organization and likely to stay in their job (Knight & Leimer, 2010). Likewise, strong relationships with administration and a sense of communication openness appeared to indirectly influence faculty retention (Al-Hussami et al., 2011; Ryan, Healy, & Sullivan, 2010).

All the same, in a mixed methods study done by Loquias and Sana (2012) among pharmacy faculty members in Metro Manilla, it was revealed that the most frequently cited reasons to stay in the academe were good relationship with colleagues and the college administration among others. Moreover, satisfaction with supervisor produced highly significant meta-analyses ($p < .0001$); indicating that it is negatively related to turnover in Cotton and Tuttle (1986) study. Asserting to this, relationship was an important institutional feature for retention in Garbee and Killacky (2008) conceptual framework. Explicitly from their findings, Gormley and Kennerly (2011) asserted that retention was more likely to occur if nursing faculty members perceived clear work expectations and experienced good working relationships with their academic unit head and coworkers.

In summary, this result reflected mainly the developed country- the US, and could not be generalized to a developing country like Malawi. Moreover, the author found no study done among nursing faculty members, both in developed and developing countries.

Pay Satisfaction

Pay satisfaction was another independent variable that had been reviewed as one of the factors related to intent to stay in higher education studies.

Definition of pay satisfaction. Smith (1969) described pay satisfaction as a dimension of job satisfaction. Conceptualizations of job satisfaction include pay satisfaction as a central element (Gay, Weiss, Hendel, Dawis, & Lofquist, 1971; Judge, 1993).

Pay satisfaction was defined as an individual response to feelings between how much one prefers to receive and how much is actually received (Heneman III & Schwab, 1985). This definition described pay satisfaction as an individual's perception towards his/her pay or salary and benefits. The definition linked well with the theory of expectancy as it explained an individual's expectation towards pay; hence adopted in this study.

Pay satisfaction therefore, was based on Heneman and Schwab (1985) conceptualization as used in Makorwitz (2012) model. Pay satisfaction referred to the nursing faculty member's response to feelings between how much he/she preferred to receive and how much was actually received.

Theory and models related to pay satisfaction. Two similar theoretical explanations reflect pay satisfaction in higher education studies among faculty members.

Vroom (1964) expectancy theory. As mentioned earlier, this theory posited that when deciding among different behavioral options, individuals will choose the option with the greatest (self) motivational forces. Explicitly, employees believe that certain actions will achieve a positive outcome and that they will be appropriately rewarded (Lunenburg, 2011; Vroom, 1964).

Facet Satisfaction Model developed by Lawler's in 1973. The model clarified what makes people feel satisfied. Just like expectancy theory, the facet satisfaction model focus on the concepts of effort-performance probability and reward value. Lawler's theory state that the influence of pay on individuals' satisfaction depends on the individuals' beliefs about whether their performance will result in the desired/expected consequences. Satisfaction is through the individuals' perceived association between effort and performance, moderated by their expectation of attaining rewards, either internal or external. External rewards such as pay are provided by the environment, whereas internal rewards such as feelings of accomplishment result from individuals' feelings about performance (Garbee & Killacky, 2008).

Since intent to stay was well rationalized in expectancy theory in this study, pay satisfaction was congruently explained by the Vroom (1964) expectancy theory.

Measurement of pay satisfaction. Reviewed studies evidenced that pay satisfaction can be measured by both, measures of job satisfaction and also using a pay satisfaction scale. However, this study focused on scales measuring pay satisfaction.

Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ) developed by Heneman and Schwab (1985). Initially this scale was five dimensional scale of: 1) pay level, 2) pay raises, 3) benefits, 4) structure, and 5) administration. Later, through factor analysis, the validity of the level, raises, and benefits dimensions was supported and the structure and administration dimensions were combined; making it four dimensional scale.

In 1979, Heneman and Schwab conceptualized pay along dimensions of 1) *level* – referring to the individual's current direct compensation (wage, salary), 2) *benefits* – reflecting the indirect pay to the individual in form of payment for time not worked, insurance, pensions, income maintenance and miscellaneous services, 3) *raises* – referring to the individual changes in pay level, 4) *structure* – the hierarchical relationships created among pay rates for different jobs within the organization. It is said that with different organizations are separate policies and practices that apply to each dimension of pay satisfaction. What is received in total compensation varies across the four dimensions identified. It is asserted that reliance on a single measure of overall pay satisfaction may

provide limited information about the causes of pay dissatisfaction, and may hide potential problems (Judge, 1993; Mulvey, Miceli, & Near, 2001).

In 1990, Neumann and Finaly-Neumann modified the five item Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire developed by Heneman and Schwab (1985) to a 3 items questionnaire. The rationale for such a modification could not be found by the author. However reliability and validity of this three item scale in Neumann and Finaly-Neumann's study was reported as good (Makorwitz, 2012).

Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ) by Markowitz (2012). This construct is a faculty's self-reported three items questionnaire and was recommended by Heneman and Schwab (1985) three factor analysis; with components covering: 1) *pay level* (external competitiveness) 2) *pay structure* (internal consistency) and 3) *individual pay* (employee compensation) . Scores range from 3-15, with a range of 1(strongly disagree) to 5(strongly agree). In Markowitz (2012) study the pay satisfaction scale produced a high Cronbach's alpha of .86, indicating a good internal reliability.

The PSQ by Makorwitz (2012) was adopted for this study. It was evaluated as fitting the faculty members' population and setting by face; with good and acceptable reliability.

Relationship between pay satisfaction and intent to stay. Researchers used several concepts that are similar to pay satisfaction in the reviewed studies. Constructs that had been used are not the same. However, there had been no much variation in the findings and conclusions made from the studies.

Using a large sample of 60,000 university faculty members from 303 colleges and Universities, Pfeffer and Langton (1993) explored the effects of wage inequality on satisfaction. The results suggested that one's position in the salary structure, the availability of information about wage inequality, and legitimate bases of reward allocation all affected the extent to which wage dispersion produced adverse effects. In addition, Garbee and Killacky (2008) asserted that low salary influenced nurse faculty dissatisfaction in some groups of nursing faculty members but not others. These findings

linked the perception of pay/salary/benefits to satisfaction and demonstrated a need to explore salary structures in pay satisfaction studies.

In a study done by Markowitz (2012), pay satisfaction moderately and positively correlated to intent to stay ($r = 0.40$; $p < .001$). The findings revealed that when faculty members perceived and believed that their pay was equitable and fair, they were likely to remain employed with the organization. Administrator's rating of pay against performance influenced their perception of both pay and the boss and thus affecting their intent to stay decisions (Makorwitz, 2012).

Al-Omari et al. (2008) cited fair rewards as the employee's perception of fairness in the amounts of compensation they receive. Distributive justice had a positive indirect effect on intent to stay. Similarly, in a study done by Daly and Dee (2006), distributive justice moderately and positively correlated to intent to stay ($r = .330$; $p < 0.01$). It is said that if reward outcomes appear unjust, then faculty intent to stay is likely to decline (Al-Omari et al., 2008; Daly & Dee, 2006).

Satisfaction with pay/salary had been explored in relation to turnover and intention to leave too and consequently related to intent to stay. Pay produced a highly significant ($p<. 0005$) meta-analysis, with 29 of 32 data sets and indicated that it was negatively related to turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Similarly, dissatisfaction with compensation was found as having a significant relationship to departure intentions (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004) among faculty members from various disciplines. Poor salary was one of the reasons for pharmacy and medical faculty intent to leave their institutions in the US. (Conklin & Desselle, 2007; Cropsey et al., 2008). Consistently, higher salaries demonstrated higher average intent to stay scores among faculty members (Garbee & Killacky, 2008; Joarder & Sharif, 2011; Loquias & Sana, 2012; Noor, 2011; Padilla-González et al., 2012).

Pay satisfaction had been studied along with other variables that also demonstrated a relationship to intent to stay. Malik, Nawab, Naeem and Danish (2010) indicated that pay satisfaction had significant positive influence on organizational commitment of faculty members. Conversely, Al-Hussami et al. (2011) observed that pay had significantly higher correlation ($r = 0.62$) with perceived support rather than organization

commitment (r = 0.42). Contrary, Markowitz (2012) found pay as significantly moderately and positively correlating to both faculty-administrator relationship (r = 0.30; p<.001) and organizational commitment (r = 0.36; p<.001), indicating that both these variables are on the same level of relationship with pay satisfaction, and all incorporated as independent variables in this study.

In conclusion, pay satisfaction was studied as wage equality, distributive justice as well as compensation and yet findings demonstrated a common understanding. However, most of these studies were done in developed countries like the US where academic faculty members' salary is between $70,410 -$81,552 (Gyurko & Nardi, 2013). Moreover, all these studies were done in different locations that have different social economical contexts, mostly in developed countries where pay is better than Malawi; and a few targeted nursing faculty members.

Job Opportunity

This factor was studied as another independent variable in this study because it was included in most of the models reviewed in this study. Its conceptualization was thus explored as follows:-

Definitions of job opportunity. Iverson and Roy (1994) described environmental opportunity as the number and quality of unoccupied roles in an organization's environment. This definition seemed to be quantifying job opportunity unlike that adopted by Al-Omari et al. (2008) and Daly and Dee (2006) which looked at individuals' perception of the availability of an opportunity in the external environment.

Likewise, job opportunity was defined by Price and Mueller (1981) as the availability of alternative jobs in the organization's environment. This definition was later adopted by Al-Omari et al. (2008) and operational in this study. Job opportunity in this study therefore referred to the nursing faculty member's perception of the availability of alternative jobs in the college's environment.

Theory related to job opportunity. Job opportunity as an environmental variable was best described by one of the assumptions of expectancy theory and adopted for this study.

Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory. Lunenburg (2011) stated that theoretical explanation for job opportunity is based on the assumption that people will choose among alternatives so as to optimize outcomes for them personally. Whenever individuals perceive the external to be better than their internal environment in terms of their expectations; disregarding pay and others, they are unlikely to remain in the organization.

Measurement of job opportunity. There were several scales that were reviewed as measurements of job opportunity. The scales were assessed and analyzed for reliability and validity too.

Environmental opportunity scale by Price and Mueller (1981). This construct was adopted by Iverson and Roy (1994). It was a 4 item-scale that measured employees' perception to environmental job opportunity on a 5 point Likert scale. A sample item provided in this study was in question format: "How easy would it be for you to find any job with another employer in the region?" The scale produced a reliability of .84 in Iverson and Roy (1994) study. Details of its validity were not available.

Job alternatives scale developed by Peters, Jackofsky and Salter in 1981. This scale was used to measure perceived job alternatives in a study done by Paillé and Dufour (2013). The three-item scale had items measured on a 7-point Likert scale from (7 = strongly agree) to (1 = strongly disagree). The reliability was good (α = .72) in this study by Paillé and Dufour (2013).

Job Opportunity Scale by Al-Omari et.al (2008). This scale was adopted from Environmental Opportunity Scale by Price and Mueller (1981) and modified by Al-Omari et al. (2008) to fit the faculty members' population. It was a 6 item-scale measured on a five point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). It measured faculty members' perception of their alternative job opportunity. The total sum of score ranged from 6-30. Items were in statement form with the third and fourth items reverse scored. The Alpha for reliability was .77 and .78 in Daly and Dee (2006) and Al-Omari et al. (2008) studies respectively and indicated an acceptable level. Content validity by 10 experts in the field of education in Hashemite University was reported as good in Al-Omari et al. study.

This study utilized the Job Opportunity Scale by Al-Omari et al. (2008) as it was noted to be reliable (alpha above .70) and fitting the faculty members' population. Also the structuring of the items (statements rather than questions) matched with the other scales that were used in this study. Validity was also proven.

Relationship between job opportunity and intent to stay. Scholars had used the terms job opportunity, job alternatives, environmental opportunity and labour market as environmental variables in such studies among faculty members. As an environmental variable, job opportunity has both direct (.11) and indirect (.04) effects on turnover cognitions (Lunenburg, 2011). Studies revealed both significant and insignificant findings.

A study done by Iverson and Roy (1994) rank ordered job opportunity as sixth among the fourteen variables examined in terms of importance for their total causal effects on the decision process of employees to stay or leave an organization. This study was done among 246 blue-collar employees in Australia, so as to test an integrated causal model of intent to stay. Findings demonstrated that job opportunity had a weak negative correlation with intent to stay ($r = -.29$; $p < 0.05$), and a weak positive correlation with job search then intent to leave. When blue-collar employees perceived an existence of a number of job opportunities, they were more likely to leave than stay in the organization. The model of Price and Mueller (1981) revealed a weak negative relationship as well ($r = -.169$).

Daly and Dee (2006) also explored intent to stay in relation to the faculty members' external environment among 1500 faculty members from Urban public Universities in the US. They found job opportunity as weakly and negatively correlating to intent to stay ($r = -.136$; $p < 0.01$). In a similar study, Al-Omari et al. (2008) also found a weak negative relationship ($r = -.105$; $p < 0.05$) between job opportunity and intent to stay among 150 faculty members from Jordanian Universities.

Contrary, Paillé and Dufour (2013) conducted a study on a randomly selected sample of 1,000 registered occupational therapists from the college of occupational therapists of Quebec. Results revealed that when faculty members felt that the employer had failed to fulfill their obligations, in proportion to the contributions made by them,

willingness to leave than stay with the employer increased. In this study perceived job alternatives was moderately and positively related to intention to leave ($r = .40$; $p < .01$) thus negatively related to intent to stay with the organization.

However, Zhou and Volkwein (2004) expected but did not find that labour market variables affect faculty intent to leave. The sample comprised 28,704 faculty and instructional staff from 960 degree-granting colleges and universities. The study aimed at examining the internal and external factors influencing intent to stay and leave decisions for tenured versus non-tenured full-time faculty members at research and doctoral institutions across an array of disciplines. The study found insignificant results. It was indicated that outside the institution, research opportunities, teaching opportunities, and family considerations had no significant effects. The pull of the external job market also had little significant influence.

From the reviewed studies, none reflected nursing faculty members. Inconsistent findings were also reported. Sample characteristics, sizes and geographical locations differed in these studies; faculty roles, obligations and expectations were also not the same across countries and institutions, likely to be different in Malawi as well.

Situation Related to Shortage of Nursing Faculty Members in Malawi

Malawi stands among the lowest levels of tertiary education in the world. Its current tertiary institution participation rate is at 0.4 % of the eligible population, against an average for sub-Saharan Africa of 5%, developing countries of 17% and world average figures of 24% (UNIMA, 2012). Nurse training institutions and faculty members in Malawi are challenged by an exaggerated nurse shortage that is at a much bigger scale incomparable to what is seen in most developed nations today (U.S. Global Health Initiative, 2010; Wheatley, 2010).

CHAM colleges and hospitals are Faith Based Organizations (FBOs) that offer education and clinical services to mainly rural citizens of Malawi, with a subvention from Ministry of Health (MoH) and their respective proprietors. Ninety percent (90%) of the CHAM colleges are located in the rural areas of Malawi (Christian Health Association of Malawi [CHAM], 2008), where housing, transportation and education for children are generally not favorable (U.S. Global Health Initiative, 2010). MCHS is a statutory cooperation that not only trains nurses but also paraprofessionals (technicians in medicine, environmental health, biomedical, radiography, dental, ophthalmology and pharmacy), with a subvention from Malawi Government too. Unlike CHAM colleges, MCHS campuses are situated in the well known cities of Malawi namely - Lilongwe, Blantyre and Zomba, where transportation, housing and school for children may be favorable, but costly. Both CHAM nursing colleges and MCHS train Nurse-Midwife Technicians (NMTs) in a three years diploma program, with about 40-60 NMTs graduating from each college each year (NMCM, 2013).

By 2013, there were 195 nursing faculty members within the thirteen nursing training institutions under study. Some of these nursing faculty members were employed by government, while others were employed by the colleges. Minimum entry requirement for a post of faculty member is registered nurse diploma, in both MCHS and CHAM colleges. Nursing faculty members' responsibilities in these colleges mainly include classroom and clinical teaching. As reported by the Principal of Nkhoma Nursing College and the former Campus Administrative Officer at MCHS, nursing faculty members are challenged by workload because of the increased numbers of students admitted each year. In some of these colleges, the departments schedule evening and weekend classes as well

so as to meet both time and demand for faculty members. There are limited critical cases for students to learn from in most of CHAM hospitals, making it necessary for colleges to attach students into distant government hospitals for practical experiences. This means that faculty member that goes for clinical supervision of these students often leave the respective college for a minimum period of two weeks, exposing the other faculty members to more workload (Martinez et al., 2009).

Since 2003, the Government of Malawi, under the MoH, deploys all post basic bachelors' degree graduates from UNIMA, disregarding their major (bachelor of science in nursing education, management and community), into CHAM nursing colleges and MCHS (commonly known as government-seconded lecturers); so as to meet the demand for nursing faculty members, under the Sector Wide Approach (SWAp) human resource scale-up project (World Health Organization [WHO], 2013). These faculty members get their salaries from government. Movement through their career ladder is by government recommendation after two to five years of work experience on same post, good performance at an oral interview, or upon achieving a higher qualification. In addition, the training institutions work so hard to attract and retain faculty members for instance, by providing further training through government scholarships. However, this opportunity is quite competitive and not all faculty members may benefit. Newly recruited nursing faculty members are sent for an induction course offered by the regulatory body (NMCM) but coordinated by colleges themselves (CHAM, 2008; Malawi College of Health Sciences [MCHS], 2012). Despite all this, the institutions continue to be challenged by repeated nursing faculty members' turnover (Wheatley, 2010) and budget constraints, from repeated recruitment (CHAM, 2008; MCHS, 2012).

Disregarding region, 30% (N=84) of academicians at MCHS left their job from 2007 to 2011. Seventy percent of this turnover was nursing faculty members. The trend increased from one to five every year, and is likely to increase in the next two years (MCHS -Staff Establishment Raw data, 2012-2013). Other CHAM nursing training colleges also reported shortages of nursing faculty members. St. Johns Nursing College in the northern region for instance, had twelve nursing faculty members against 111 students by 2010 (Wheatley, 2010). By April 2013, the Vice Principal of this same college reported that four more nursing faculty members had left the college and the student

population increased from 111 to 156, giving a nursing faculty-student ratio of 1:19; higher than the standard clinical learning ratio of 1:10 (NMCM, 2013). Likewise, the Principal for Nkhoma Nursing College in the central region reported a nursing faculty members' population of 17 against 160 student population. He further reported that in the past five years, 24% of the nursing faculty members left the college and 10% were likely to leave. In all the colleges, numbers of nursing faculty members have not kept pace with the increase in student numbers and thus, affecting the quality of NMT education and consequently, the numbers of nurses and quality of nursing care. A reduction in NMT pass rate had been reported from 64% in 2008-2009 to 49% in 2009 - 2010 academic years, and was attributed to imperfections in the teaching job (Martinez et al., 2009; NMCM, 2012). When this faculty shortage is combined with inadequate supply of new nurses prepared to teach in these colleges each year, the shortage is likely to escalate.

Through personal communications and social media interviews with faculty members that had left these colleges, issues of pay and job opportunities came up. Higher compensation in clinical and private sector settings is luring current and potential nursing faculty members away from teaching. Some of these nursing faculty members leave CHAM colleges and MCHS to go back to bed side nursing in government hospitals, for recognition then promotion purposes. Other nursing faculty members join NGOs for higher compensation. On the other hand, nursing faculty members that prefer working in hospital have reported that the setting is more rewarding from workshops, locums and overtime pay. There is quicker career advancement and promotional opportunities, as well as more opportunities to travel abroad for specialty, fellowships and short courses. The guidelines for public service administration has equally indicated that promotion and a climb through the career ladder for these faculty members is mainly upon acquisition of higher qualifications, with minimal annual salary increments, resulting in faculty members' salaries progressing over time (Division for Public Administration and Development Management [DPADM]/ Department of Economic and Social Affairs [DESA]/United Nations [UN], 2004).

The relationship between faculty members and administrators in these colleges lies within the hierarchical structures and centralized type of governance. Different institutions have different missions, goals and purposes governed by their proprietor's/governing

body's broader mission; accounting for the differences in institutional types and the differing role expectations for their leaders, decision-making processes, hierarchies of power and academic cultures. The college structures vary with institutions despite all being hierarchical. In MCHS, executive director (ED) is the top most position followed by the registrars (administrative and academic) and the finance officer (FO) post at central office. The college's three campuses are headed by the campus directors (CDs) followed by the campus administrative officers (CAOs), deans of faculties (DoFs) and dean of students (DoS). Heads of departments (HoDs) report to the deans and directly supervise the lecturers. Although their evaluation of performance does not directly influence pay, it affects an individual faculty member's movement through the career ladder, for instance recommendations for scholarships and attainment of higher positions. Communication is through the direct line (immediate supervisor) and rarely through the dotted line. It is the central office that makes the overall final decision through the campus directors. Academic meetings are scheduled for once a month at departmental and campus levels, chaired by the HoD and CD, respectively. All faculty members are obliged to attend these meetings unless otherwise stated. Across campuses, meetings are conducted quarterly, chaired by the academic registrar with only HoDs and deans in attendance (MCHS, 2012).

CHAM colleges are governed by their proprietors with the CHAM secretariat as the central office. CHAM coordinates the operations but does not control the differences in faith that accounts for differences in mission statements bounded by the various proprietors. College principals head the colleges followed by academic and student deans. Because of their small structure, most CHAM colleges do not work as departments. Rather, they have course coordinators that report to the academic dean. Meetings are designed for monthly basis with all faculty members in attendance, chaired by the college principal or the vice principal. Most of the technical operations are coordinated by the academic dean in this structure making dotted line type of communication possible at times. Like at MCHS, pay raises in CHAM is through both merit (mainly upon attainment of higher qualification) and seniority (experience). Job evaluations and religious cultural obligation in CHAM colleges determine promotions to higher ranks (CHAM, 2008).Generally, supervision and management in these institutions rely on the formal employment contract (mainly guarded by working conditions), while leadership relies on

the interaction that takes place between an immediate superior and an individual faculty member (CHAM, 2008; MCHS, 2012). In such situations the immediate administrator must seek ways of motivating and influencing positive behaviors in faculty members.

Conceptual Framework

This study was based on the conceptual model for intent to stay by Markowitz (2012), as well as literature review. Factors relating to intent to stay included 1) organizational commitment, 2) pay satisfaction, 3) faculty-administrator relationship, and 4) job opportunity. From literature review, when faculty members' commitment to the college is strong, there is acceptance of goals and values of the college and a desire to remain a member of the college. Moreover, when they perceive that their pay is fair and equitable, faculty members are likely to remain employed with the college. In addition, when they perceive a higher quality faculty-administrator relationship, faculty members are likely to remain employed with the college. However, when the college fails to meet their expectations and they perceive alternative jobs within the college's environment to be better, faculty members are unlikely to stay. In this study, the relationships between intent to stay and related factors were explored.