

Relationship between Servant Leadership and Turnover  
Intentions among Academic Staff in Northern Ethiopian  
Public Universities Using Affective Commitment as a  
Mediator

A Dissertation Submitted to the School of Psychology in Partial  
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of  
Philosophy in Social Psychology

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Northern Ethiopian Public Universities Using Affective Commitment as a Mediator

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## Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation titled “Relationship between Servant Leadership and Turnover Intentions among Academic Staff in Northern Ethiopian Public Universities: Using Affective Commitment as a Mediator”, which is submitted to the School of Psychology, Addis Ababa University, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for Doctoral Degree in Social Psychology, is my original work in design and execution and it has not been previously submitted or published by anybody for a degree at this or any other University. Furthermore, all the sources in the dissertation have been duly acknowledged.

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## **Abbreviations**

AC: Affective Commitment

HEIs: Higher Education Institutions

MoE: Ministry of Education

MoSHE: Ministry of Science and Higher Education

PUs: Public Universities

OLA: Organizational Leadership Assessment

SL: Servant Leadership

TI: Turnover Intention

## **Abstract**

*The main objective of the study was to examine the extent and relationship between servant leadership and turnover intention among faculty in northern Ethiopian public universities. Besides, the study investigated the mediating role of affective commitment in the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intention. By design, this study is both descriptive and correlational. A sample of 153 faculty members from three northern Ethiopian public universities was used as a data source. Moreover, to consolidate the evidences, additional data were collected from nine former faculty members of the sampled universities. A stratified random sampling method was employed to select both the sample universities and the participants. Moreover, a snowball sampling technique was employed to select participants for the interview. Three standardized scales were adapted and employed. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data. Findings of the descriptive analysis revealed that the levels of servant leadership, affective commitment, and turnover intentions were found to be low, moderate, and above average, respectively. The results of the multiple regression analysis revealed that sociodemographic characteristics did not significantly predict turnover intentions, but servant leadership and affective commitment did. Furthermore, the examination of the mediation analysis shows that affective commitment partially mediates the relationship between servant leadership and the intention to leave the organization. The Implications of the findings for research and practice were discussed.*

**Keywords:** servant leadership, affective commitment, turnover intention

## **Chapter One: Introduction**

### **1.1 Background of the Study**

The power over people paradigm dominated earlier understandings of leadership (Farnsworth, 2007). It was essentially assumed that exercising authority and power over the followers was more important than fostering and maintaining strong relationships between the leaders and followers. Thus, power and authority played significant roles in the earliest leadership discourses (Timiyo, 2016). The application of such concepts and practices has been prevalent in societal settings for ages (McDougle, 2009). However, they are no longer appropriate (Bray, 1994) and are not adequate for motivating today's people to follow. This is because both internal and external contexts require modification of conventional concepts of leadership and followership (Küpers, 2007).

There is, therefore, a call for new leadership thinking and vision for organizations Laub (1999). Particularly in the 21st century, it is important to pay attention to morally superior, ethical, and people-centered leadership practices (Azadfada, Besmi, & Doroudian, 2014). Thus, Eddy and VanDerLinden (2006) states that the old discourses of the "hero" leader have been substituted by modern leadership methods including transformational, transactional, team, and servant leadership.

Considering this in the context of higher education institutions, Timiyo (2016) argues that there is a demand for HEIs to seek alternative leadership approaches, particularly those that promote harmonious relationships and service. Literatures suggest that alternative leadership styles are replacing the traditionally held understanding and practices of leadership, providing new, different, and possibly superior ways to understand it (Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006). On

this point, though there is no single way to lead and no single recognizable leadership theory can be traced to HEIs (Dean, 2014), people may prefer some leadership styles to others, and it is argued that they respond to leadership that places them and their well-being first (Laub et al., 2018).

In this case, several scholars, such as Farnsworth (2007), Hannigan (2008), McDougle (2009), Wheeler (2012), and Powell and Clark (2012), advocate servant leadership (SL) approach for HEIs. They contended that this is one of the most appropriate modern leadership approaches to HEIs. The SL theory is mainly based on the idea that leadership is first and foremost an act of service (Farnsworth, 2007), not a position (Masi & Cooke, 2000). Service, in this model, is conceptualized as an attempt to build an atmosphere of respect and growth, and to meet the needs of coworkers and others (Wheeler, 2012).

The SL approach is specifically recommended for HEIs for various reasons. Its strong human orientation, its promise for engaging and developing the staff ((Dierendonck, 2011), its compatibility with other theories and its sensitivity to job security, staff's emotions and differing views (Zelege, 2014) and because of its all-encompassing and forward-thinking nature, which provides novel ways to benefit from the expertise and experience of all employees, not just those "at the top" (McGee-Cooper & Trammel, 1999) are just a few examples that rationalize its relevance in HEIs .Thus, promoting the qualities of SL is imperative (Moll & Kretschmar, 2017; Timiyo, 2016; Wheeler, 2012).

Justifying the relevance of SL to the specific context of Ethiopian HEIs, Zelege (2014) denoted that “adopting a leadership style founded on these characteristics in Ethiopian higher education means saving several academic and administrative staff who may be adversely

affected, among other things, by incompetence, corruption, unfairness, undemocratic, and abusive leadership.” (p141). Similarly, Fentahun (2018) highlighted that to have conducive working environment that give due care for their staff, Ethiopian HEIs need to behave as servants for their constituents and apply this leadership approach. Moreover, the SL approach is also consistent with the guiding values and objectives of Ethiopian HEIs such as providing quality and speedy service delivery; promoting democratic participatory governance and fairness, and a culture of fighting corruption (Proclamation, 2019).

Examining the existence and level of practice of SL approach has therefore, paramount importance in identifying the organization’s leadership gaps and strengths. In this case, Jacobsen and Bøgh Andersen (2015) stated that employee-perceived leadership is likely to have a stronger relationship with organizational performance than leader-intended leadership. Thus, leadership practice is typically measured by asking employees, leaders, and/or other actors about their perceptions. It is particularly helpful to know how the staff perceives its level of practice, within their respective institutions (McDougle, 2009). However, only limited SL studies were conducted from the employees' perspective (Hebert, 2003).

In addition to investigating the level of SL, it is also helpful to know the extent to which it is related to other organizational constructs (Rubino, 2012). This study has, therefore, selected two variables, affective organizational commitment and turnover intention, to scrutinize if they are related to the level of SL.

These variables were selected for various reasons. For one thing, it is because they are among the prevailing major problems in the context of the study area (Mulatu, 2019). On the other hand, it is because the quality (Arega, 2016), long-term survival and effectiveness of

educational organizations largely depend on the commitment (Tekile & Solomon, 2016) and retention of the faculty members (MoE, 2015). Furthermore, these variables— affective commitment, turnover intention, and leadership practices—were selected because previous studies suggest that they are directly or indirectly related to each other (Belete, 2018).

Furthermore, Laub (1999) denoted that the qualities of servant leadership have to be manifested throughout an organization, both at the individual and organizational levels. In this study, the organizational leadership practice of selected northern Ethiopian public universities (PUs) would be measured through the perception of their faculty, at an organizational level.

Taking all the above points into consideration, this study aimed to examine if the servant leadership practice is significantly related to turnover intention. Besides, it examined if affective commitment mediates the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intention in the context of the academic staff in northern Ethiopian public universities.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Higher educational institutions (HEIs) are expected to be a repository of the most specialized and skilled intellectuals and serve as storehouses of knowledge (Nwadiani & Akpotu, 2002). This major mission places faculty at the center academic and research activities (Binyam & Getahun, 2020). Therefore, HEIs should not only attract (Selesho & Naile, 2014) but also retain academic staff who are suitably qualified and committed (Aboramadan, Dahleez, & Hamad, 2020) by fostering a suitable working environment (Ng'ethe, Iravo, & Namusonge, 2012).

In this regard, though higher education in Ethiopia has been characterized by rapid expansion in the development of infrastructure, particularly in the last two decades (Tirussew et

al., 2018), however the efforts to expand HEIs are characterized by significant challenges (Bishaw & Melesse, 2017). For instance, they are characterized by an widespread faculty turnover (Binyam & Getahun, 2020) and accused of their indispensable leadership and governance concerns (Anteneh, 2016).

The academic leadership in many Ethiopian HEIs, at its various levels, is usually suspected of practices that primarily benefit themselves (Mulleta, Kebede, Donis, & Tessema, 2019) and of competing for political patronage (Mulatu, 2019), and they focus on processes and outcomes instead of on people and on the future (Zelege, 2014). In this case, Welch (2001) underscored that "leadership is 75 percent about people, and 25 percent is about everything else. However, Zelege (2014) discovered that the inability to work effectively with people is one of the most pervasive weaknesses among the leadership of Ethiopian HEIs. Besides, an empirical study conducted by MoE entitled 'Ethiopian Education Development Roadmap' (MoE, 2017) has also found that undemocratic leadership practice is one of the major challenges in Ethiopian HEIs (MoE, 2017).

Moreover, experiences and various reports suggest that Ethiopian HEIs are characterized by a widespread faculty turnover, and they are in a difficult situation to retain their qualified staff (Binyam & Getahun, 2020). This circumstance has also been confirmed by some empirical studies. For instance, recent studies by Yimer, Nega, and Ganfure (2017) and Teklemariam and Wubye (2019) found that three-fourth of the faculty of Madda Walabu and Mettu Universities intend to leave their institutions, respectively. Correspondingly, a recent study by Kalayu, Meaza, and Abebe (2020) has also found that numerous faculty members at Debrebrihan University usually think of leaving their organization soon. According to Debrebrihan University's report, a total of one hundred ninety (190) faculty have already left the

university in the years from 2018 to 2021. In this respect, the case might not be different for most of the other universities in the country (Binyam & Getahun, 2020).

It was casual observations of the departure of the experienced staff and their replacement by inexperienced ones, coupled with hearing of the complaints about the leadership practices of the universities at which he knows that triggered this study.

In this case, though literature in the area indicates that turnover intention (TI) can be affected by leadership practices, and Ethiopian HEIs are characterized by high faculty turnover and criticized for their non-collegial leadership practices (Gedifew & Bitew, 2017), local studies that scrutinize their possible relationship are scanty. A brief review of the area has revealed that only two studies, by Tesfaye (2004) and Chala (2016), have been conducted specifically on the relationship between leadership practice and staff turnover. Of course, other local studies dealt with separately issues such as the relationship between leadership and organizational commitment (Araya, 2019; Mekonnen, 2014), the relationship between turnover intention and organizational commitment (Araya, 2019; Temesgen, 2014) and Mekonnen (2014), the influence of leadership style on job satisfaction (Kebede & Demeke, 2017), the prevalence of faculty turnover intention (Binyam & Getahun, 2020; Yimer, Nega, & Ganfure, 2017), the pattern, intent, and causes of employees' turnover (Kalayu, Meaza, & Abebe, 2020), and the perceived governance practices (Mulatu, 2019).

However, despite making significant contributions, even though servant leadership seems to have great relevance for higher education institutions in general and Ethiopian HEIs in particular, the concept has not yet been extensively explored within the sector (Amey, 2006; Crippen, 2004; Timiyo, 2016). And only limited empirical studies have examined the leadership

practices of Ethiopian HEIs from this perspective in particular (Lobago & Abraham, 2016). As to the review of the current investigator, only limited articles, by Alemayehu (2021), Fentahun (2018), Zeleke (2014) were published, in the specified setting.

Furthermore, various studies have suggested that the relationship between leadership and turnover intention could be mediated by variables such as affective commitment (Razzaq & Ramsha Khalid, 2019). However, most studies focus on the direct relationship between leadership (a predictor variable) and outcome variables (turnover intentions). But such studies can bias the results. This is because results that are caused by another third variable could be considered as if they were caused by the predictor variable. In this respect, the roles of factors such as AC in the relationship between leadership and TI are not adequately examined in the context of the study area. As to the review of the current researcher, no local study, except Chala's (2016) work, has brought these variables together and examined the role of organizational commitment in the relationship between leadership and TI on, which was of course conducted in the context of hospitals.

Bearing all the above points into consideration, this study is designed to examine the levels and the relationship among servant leadership, affective commitment and turnover intention. Besides, it examines the role of affective commitment in the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intention among faculty in Northern Ethiopian public universities.

Specifically, this study attempts to address the following research questions:

1. What are the levels of servant leadership, affective commitment, and turnover intention among faculty in the northern Ethiopian public universities?

2. Do servant leadership and affective commitment significantly predict turnover intentions among academic staff in northern Ethiopian public universities?
3. Do the levels of servant leadership, affective commitment, and turnover intentions differ by sociodemographic factors (sex, age, experience, and educational status)?
4. Do sociodemographic variables (sex, age, experience, and academic position) significantly predict servant leadership, affective commitment, and turnover intention?
5. Does affective commitment significantly mediate the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intention?

### **1.3 Objective of the Study**

The main objective of this study was to determine the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intention among faculty at northern Ethiopian public universities. Besides, the study examined the mediating role of affective commitment in the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intention.

### **1.4 Operational Definitions**

The following are the most important concepts to be defined in this research

**Servant Leadership:** For the purposes of this research, servant leadership was defined as an authentic organizational leadership practice that values and supports faculty development, places a strong emphasis on providing and sharing leadership, and fosters the development of an academic community for the benefit of the academic community as a whole, the entire university, and the people it serves. The level of faculty perceived SL was measured through Organizational Leadership Assessment scale, a tool developed by Laub (1999), was used to

measure the level of perceived SL. The scale has sixty items and the responses were given on a five-point Likert-type scale on which 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree. The OLAs has a good reliability ( $\alpha=0.98$ ).

**Affective Commitment:** For the purposes of this study, affective commitment was defined as the strength of a faculty member's emotional bond to their university, taking into account their attitudes toward organizational goal accomplishment as well as their willingness and desire to do so. Sample items include "I am very happy being a member of this university". The scale has a good level of internal consistency ( $\alpha =.85$ ).

**Turnover intention:** in the current study, turnover intention refers to the degree of faculty's intention to voluntarily leave the university at which they are currently working. A 5-item measure which was originally developed by Harrington, Bean, Pintello, and Mathews (2001) was employed to assess the TI of participants. The responses were given on a five-point Likert-type scale on which 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree. The mean response to the five statements was used as a measure of the intention to leave. Higher scores indicated a higher level of TI. Scores of the five items were averaged to provide a single score of TI. Several studies have used these statements to examine whether employees are likely to leave their organization, and the results of earlier studies have supported the high reliability and validity of these statements as a proxy for TI (Harrington et al., 2001). The statements were modified by replacing the original term "this company" with "this university." A sample item is "I am very interested in job announcements or job opportunities outside of this university."

### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

It is hoped that the results of this study will be important from a theoretical and practical standpoint. They might increase understanding and comprehension of the function of affective commitment in the relationship between turnover intent and servant leadership. More importantly, the findings of this study may broaden the frontiers of knowledge to the body of literature on affective organizational commitment, turnover intention, and servant leadership practices within the context of the studied area.

The findings of this study may also be useful to academic leadership who wish to gain insight into the level of servant leadership practice at their universities to foster more productive work environments within organizational settings and reduce the turnover of the faculty members. Furthermore, the study's findings can pave the way for further investigation in a similar or related field of study.

### **1.6 Scope of the Study**

For its manageability, this study is delimited in terms of the research setting, variables of interest, and research participants. In terms of setting, it is delimited to northern Ethiopian public universities that are currently operating under the supervision of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education (MoSHE). Therefore, universities under private ownership are not covered by the study. In terms of variables, this study is delimited to examine the degree and relationship among servant leadership, affective commitment and turnover intention.

In terms of research participants, it is delimited to full-time faculty members of the public universities, excluding expatriates and part-timers. These groups, expatriates and part-timers,

have been excluded because it's possible that they are not concerned about some of the study's factors.

After saying so much about the introduction of the dissertation, the review of related literature on the research variable is presented in the paper's next portion of the dissertation.

## **Chapter Two Review of Literature**

This part of the dissertation reviews both theoretical and empirical literature on the key variables of the study: servant leadership, affective organizational commitment, and turnover intention. The research outcomes of various studies related to these issues were organized and critically reviewed. Then, based on the critical review and discussions of the findings of the literature reviewed, a conceptual framework that shows the hypothesized relationships among the variables is developed.

### **2.1 The Concept of Leadership**

Though it has always existed in human connections, the phenomenon of leadership is one of the most noticed and least understood (Burns, 1991). It is much like the words peace, democracy, and, love. Despite the fact that we all intuitively recognize what we mean by these words, various people may interpret them differently. In other words, even though we all automatically understand what the words signify, they may have different meanings for other individuals (Northouse, 2016). In this case, Burns (1991) remarks that leadership is one of the most commonly familiar and least understood things on the world.

In addition to understanding how the concept works, there's also a problem with its definition (King, 1990). Scholars and practitioners have attempted to define leadership for more than a century, but they remain without universal consensus (Northouse, 2016). For instance, Bass and Stogdill (1990) identified more than 3,000 empirical investigations of leadership that provided varied conceptions of leadership. Similarly, Rost (1991) discovered 221 various definitions of leadership. His study offers a brief summary of different definitions of leadership throughout the previous century. In this case Northouse (2016) denoted that here are

also more confusions and debates about what leadership is than ever before and there is greater misunderstanding and disagreement than ever before about what leadership entails.

However, there has been a major advancement in our understanding of it (Fairholm, 2002). After years of debate, leadership scholars may have finally come to the understanding that there is no single definition of leadership. A growing worldwide influence and generational differences are only two examples of the factors that will contribute to leadership continuing to mean different things to different people. The reality is that leadership is a complex term with a definition that may vary over time (Northouse 2016).

When it comes to explaining the large number of definitions we have, the differences in the concept of leadership stem from how it is perceived. In the past, leadership was mostly based on controlling people (Farnsworth, 2007). It was essentially perceived as a leader exerting his or her control over the following (Timiyo, 2016). Based on this idea, leadership was described as a person's power to affect others' behavior in order to achieve specific targets (Ciulla, 2003). To put it another way, leadership was defined as “the process whereby one or more individuals succeed in attempting to frame and define the reality of others” (Smircich & Morgan, 1982, p. 258). Organizations were similarly built on the premise that the leader is in charge of subordinates and that the organization's success depends on that leader's ability to exert control over followers (Daft, 2008).

These concepts and methods have been applied in organizational contexts for generations (McDougle, 2009); however, they are no longer significant (Bray, 1994) or sufficient to compel contemporary people to obey (Page & Wong, 2000). This is due to the fact that traditional notions of leadership and followership need to be revised in internal as well as external situations

(Küpers, 2007; Quinn, 2004). Specific factors, such as the excesses of leadership's obsession with self-interest and lust for power (Windy& Dugan, 1997), leadership scandals and failures (Amsale, Bekele, & Tafesse, 2016) and the subsequent erosion of confidence in such approaches (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012), combined with the growing awareness of social and ethical issues, have exposed the inadequacy of traditional leadership approaches, and they are contributing to the existing feeling of discomfort and the quest for another kind of leadership (Quinn, 2004). In a nutshell, leadership is becoming increasingly multi-faceted and more complex (Gandolfi & Stone, 2018), especially with generational differences, bringing new demands and challenges (Lynn, 2022).

As result, researchers have lost interest in the idea of investigating leadership with the leader as their primary focus (Timiyo, 2016). Instead, leadership is increasingly being associated with teamwork, service, and stewardship rather than the remaining system of controls (Satope, Akintunde, & Olopade, 2014). As Laub (1999) clearly stated, there is also a demand for new leadership thinking and vision of organizations. Especially in the 21st century, it is necessary to attend to ethical (Ajobiwe, 2017; Reed, Vidaver-Cohen, & Colwell, 2011) and people-centered leadership approaches (Azadfada et al., 2014). Modern leadership approaches such as transformational, team, transactional, and servant leadership have, then, replaced the traditional discussions of the "hero" leader (Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006).

Considering this in the specific context of HEIs, literature in the area suggests that alternative leadership approaches are replacing the traditionally held understanding and practices of leadership and providing new, different, and possibly superior ways to understand leadership (Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006). This requires reconsidering the traditional images and the relationships associated with leaders and followers (Green, 1997).

According to modern conceptions, leadership is understood as a process in which leaders are seen as members of a community of practice but not as individuals in charge of followers (Horner, 1997). Among the contemporary leadership approaches, some are commonly associated with leadership research in higher educational institutions and include shared or distributed leadership, substitutes for leadership, complexity leadership, and servant leadership (Timiyo, 2016).

The shared or distributive leadership theory asserts that leadership should be rotational and thus shared among people in different positions and levels theory (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). Srivastava and Jain (2017) denoted that this leadership style encourages collaboration and inclusivity works well in academia, where followers are experienced, knowledgeable and intrinsically motivated. However, researchers are yet to clarify what is being distributed, whether it is power or authority, or both, and how it should be distributed among group members (Currie & Lockett, 2011). Nonetheless, its emphasis on power may suggest that it is a conventional leadership model, and it is precisely in this respect that distributed leadership differs from servant leadership (Timiyo, 2016).

When it comes to the substitute for leadership theory, this is a perspective focuses on alternatives to leadership, in some cases situations may exist that renders leadership immaterial. The influences that may contribute to this are called leadership substitute. The substitute for leadership approach was established by Kerr and Jermier (1978) and differs from standard leadership theories in that it asserts that leader conduct may not always be appropriate to the situation at hand. Leadership may be substituted by an individual's ability, experience, training, knowledge, and professional orientation, among other qualities. For instance, professionalism acts as a substitute for leadership, thereby rendering traditional leadership less important for the

motivation of academics (Bryman 2007). Likewise, there is also the suggestion in some of the leadership literature which contends that professionals need a different or a subtler form of leadership than non-professionals (Bryman 2007). As Mintzberg (1998) stated "most professional workers require little direct supervision from managers" (1998, p. 143). Instead, he advocates that they require a covert form of leadership entailing "protection and support" (p. 146).

When it comes to the complexity leadership theory, this theory contends that leadership models of the last century have been products of top-down, bureaucratic paradigms, and these models are highly effective for an economy premised on physical production but are not suitable for a more knowledge-oriented economy (Uhl-Bien, Marion et al. 2007). It views leadership as an interactive system of dynamic, unpredictable agents that interact with each other in complex feedback networks, which can then produce adaptive results such as knowledge propagation, learning, invention, and further adaptation to change (Uhl-Bien, Marion et al. 2007).

The servant leadership approach is another contemporary leadership paradigm that holds that leadership is first and foremost an act of service rather than a position (Farnsworth, 2007; Masi & Cooke, 2000). This style of leadership focuses on empowerment, involvement, and collaboration (Wheeler, 2012), on greater mutual authority and influence (Hamilton & Bean, 2005), and it is a leadership style that becomes more important in a crisis (Iyer, 2012). Besides, it places the leader in a non-focal position within the group (Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004).

Generally, leadership was conceptualized and defined differently at different times. Thus, to conceptualize leadership and how it is viewed and practiced today, it is important to recognize

how the concept has generally evolved and been theorized. The following section will, therefore, briefly discuss how leadership was conceptualized at different times.

## **2.2 Theories of Leadership**

The development of leadership theory has evolved from the carrot-and-stick-wielding owner-managers of the earlier industrial era to the servant leaders of the 21st century (Bosman, 2009). The organizational focus of the leader has shifted during the same time period. Early organizations had authoritarian leaders who believed that employees were naturally lazy and modified the environment of the workplace to encourage increased production rates. Employees are empowered, supported, and encouraged to pursue their personal and professional goals in today's organizations. How leaders' priorities have changed over time has had an influence on and shaped the development of leadership theory (Stone & Patterson, 2005).

The concept of leadership has been studied from a variety of angles, including power, the traits of the leader and the follower, shared influence, and the context in which leadership takes place (Muchinsky, 2006). According to Buchanan (2013), since the turn of the 20th century, the world has had numerous leadership eras. The concept of "command and control" was first popular in the 1980s, followed by "empower and track" until the middle of the 2000s, and finally, "connect-and-nurture," which is the current approach. Even though it might not be applicable in all circumstances, this time period provides a broad justification for the evolution of numerous leadership theories (Gandolfi & Stone, 2018).

On the other hand, Daft (2008) categorized the leadership theories into six basic approaches, which include the Great Man theories, trait, behavior, contingency, influence, and relational theories. To begin with, according to the Great Man Theory, leaders are destined for

greatness (Malakyan, 2014). Early proponents of this notion believed that leaders are people who are born with heroic leadership qualities and innate power and influence and who are always perceived as men (Daft, 2008). As a result, researchers have looked at historical and ancient leaders (King, 1990). One of the many drawbacks of this theory was its failure to offer any empirical evidence to support the legitimacy of the Great Man (Hunt & Fedynich, 2019).

The trait theory is the next. This theory was born out of the early Great Man theory (Hunt & Fedynich, 2019). It was simply an extension of the great man theory and it attempts to provide an early framework for leadership study (Malakyan, 2014). Similar to the Great Man theory, the trait model allowed for no room for an individual to have any hope of becoming a leader (Hunt & Fedynich, 2019). One is either born a leader or not (Malakyan, 2014). The trait theories tried to identify the physical and personal characteristics commonly shared by leaders (Kim, Kim, & Choi, 2014). However, as it was so difficult to come up with a definitive list of traits that all leaders held in common, theorists shifted from studying inborn traits that leaders possess to studying specific behavior or actions that leaders engage in (Fairholm, 2002; Muchinsky, 2006).

Unlike the great man and trait theories, the behavioral theories assume that leadership capability can be learned rather than being inherent (Wakabi, 2016). Thus, behavioral theories of leadership focus on the actions of the leader as opposed to their personality traits (King, 1990). Studies in this early period of behavior research focused on a factor analytic procedure for conducting research (Johns & Moser, 1989).

According to King (1990), this theory developed into the well-known Theories of X and Y leadership viewpoints. Employees, according to Theory X, require supervision and control because they are inherently sluggish, despise their jobs, and make every effort to avoid them.

Contrarily, Theory Y proposed that people typically find pleasure in their work, are self-motivated, and do not require force. They also sought responsibility and were prepared to accept it (Northouse, 2015). Therefore, it was important to offer employees the freedom they needed to become the responsible, creative workers they were capable of becoming (J. A. Laub, 1999). Theoretical conceptions of servant leadership were developed as a result of such unconventional methods of leadership (Washington, 2007)..

Besides, research programs at Ohio State University and the University of Michigan were intended to identify independent dimensions of leader behaviors, and they came up with two dimensions: task-oriented behaviors and relation-oriented behaviors (Wakabi, 2016). Northouse (2016) pointed out the balance of those behaviors is a key factor in strong leadership. Generally, the behavior studies of leadership were a step forward in distancing researchers from the unsupported earlier theories. There was a plentiful amount of data and studies on behavior (Hunt & Fedynich, 2019). However, certain factors continued to be overlooked. The behavior studies missed the leader's situation and environment in the first place (Hunt & Fedynich, 2019). Besides, they have also limitations in explaining why some leaders are more successful than others (O'Neil, 2007).

Thus, situational theories, which place more emphasis on the context or circumstance in which leadership takes place than on the leaders themselves, have replaced behavioral theories (Muchinsky, 2006). The fundamental premise of situational theories is that specific leadership approaches or behaviors may be successful in one situation but not effective in another (Conte & Landy, 2012). As a result, they recognize the significance of factors other than the leader and subordinates, such as the task's type, the leader's and subordinates' social position, and the nature of the external environment (Bass, 1981). This theory recognized the notion that

the context in which the leader-subordinate dynamic took place mattered more than the leaders themselves (King, 1990). Accordingly, leaders need to adapt their style of leadership to the situation (Northouse, 2016).

As King (1990) noted, the acknowledgment of adaptability as a trait led to a recovery in the view of leadership. This area of study has been called contingency. Successful leadership is viewed as a function of factors such as personality, behavior, influence, and the situational environment. Under this new approach, leadership is fluid and ever-changing according to the situation (Vugt & Ronay, 2014) and effective leadership is contingent on matching a leader's style to the right setting (Fiedler, 1978).

Influence theories are the next generation of leadership theories that followed situational theories. According to these theories, leadership is not a characteristic of the solitary leader; instead, it is a relationship between individuals (King, 1990) or a process that stems from the shared relationship between parties (Muchinsky, 2006).

Relational theories are the last of the leadership theories that come next to influence theories. In these theories, interpersonal relationships are seen as the most important facet of leadership success. Two of the most important relational theories are transformational leadership and servant leadership (Daft, 2008). Transformational leadership results in better outcomes for people, and organizations. However, a transformational leader is often conceptualized as a heroic leader who establishes the direction and vision for the company (Northouse, 2016).

Servant leadership, which is our focus and framework for this study, is the second form of relational leadership theory. This leadership arises from a transformative approach (Hunt & Fedynich, 2019). The details of this theory are presented in the following

section. i.e., the essence of SL, its development, its similarities and differences with other leadership theories, and its various models, benefits, and criticisms would be discussed as follows:

### **2.3 Servant Leadership**

#### The Essence of Servant Leadership

Servant leadership combines the features of being a leader and having servant qualities. The paradox created by combining the terms 'servant and leader' is resolved by addressing both the task of leadership and care for the followers (Jacobs, 2011). That is, the servant leadership approach combines concern for getting things done with attention to the needs of those who are getting the work done (Greenleaf, 1977). It is an extraordinary style of leading in which one leads through serving followers and seeks to fulfill the needs of others, which will ultimately motivate others to follow (Greenleaf, 2002).

When it comes to the definition of servant leadership (SL), scholars have addressed the concept from many different perspectives, resulting in a variety of definitions. Greenleaf (1977) defined it as a way of life that begins with “the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first” (p. 7), but not just a management technique. This definition sets forth the basic ideas of SL, which have been highlighted by current scholars. Again, Laub (1999) defined servant leadership as “an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader” (p. 83). Spears (2005) defined it both as a leadership philosophy and a set of leadership practices.

The most recent definition of SL, given by Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendonck, and Liden (2019), is as follows: "Servant leadership is a (1) other-oriented approach to leadership (2)

manifested through one-on-one prioritizing of follower individual needs and interests (3) and outward reorienting of their concern for self towards concern for others within the organization and the larger community." (P114).

SL can be used as a philosophy or as a working model of leadership in organizations (Kumar, 2018). As a philosophy of leadership, it asserts that the only way to alter a the general public is to produce people who simply want to serve (Fairholm, 2002) and it contends that cultivating people who genuinely want to serve is the only way to change society (Fairholm, 2002). And it advances the concept that people choose first to serve, and then to lead by choice to contribute to the overall greater good (Greenleaf, 1977). In the context of organizations, it specifically contends that organizational goals would be accomplished more effectively by a better-served worker (Hannigan, 2008).

The SL is all about building a better organization through enriching the staff. It emphasizes that followers are happy and productive when led by certain behavioral patterns, and this has a trickle-down effect on followers' attitudes toward work that eventually translates to a productive workforce in the long run (Timiyoy, 2016). Thus, SL does not have a particular affinity for the abstract organization; rather, it values the people who constitute the organization (Whetstone, 2002). Furthermore, Greenleaf (1972) says that "individuals who want to serve must, on their own, become institution builders where they are." (p. 5).

Just like any other form of leadership, the SL approach is an expression of power, yet one that is applied to benefit others instead of oneself (Scardino, 2012). In contrast to many, if not most, leadership theories, SL places a higher priority on empowering subordinates to fulfill the task (Gregory Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004). It differs from other types of leadership

approaches in that it focuses on the growth and development of the staff (Aboramadan et al., 2020). This approach emphasizes collective and collaborative follower participation and promotes significant follower empowerment (Hamilton & Bean, 2005). Relatedly, Greenleaf (1977) noted that the use of power is only legitimate when it is used not for oneself but to serve others.

Thus, SL focuses on a humble and ethical use of power and on the cultivation of mutual power and influence (Whetstone, 2002). Serving and leading become more or less interchangeable (Dierendonck, 2011), or serving is the expression of leadership, regardless of how people follow. It is both the end and the means (Rinehart, 1998). It is therefore an anti-narcissistic leadership style (Van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2018). Emphasizing others' interests in this situation goes against human survival instincts, which are often driven by a concern for self. For that reason, this leadership approach demands for a change of attitude and inner transformation (Wong & Davey, 2007), persistence and courage (Wheeler, 2012), as well as deliberate and continuous practice orientation (Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendonck, & Liden, 2019), in order to reduce these instincts within ourselves and maintain a servant leadership orientation.

The SL approach, however, cannot be easily implemented within an institution and is not a "quick-fix" method. As opposed to that, it is a long-term, transformative approach to both life and work (Spears, 2005). Furthermore, it is not a panacea model (Dean, 2014), but it is a democratic (Kumar, 2018), and transformational form of leadership (Spears, 2005). Additionally, SL does not exhibit benevolence; rather, it resists the creation of a dependent relationship between the leadership and staff and it seeks a mature adult partnership that expects more from each person and allows each person's gifts to be fully realized and developed (Laub, 2018).

## The Development of Servant Leadership Approach

When it comes to the development of servant leadership (SL) approach, even though the concept of is found in various religious books, including the Bible, and might even date further back into antiquity, the word SL was introduced in the contemporary vernacular in 1970 by Greenleaf (1970). Greenleaf came up with the term “servant leadership” after reading *Journey to the East* by Hermann Hesse. He was reading the book as part of his effort to help university leaders deal with the student unrest of the 1960s (McGee-Cooper & Looper, 2001).

The servant leadership approach is considered a longstanding idea slowly being resurrected and promoted as a revolutionary way of addressing the fast-paced changes and desire for human development at work (Laub, 1999). Its revival was part of a larger movement to move away from traditional command and control leadership, and it is also recognized as a solution to various corporate scandals and self-serving leadership practices (Crippen, 2005; Nwogu, 2004).

Moreover, even if the religious origins of SL cannot be overlooked, it is no longer confined to religious circles; however, its fundamental ideology differs slightly, particularly when applied to other disciplines (Spear, 1996). The issue of SL is at a deeper level of human consciousness than religion (Farnsworth, 2007). Greenleaf wanted to present a values-based way of leading that took into consideration how positive leader behaviors bring about corresponding positive follower behaviors that in turn benefit all in the organization as well as all served by the organization. Therefore, though SL fits well with religious assumptions, it does not require these assumptions from leaders who do not advocate a particular faith or the adoption of faith or religious belief (Laub *et al.*, 2018). For instance, even if SL is incorrectly presumed as a

Christian paradigm, it has influenced and been influenced by many cultures around the world (Gandolfi et al., (2017).

When it comes to the acceptance of the SL leadership approach, these days, SL is rapidly gaining credibility and support from both leadership theorists and practitioners (Brubaker, Bocamea, Patterson, & Winston, 2016), as well as within the circles of organizational advisors and company leaders (Ykul, 2010). This is because it provides a different approach that responds better to contemporary expectations (Spears, 2005) prepares organizations to face the challenges of an uncertain future (McGee-Cooper & Looper, 2001).

#### Research on Servant Leadership Approach

Concerning research on the issue of SL, even though many writings on the topic mentioned that there was no adequate research base to support the concept, this has been changing over the past few years, and interest in the area has increased manifold (Dutta & Khatri, 2017). The field has generally made progress in the last 20 years (Eva et al., 2019). Eva, Robin et al. (2019) identified three phases in the development of SL research. The first one focused on how SL was conceptualized, with a focus on the writings of Greenleaf (1977) and Spears (1996). The second phase of the study was devoted to measuring SL, and cross-sectional research was employed to evaluate the correlations between SL and outcomes. We are currently in the model development phase of the third stage of SL research, which goes beyond simple relationships with outcomes to understand the antecedents, mediating mechanisms, and boundary conditions of SL (Eva, Robin et al. 2019). With over 100 articles and two meta-analyses published in the previous four years alone, studies on SL have exploded in this third phase (Eva et al., 2019).

In a nutshell, the idea of SL is now measurable and testable, enabling a greater comprehension of its impact (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Thus, empirical research is expanding into studies on how it relates to key organizational factors like employee safety, job satisfaction, employee experience, and turnover (Laub, 2018). The current study is, therefore, one of its kind. The following section deals with the similarities and the differences between the SL approach and other leadership theories.

#### Similarities and Differences of Servant Leadership with Other Leadership Approaches

SL is not only similar to but also different from contemporary leadership theories. It is really concerned with helping and developing employees, in contrast to other leadership styles like transformational and charismatic leadership, which motivate people to share a vision and give them the authority to accomplish this goal (Bass, 1985), the SL approach is genuinely concerned with serving (Greenleaf, 1977) and developing workers (Jang & Kandampully, 2018).

According to Greenleaf (1977), the ability to transcend one's own self-interest is one of its fundamental characteristics. Although this attribute has been mentioned in other leadership theories, it has never been given the same central position as it has in this theory (Dierendonck, 2011). Besides, ethical behavior and prioritizing subordinates' welfare are two of the core elements that differentiate SL from other popular theories (Wong, Ramalu, & Chuah, 2019). This leadership approach is often presented and understood in contrast to the autocratic (Parris & Peachey, 2013), self-centered, and individualized forms of leadership (Fentahun, 2018). Additionally, SL distinguishes between management and leadership responsibilities as opposed to traditional models, which implicitly imply that they are the same (Cleary et al., 2011; Jackson, 2011).

Despite the above contrasting points, SL is not, however, totally different from other types of leadership theories; rather, it shares some commonalities with other modes of leadership such as transformational, spiritual, ethical, and self-sacrifice leadership. Mostly, it is compared with transformational leadership. This is because both share some similarities that make them seem interchangeable to some people (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2003). For instance, both are people-oriented (Graham, 1991) and member-focused (Scardino, 2012). However, they are not equivalents; instead, they differ significantly. For instance, the primary focus of SL is to support the self-actualization of colleagues (Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004). The main objective of transformational leadership, on the other hand, is to inspire employees to eventually accomplish organizational goals (Ding, Lu, Song, & Lu, 2012).

In short, the SL approach has proven to be a reputable leadership theory, distinguishable from other current leadership theories. A clear distinction has been made between it and other leadership theories (Coetzer, Bussin, & Geldenhuys, 2017). It cuts across all leadership theories and provides foundational philosophy for theories that emphasize principles relating to the development of humankind (Kantharia, 2012). According to Parris and Peachey (2013), this theory might offer the framework for leadership and the ethical foundation required to help handle the problems of the twenty-first century.

### Models of The Servant Leadership Theory

Coming to models of servant leadership (SL), Greenleaf, the person who introduced the concept of SL, suggested ten characteristics (principles) of SL which includes: listening; empathy; healing; awareness; persuasion; conceptualization; foresight; stewardship; commitment to the growth of people; and building community. Other succeeding scholars have identified

various models with different dimensions of SL (Hanse, Harlin, Jarebrant, Ulin, & Winke, 2015). However, all the models exemplify different interpretations of Greenleaf's writings, using different expressions, and all include the central dimension of the willingness to serve others, or servanthood (Van Dierendonck, 2011). We may better grasp what SL is and how it works inside companies by using these models, which show how learning develops while restating common themes (Laub et al., 2018).

Some of the most influential SL models include Spears' (1995) model, Laub's (1999) Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) model, Russell and Stone model (2002), Patterson model (2003), and the Van Dierendonck and Neaten model (2011)-with the Servant Leadership Survey (SLS).

Of all the above listed conceptual models, Laub's (1999) Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) model has made significant contributions to applied studies, mainly because it gave the first push toward empirical research. It can also still be useful to determine the extent to which an organization has a SL culture (Dierendonck, 2011). This model was developed to quantitatively measure people's perceptions of the level of SL present in their organization (Laub et al., 2018).

Laub's (1999) version of Greenleaf's SL comprises six dimensions. Which include; (a) valuing people: trusting, serving, and non-judgmental listening to others; (b) developing people: providing learning, growth, encouragement, and affirmation; (c) building community: developing strong collaborative and personal relationships; (d) displaying authenticity: being open, accountable, and willing to learn from others; (e) providing leadership: foreseeing the future, taking initiative, and establishing goals; and (f) sharing leadership: which entails

facilitating the distribution of authority and prestige for the benefit of each individual, the entire organization, and the people it serves (Olivia et al., 2013).

### Advantages of Servant Leadership Approach

Many studies have found several advantages to the use of servant leadership in leading organizations and institutions (Drury, 2004; Matteson & Irving, 2005). If correctly understood and applied, it changes organizations and communities for the better (Hannigan, 2008), and it provides a philosophy and set of behaviors that individuals in an organizational setting can learn and build up (Northouse, 2016).

Furthermore, SL can help build a better and more prosperous future for organizations (Hossain & Ebrahim, 2012). It is also believed that it makes a positive difference in leader behavior, follower response, and organizational health (Laub, 2018). It helps colleagues become more autonomous in their actions by learning to be less reliant on the leader (Jacobs, 2011). And it allows a leader to serve others, not in the sense of doing things for them, but by allowing other people to become more competent to meet their own needs and be better equipped to serve others (Black, 2010). Beyond personal growth and institutional success, it has a tremendously positive impact on society, culture, and even the future of our civilization (Page & Wong, 2000).

### Criticisms of Servant Leadership

Even though SL approach is praised for its various successful outcomes, it is not free from some criticism and opposition. For instance, there is a school of thought that stands in direct opposition to it and argues that "when it comes to success in life or at work, leadership

requires people to be aggressive, assertive, and at times even abusive in order to achieve their goals" (Trump and Sanker, cited in Buller, 2015; P 193).

In this case, an evolutionary approach suggests that there are two contrasting theoretical positions on the origins of leadership: dominance versus coordination perspective (Van Vugt, 2006; Van Vugt et al., 2008). The first perspective, leadership as a by-product theory or leadership as the product of status competitions, views leadership as the outcome of dominance battles between (mostly male) group members. The idea is that evolution has equipped individuals with the psychological tendencies to compete over status and dominance because someone's position in the hierarchy of the group determines their access to reproductively relevant resources. Hence, leadership is the product of status competitions whereby leaders occupy the top positions in the hierarchy (Gillet, Cartwright, & Vugt, 2011).

On the contrary, the second perspective, leadership as a coordination device perspective, views leadership as a group-level adaptation that enables individuals to function better in groups (Wilson, Van Vugt, & O'Gorman, 2008). Leadership is a coordination device which enables groups resolve difficulties. Having someone as a leader serves the interests of followers because they can gain the benefits of being in a highly coordinated and cohesive group. This is basically the concept of SL (Liden, Panaccio, Hu, Meuser, & Wayne, 2014).

In addition to the above direct oppositions, some doubts and criticisms have been posited about the theory of servant leadership. For instance, on the compatibility of the collective aspiration of the theory with today's emphasis on individual effort and performance (Lloyd, 1996), on its tendency to being idealistic and impractical (Reinke, 2004), and on its applicability to all international organizations (Hannay, 2009), however, despite its limitations, SL has proven

successful in a growing number of organizations (Kondrasuk & Bernard, 2013). Most of the companies at the top of Fortune magazine's list of the best companies for which to work were found to be practicing the SL approach (Rimes, 2011).

### The Relevance of Servant Leadership for Contemporary Organizations

Describing the relevance of this leadership approach in various organizations, Trompenaars and Voerman (2009) highlighted that “servant leadership has been applied successfully in various companies all over the world. With all of their diversity, these companies have one thing in common: they are better because of it.” P16.

In this case, even if various researchers argue that the SL approach can be applied at all levels of management and in all types of organizations (Smith et al., 2004), it appears that it is especially well-suited for organizations in which the workers are professionally mature (Smith et al., 2004) and do not take advantage of such a leader who plays a low profile (Zhang, Lin, & Fong Foo, 2012), and which desire long-term growth profiles that are intended to benefit all stakeholders, as opposed to those that focus on short-term profits (Northouse, 2016).

On this point, scholars such as Bass (2000), Buchen (1998), Timiyo (2016), and Davies, Hides, and Casey (2001) specifically recommended this approach to address the leadership needs in education and the inherent governance structures that inhibit effective leadership. Moreover, researchers such as Crippen (2005) and Jacobs (2011) argue that it is imperative to promote and empirically investigate this leadership approach in the context of educational institutions in general and HEIs in particular (Buller, 2015; Wheeler, 2012; Whetstone, 2002).

The following section deals with the details of the relevance of the SL approach to the context of HEI in general and that of Ethiopian higher educational institutions, in particular.

## **2.4 The Relevance of Servant Leadership Approach for Higher Educational Institutions in General and That of Ethiopian HEIS in Particular**

### **2.4.1 The Relevance of Servant Leadership Approach for Higher Educational Institutions in General**

The servant leadership approach is relevant to higher education institutions for various reasons. For one thing, it fits best with the values of academic institutions more than any other type of leadership does (Wheeler, 2012). On the other hand, it is a preferable leadership approach because it places a greater emphasis on the faculty (Wheeler, 2012) and helps all members of the university community have a voice in creating an environment that is based on shared values (McDougle, 2009). Consequently, this enables them to feel recognized, appreciated, valued and empowered (Ng, Choi, & Soehod, 2016), and it helps them to strive for excellence (Kimball & Nink, 2006), innovation, and creativity (Van Dierendonck & Rook, 2010).

Besides, the SL approach is about helping academic staff, being real and honest as a leader, and building an academic community. According to this concept, service entails fostering an environment of growth and respect while aiming to address the needs of both employees and others (Wheeler, 2012). These are similar to qualities of academic leadership qualities, which includes Coates, Anderson, and Scott (2008) “being honest and brave, being trustworthy, considering others, being able to change and adapt, thinking about different futures, creating a good working environment, and being able to influence others positively” (p.13).

Relatedly, Higgerson in wheeler (2012) argues that given the various complicated problems that HEIs are facing, it is difficult to imagine that an administrator at any level of the institution could be effective without engaging in the SL approach. This is due to the fact that it

seems to be particularly well-suited to organizations where the faculty members are mature professionals and do not abuse a leader who keeps a low profile (Zhang, Lin, & Fong Foo, 2012). Similarly, Bass (2000) and Buchen (1998) recommended SL to address leadership needs in education and inherent governance structures that inhibited effective leadership. Researchers like Davies et al. (2001) and Timiyo (2016) encourage HEIs to embrace SL for the benefit of all relevant stakeholders in addition to students.

Correspondingly, researchers such as denoted that (Farnsworth, 2007; Powell & Clark, 2012; Wheeler, 2012) there is no better setting for SL than a university too.

Although SL seems to be very significant for HEIs, the idea hasn't been fully investigated in the field yet (Amey, 2006; Crippen, 2004; Timiyo, 2016). Inadequate understanding of the concept of SL (Eva et al., 2019), the contentious nature of leadership research among researchers (Bolden & Petrov, 2014), and the inability to fully comprehend and address complex issues in these institutions (Hogg, Van Knippenberg, & Rast III, 2012) are some of the potential major reasons that are frequently cited for the lack of research on SL and higher educational institutions.

The following section of the dissertation deals with the specific relevance of the servant leadership approach for Ethiopian HEIs.

#### **2.4.2 Servant Leadership in Ethiopian Higher Educational Institutions**

Justifying the relevance of servant leadership to the specific context of Ethiopian higher educational institutions (HEIs), Fentahun (2018) denoted that to have conducive working institutions that give due care for their staffs, Ethiopian HEIs need to practice the SL approach in their respective work contexts. Its sensitivity to faculty's emotions and differing views, its

conviction in empowerment and participation, and its compatibility with other theories are just a few examples that rationalize its relevance as a style of leadership (Zelege, 2014).

The SL approach is also congruent with the guiding principles and goals of Ethiopian HEIs, including delivering quality services quickly, fostering democratic participatory governance and fairness, and fostering a culture of accountability (Proclamation, 2009).

When it comes to the empirical studies in Ethiopian educational institutions, three studies, by Alemayehu (2021), Fentahun (2018) and Zelege (2014), have examined the leadership practices of Ethiopian educational institutions from this perspective. Fentahun (2018) examined the practices and correlates of SL in selected Ethiopian teacher training colleges, and he found that leaders and staff exhibit SL practices at a moderate level and he concluded that SL practices in the selected organizations significantly predict organizational health and effectiveness.

On the other side, Zelege (2014) compared the SL practice, which he asserts that it is the ideal leadership approach for Ethiopian HEIs, with the current leadership practice and came to the conclusion that the two are different. However, Alemayehu (2021) carried out his research at Kotebe Metropolitan University and found that servant leadership is effectively being practiced there. As a result, he came to the conclusion that the institution may be categorized as a servant-oriented organization.

The next section of the dissertation deals with the idea of turnover intentions and associated research methods.

## **2.5 The Concept of Turnover Intentions, its Theoretical and Practical Explanations and its Level in Ethiopian HEIS**

### **2.5.1 The concept of Turnover Intentions**

Ulndag, Khan, and Guden (2011) presented alternative terms to conceptualize the idea of turnover intention, which include terms such as propensity to leave, intent to leave, and intention to leave. Rautela and Mavale (2016) defined turnover intention as an employee's possibility of leaving an organization sooner or later. Albaqami (2016) specifically defined faculty turnover intention as the reluctance of academics to stay in their roles within their academic institutions.

Staff turnover can generally be voluntary or involuntary. When a worker decides to leave his or her position, it is called voluntary turnover, and it is more detrimental to the company. On the other hand, involuntary turnover refers to management's choice to pressurize an employee to leave the company (Belete, 2018). Besides, involuntary turnover might also involve dying or being forced to retire (Mobley, 1977). The current study focuses on voluntary turnover and associated behavioral intentions, and turnover intentions, as opposed to actual turnover.

Coming to the reason why we study turnover and turnover intention, we study staff turnover because employees are the most invaluable assets of an organization (Voon, Chiun, Sing, & Ayob, 2011), and their turnover is detrimentally costly (Jones, 2004). The high turnover rate will result in frequent changes in staff, which will negatively impact the performance of the organization and the quality of the offered service or product (Le, 2018). Besides, the organization's short- and long-term competitiveness and quality come under pressure (Binyam & Getahun, 2020). It finally paralyzes the growth of organizations (Dutta & Khatri, 2017). The next part of the paper deals with the theoretical and practical explanations of turnover intention.

### **2.5.2 Theoretical and Practical Explanations of Turnover Intention**

When it comes to the study mechanism turnover intention (TI), researchers examine TI to examine the extent of actual turnover (Cohen, Blake, & Goodman, 2016). The rationale justifying intentions' use as a turnover proxy has dual justifications: theoretical explanations and pragmatic reasons. From a theoretical perspective, attitude theory generally supports the belief that intent is the best predictor of behavior (Kraut, 1975; Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978; Price & Mueller, 1981).

As Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) marked, "The best single predictor of an individual's behavior will be a measure of his intention to perform that behavior" (p. 369). According to this line of research, TI is expected to be the strongest predictor of actual turnover behavior (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979; Tett, 1993) or a surrogate indicator of actual turnover compared to other organizational variables (Kashyap & Rangnekar, 2016; Price, 2001). Such theoretical explanations have also empirical support. For instance, in a meta-analysis of job attitudes and behaviors, Harrison, Newman, and Roth (2006) concluded that job attitudes, such as TI, reliably predict job behaviors, such as quitting (Cohen et al., 2016).

The other reason why researchers also rely on intentions to study turnover is for pragmatic reasons. We use TI to measure turnover rather than actual turnover because it is challenging to get in touch with former workers to study their reasons for leaving the company, record keeping in organizations is quite problematic, and the data that is available is insufficient (Temesgen, 2014). Besides, as a surrogate, the intent construct is more amenable to research than actual turnover. It is more cost-effective, and it possesses desirable statistical qualities (Dalton, Johnson, & Daily, 1999).

### **2.5.3 Faculty Turnover Intention in Higher Education Institutions**

#### 2.5.3.1 The impact of Faculty Turnover Intention in Higher Education Institutions

As stated earlier, a high turnover rate negatively impacts the quality of the offered service and puts the organization's short- and long-term competitiveness under pressure. Specifically speaking about the effect of faculty turnover in higher education institutions, high faculty turnover has been linked to a decline in efficiency (Long, Thean, Ismail, & Jusoh, 2012), a reduction in teaching quality (Jain, 2013), disruptions in course offerings, discontinuities in departmental and student planning, and the loss of thesis supervisors (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004). Most significantly, it degrades the quality of training (Dee, 2004).

Besides, the faculty that HEIs hire and retain plays an important role in their reputation, branding excellence, or distinction (Bowen & Schuster, 1986). And their departure has several negative impacts. These worries regarding faculty turnover have sparked continuing research aimed at understanding exactly why there is such a high turnover rate in higher education (Harris, Hinds, Manansingh, Rubino, & Morote, 2016).

Even if there may be some merit to the claim that faculty turnover is a necessary component of career advancement because teaching and research skills are easily transferrable between institutions, this is not the case in this situation (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004). However, as Tettey (2006) firmly pointed out, "despite the fact individuals who move to other organizations may contribute to the specific activities of that organization, their departure from academe means that the synergies that come with a group of academics working together is diminished, and the impact and scope of knowledge production and dissemination is lessened" (p11).

### 2.5.3.2 The Extent of Faculty Turnover Intention in Ethiopian Higher Education Institutions

When it comes to the extent of faculty turnover and turnover intention in Ethiopian HEIs, experiences and various reports suggest that Ethiopian HEIs are characterized by widespread faculty turnover and are in a difficult situation to retain their qualified faculty (Binyam & Getahun, 2020). The rate of staff turnover has also been increasing from time to time (Haileyesus, 2019), and this condition has led to some of the departments becoming understaffed or being replaced by less qualified ones (Mulu, 2014). As a result, many Ethiopian PUs are not only filled with too many inexperienced faculty (Tesfaye, 2011).

Some empirical studies have also confirmed this situation. For instance, a recent study by Kalayu, Meaza, and Abebe (2020) has also found that numerous faculty members at Debrebrihan University usually think of leaving their organization soon. According to Debrebrihan University's report, a total of one hundred ninety (190) faculty members have already left the university in the years from 2018 to 2021. In this respect, the case might not be different for most of the other universities in the country (Binyam & Getahun, 2020).

Despite such serious problems, however, it seems that little has been done to empirically determine the predicting factors of staff turnover. As Tesfaye (2011) indicated, most of the studies conducted on staff attrition are from other countries, and they were conducted in business-oriented environments. Apart from limited information on the antecedents of turnover among academics and professionals, the issue of turnover attrition has received little empirical attention (Tesfaye, 2011).

The next part of the dissertation deals with the other important variable of the study: affective commitment.

## **2.6 The Concept of Affective Organizational Commitment**

According to Keskes (2014), organizational commitment is defined as a staff's identification with the mission, goals, and vision of the organization. It is the psychological attachment of an employee to an organization (Lambert, 2003). In this case, employees are committed to their organizations in different ways and for different reasons, which has led researchers to investigate different types of organizational commitment (Toscano, 2015).

Meyer and Allen (1991) conceptualized commitment into three categories: affective, continuance, and normative. Each corresponds, respectively, to three different mentalities related to the emotional commitment, the perceived costs of leaving the organizational commitment or continuity, and the obligation to the organizational or normative commitment. However, even if it is conceptualized as three concepts, only a few studies have focused on all three components of commitment. Most researchers focus on the components of organizational commitment as individual variables (Stanley, Vandenberghe, Vandenberg, & Bentein, 2013), specifically only on affective and/or normative measures (Noor, 2006). Particularly, affective commitment (AC) has received better research attention compared to the other two types of commitment (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005). On this point, Moreira and Cesário (2021) concluded that affective commitment is the best reducer of turnover intentions among the three components of organizational commitment.

Furthermore, several researchers have also suggested retaining only AC as the construct and dropping out the two dimensions. This is because the three-dimensional commitment model is a mix-up of attitudes and outcomes (Bergman, 2006; Solinger, Van Olffen, & Roe, 2008). Solinger, van Olffen, and Roe (2008) argued that, in light of the empirical research, a singular approach to understanding commitment should be the basis of future research. More specifically,

they suggested that a possible return to a solely attitudinal, affective approach is necessary due to the construct's more conclusive empirical evidence. Moreover, a meta-analysis of research on the issue has also shown that AC has the strongest relationship with leadership (Meyer et al., 2002). Accordingly, the current study has selected AC to measure the level of staff organizational commitment.

In the current study, AC is selected for various reasons. For one thing, this component is seen as "the most beneficial in enhancing organizational effectiveness" (Zeidan, 2006, p. 17), and when compared with the other two components, affective commitment has been shown to have the strongest positive relationship with positive work behaviors (Nkhukhu-Orlando et al., 2019). Besides, studies have shown that it is the most desirable form of commitment, which organizations are most likely to want to instill in their employees (Allen & Meyer, 1997). And several theorists suggest that it correlates to leadership practices (Dennis, Kinzler-Norheim, & Bocarnea, 2010).

Coming to the level of academic staff AC in Ethiopian public universities, an earlier study by Temesgen (2014) found that a larger proportion of faculty at Ethiopian universities have a low AC to their university. On the other hand, a recent study by Kassaw and Golga (2019) found a moderate level of AC among faculty of both Haromaya University and Adama Science and Technology University, respectively. On the other hand, Dinber (2019) argues that there is insufficient evidence to establish whether the faculty of the Ethiopian PUs have an AC with their respective institutions. Thus, it suggests for further investigation into the existence and extent of the AC of faculty in Ethiopian PUs.

The following sections of the thesis deal with the interaction among servant leadership, affective organizational commitment, and turnover intention.

## **2.7 Relationship among Servant Leadership, Affective Commitment, & Turnover Intention**

### **2.7.1 Relationship between Servant Leadership and Turnover Intention**

The literature on the relationship between leadership and turnover intention suggests that the quality of leadership is one of the key factors that determines workers' decisions to leave or stay in an organization. In this case, Wakabi (2016) conducted a review of empirical studies on how leadership styles influence employees' decisions to leave or stay in an organization. And he concluded that as employees leave their boss rather than their job, attention should be given to the leadership practices adopted.

In line with this, empirical studies by Anderson (2015), Ng'ethe, Namusonge, and Iravo (2012) & Sareen and Agarwal (2016), have also found that leadership style is related to staff turnover intention. Similarly, Dawson (2014) found that that supportive leadership practiced by people who manage the nurse's jobs had an effect on nurses' retention, at a private university. Correspondingly, Ng'ethe, Namusonge & Iravo (2012) found that leadership styles influence employee's intent to leave government universities, in Kenya. Similarly, Anderson (2015) found that retention is positively correlated with leadership (transformational and transactional) among junior executives. Similarly, Sareen and Agarwal (2016) found that leaders' leadership style directly and significantly influences the intention of employees to stay in an information technology industry.

Correspondingly, other studies conducted in the context of higher education institutions have also suggested that the quality of leadership is negatively related to staff turnover

intention (Hajjaj, 2014; Waldman, Carter, & Hom, 2015). Researchers such as Ng'ethe, Namusonge, and Iravo (2012) suggest that faculties' intent to leave their organization is considerably lower in institutions where the leadership styles are congruent with the requirements of staff.

Specifically, when it comes to the relationship between the servant leadership approach and intention to leave an organization, various research findings (Ng et al., 2016; Wong et al., 2019) indicate that the SL approach is inversely associated with employees' intention to leave the organization. For instance, empirical studies conducted by Brohi et al. (2018), Caffey (2012), Kashyap and Rangnekar (2016), and Prakasch and Ghayas (2019) found that SL style is negatively associated with employee TI in the context of public service organizations. Similar results were obtained by Shaw and Newton (2014) and Harris et al. (2016) in the contexts of public schools and faith-based higher education institutions, respectively.

Following an examination of the research findings about the relationship between SL and the intention to leave an organization, a discuss on the potential link between SL and organizational commitment will follow. Especially regarding the connection between SL and AC.

### **2.7.2 Relationship between Servant Leadership and Organizational Commitment**

Several writers have suggested that leadership approach is positively related to employees' organizational commitment, in general (Aboramadan et al., 2020; Jackson, Meyer, & Wang, 2013; Salami & Omole, 2005). More specifically, the servant leadership approach and affective organizational commitment are reported in the literature as positively correlated with one another (Dougherty, Bluedorn, & Keon, 1985).

Empirical studies in the specific context of higher education have also found a positive relationship between SL and staff organizational commitment (Aboramadan, Dahleez, & Hamad, 2020; Rubino, 2012). Then again, a study by Carder (2012) found a weak but not significant correlation between SL and organizational commitment. One possible explanation for this result could be that SL was measured from the perspective of leaders. Self-ratings are normally higher than the ratings of the same leaders by their coworkers (Posner & Kouzes, 1990).

On the contrary, Drury (2004) found a statistically significant inverse but a small relationship ( $r = -.223$ ) between SL and organizational commitment in an academic environment, “meaning that a change in perception of servant leadership showed a change in the opposite direction for organizational commitment” (p. 70). Drury (2004) concluded that servant leaders may be developing people only to lose them to another organization. This is, of course, the only research in the literature that found a negative relationship between SL, and organizational commitment (Cerit, 2010). One possible explanation for this result, as offered by Drury (2004), is that staffs with longer organizational tenure (as measured by organizational commitment) may perceive less SL because they are more acquainted with the faults of their leaders. Whatever the case, such inconsistent findings demand for further empirical investigation in similar and other contexts (Ajobiewe, 2017).

The next section deals with the relationship between affective commitment and turnover intention.

### **2.7.3 Relationship between Affective Commitment and Turnover Intention**

Though several empirical studies have also revealed that affective commitment (AC) is negatively related to turnover intention (Alkhatari, Abuelhassan, Khalifa, Nusari, & Ameen,

2018; Nombo, 2013). However, the relationship between them seem still controversial (Ahmad & Rainyee, 2014). For instance, a local study by Temesgen (2014) found a significant negative relationship between TI and AC, among faculty at Ethiopian PUs. Similarly, studies conducted by Alkhateri et al. (2018) & Nombo (2013) have also found that AC significantly and inversely related to TI, among teachers in the United Arab Emirate educational sector and employees of Tanzanian private educational institutes, respectively.

Furthermore, studies in the non-educational sector have also concurred with this finding. For instance, local studies by Missaye (2016) and Girma et al., (2015) found a significant negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention. Additional studies by Kanwar, Singh, and Kodwani (2012), Rohani Salleh (2012), Suliman and Al-Junaibi (2010), & Somers (1995) have also reported the presence of a significant negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention in different settings. Similarly, various writers denoted that turnover intention (TI) appears to be negatively related to organizational commitment. For instance, Khan (2015) argues that the workers' decisions, whether to leave or stay in an organization, may be more influenced by their affective attitudes towards the institution called the affective commitment (AC).

On the contrary, a study by Jon (2010) found a weak positive relationship between organizational commitment dimensions and TI. Furthermore, most of the studies on the issue were conducted in other settings outside HEIs. Thus, this issue calls for further empirical investigation. The current study has, therefore, attempted to fill the gap by examining the relationship between AC and TI, in the context of the faculty in Northern Ethiopian public universities.

The next section of the paper deals with the possible mediating role of affective commitment in the relationship between SL and turnover intentions.

## **2.8 The Mediating Role of Affective Commitment on the Relationship between Servant Leadership and Turnover Intention**

Scholars such as Meyer and Allen (1991) argue that organizational commitment components could play a mediating roles in the relationship between work-related antecedents and important organizational outcomes. Researchers such as Clemens, Milsom, and Cashwell (2009) and Wells and Peachey (2011) suggest that the relationship between leadership and turnover intention can be mediated by organizational commitment.

Other researchers, such as Jang and Kandampully (2018) & Razzaq and Ramsha Khalid (2019), specifically propose that the relationship between leadership and turnover intention (TI) could be mediated by the affective organizational commitment component . Other studies by Gul, Ahmad, Rehman, Shabir, and Razzaq (2012) and Razzaq and Ramsha Khalid (2019) found that AC is the link between the different styles of leadership. A local study by Chala (2016) has also found that AC mediates, specifically, the relationship between ethical leadership and TI.

In a similar vein, Markowitz's (2012) empirical investigation revealed that organizational commitment partially influences the correlation between supervisor support and faculty intent to remain in their organization. Relatedly, in their review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) have found that organizational commitment has been considered a mediator variable in several causal models of employee behavior.

Relatedly, empirical studies by Mansyah and Rojuaniah (2021) found that organizational commitment mediates the relationship between SL and TI for non-civil servants. Similarly, Jang and Kandampully (2018), Kashyap and Rangnekar (2016) and (Yavas, Jha, & Babakus, 2015) found that the relationship between SL and TI is partially mediated by the affective organizational commitment, specifically.

With this, we proceed to the discussion of the conceptual framework developed to guide the current study.

## **2.9 Conceptual Framework**

After conceptualizing previous studies, the following conceptual framework was developed to guide the present study: it was hypothesized that servant leadership is a predictor variable and turnover intentions are an outcome variable, while affective commitment is the suspected mediator variable. In the current study, to examine the possible mediating role of affective commitment in the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intention, the procedures suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) were followed. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), a variable functions as a mediator when it meets the following four conditions: first, the independent variable is significantly related to the dependent variable in the absence of the mediator. Second, the independent variable must be significantly related to the mediator. Third, the mediator variable must be significantly related to the outcome, and last, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must become statistically not significant upon the addition of the mediator in the equation.

The developed guiding framework is graphically presented as follows:

### Conceptual Framework

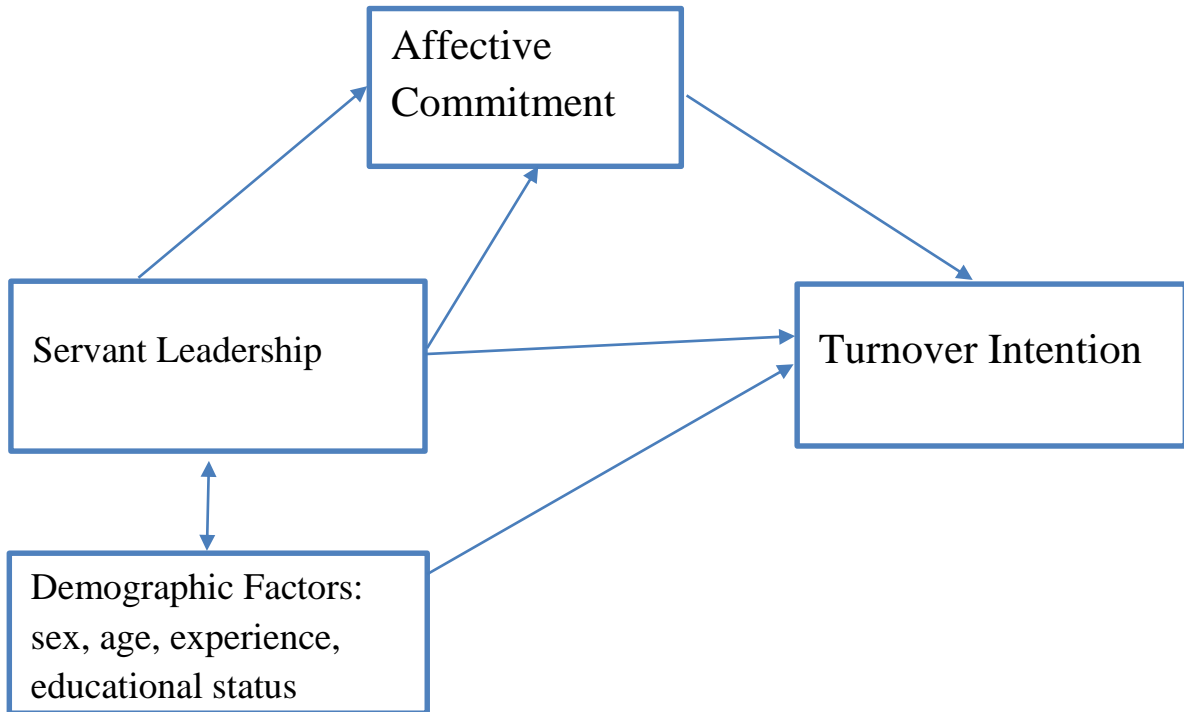


Figure 1 A Proposed Conceptual Model Linking Variables in the Study

NB. Though some of the arrays, in the above-proposed research model, could be bidirectional, in this study, focus is given to the unidirectional influence.

## **Chapter Three: Methodology and Design**

### **3.1 Research Approach**

A quantitative research approach was mainly chosen in this study. This is because it meets the goals of the study, which are to examine the level and relationship among servant leadership, affective commitment, and turnover intention (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Swanson & Holton, 2005).

### **3.2 Research Design**

By design, the current study is both a descriptive correlational study. It is descriptive because it describes the levels of servant leadership, affective commitment and turnover intention. Furthermore, it is a correlation study because it examines the relationship between the study variables—Servant Leadership, Affective Commitment and Turnover Intention.

### **3.3 Study Site**

This study was conducted at three northern Ethiopian public universities: Mekelle, Semera, and Adigrat. Mekele University was established in May 2000 by the Ethiopian government (Council of Ministers, Regulation No. 61/1999 of Article 3) as an autonomous HEI having its own legal personality (Mehari, 2016). MoE (2017) labeled the university as a "First Generation (Old) University.

University (SU), is a government HEIs located in the town of Samara. Afar Region. It was established in the year 2008 Ethiopian calendar. The University (SU) is a second-generation (young) university (MoE (2017)). SU has seven faculties, which include the Colleges of Business and Economics, the College of Dry Land Agriculture, the College of Medical and Health Sciences, the College of Veterinary Medicine, the College of Engineering and

Technology, the Faculty of Natural and Computational Science, and the College of Social Science and Humanities.

Similarly, Adigrat University was established in 2010 by the Ethiopian government (Council of Ministers, regulation No. 61/1999 of article 3) as an autonomous higher educational institution having its legal personality. MoE (2017) labeled the university as Third Generation (new) University.

### **3.4 Data Source**

Both primary and secondary data sources were used to gather the study's data. The main sources were local, full-time faculty members drawn from the three public universities in Ethiopia-Mekelle, Semera, and Adigrat. Expats and part-timers have been excluded they may not be concerned about some of the study's factors. A total of 300 females and, 2355 male members of the local academic faculty, comprise the entire population.

Secondary sources of data considered for this study were various relevant documents. Such data sources, in part, were secured from relevant documents such as “Ethiopian Higher Education Proclamations No. 351/2003, No. 650/2009, and No. 1152/2019, and Ethiopian Education Development Roadmap: An Integrated Executive Summary Draft (MoE, 2017), which were used to examine the data. The UCAA charter from 1954 set the precedent for future legal frameworks, including the 2019 higher education proclamation that currently oversees the sector (Adamu, 2019).

### **3.5 Participants**

As the statistics secured from the human resources of the universities show, a total of 1423, 607, and 625 faculty members were working in the three sample universities, -Mekelle,

Samara, and Addigrat, respectively. Thus, a total of 2655 faculty teaching in these northern Ethiopian public universities were the target population of the study. Of these, 153 were selected to participate in the study. Accordingly, eighty-one (81) faculty from Mekelle, thirty-five (37) from Semera, and thirty-seven (35) from Adigrat University were involved in the study. However, of the 153 questionnaires, one hundred and two (67%) were correctly filled out and returned. Thus, the analysis was made based on these correctly filled and returned questionnaires. Besides, to consolidate the evidence, additional data were collected from nine (three from each university) former faculty members of the three selected sample universities.

### **3.6 Sampling Techniques and Sample Size**

A two-stage sampling procedure was involved in selecting study participants. The first stage was the selection of sample Universities and the second is the selection of the participants. A stratified random sampling method was employed to select both the sample Universities, from the northern Ethiopia universities, and the research participants from the sample universities. The following three universities were randomly selected as a sample, representing the northern Ethiopian Universities: Mekelle, Semera, and Adigrat universities.

Moreover, five colleges, which can be sampled across the universities, were selected randomly.

The second stage in the sampling procedure was the selection of the research participants from the sampled universities and colleges. For this purpose, proportionate stratified sampling was used in the selection of respondents from each stratum. Finally, a lottery method was employed to select participants from each stratum. Participants were drawn from those

individuals available in the colleges and willing to participate in the completion of the questionnaires on the days the researcher and his assistants visited the sampled universities.

The sample size was determined based on the suggestion of Barlett, Kotrlik, and Higgins (2001), which was developed based on Cochran’s (1977) formulas. According to Barlett et al. (2001), it needs a minimum of one hundred nineteen samples to represent a population size of 2655. Hence, a sample size of 153 participants can be representative of the population. Finally, a proportional stratified sampling procedure was used to select a total of 153 sample sizes from each of the sub-group, sampled universities, colleges/institutes, and from both sexes.

Table 1 presents the population and sample size of this study, within each sampled university.

*Table 1 Population and Sample Sizes of the Study*

Name of the University	Population			Sample Size		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Mekelle	1261	162	1423	71	10	81
Semera	537	70	625	30	5	35
Addigrat	557	68	607	33	4	37
Total	2355	300	2655	133	17	153

Source: Human Resource of the sampled Universities cited in Kalayu et al. (2020) &

Mohammed, Abebe, and Wondim (2019)

When it comes to the selection of the interviewee, participants who were previously faculty of the sampled universities but who have already left the universities were selected using the snowball sampling technique. First, the interviewees were briefed about the objective of the

interview, and then they were asked for their consent before proceeding to the question-and-answer stage. Then, after they expressed their consent, the interviews were conducted. A semi-structured interview was conducted. During the interview, notes were taken and conversations were recorded at the same time. Sample items include; “Could you please indicate the major reason(s) that made you leave that university?”

### **3.7 Data Gathering Tools, Scoring, and Pilot Test**

#### **3.7.1 Tools and Scoring**

In this study, three standardized scales were employed to gather the required data. All the quantitative data collection scales were adapted from the original sources (Laub’s (1999) Organizational Leadership Assessment Scale (OLAs), Allen & Meyer’s (1990) Affective Commitment scale, and Harrington, Bean, Pintello, & Mathews’ (2001) Turnover Intention Scale) to measure the three study variables: servant leadership, affective commitment, and turnover intention, respectively. All the items on the scales required participants to complete a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

SL has been measured using Laub 's (1999) organizational leadership assessment (OLA) scale. This model was the first research-based SL approach. Originally, the reliability score for the OLA instrument, using the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient, was 0.98. This tool was chosen because it has been a predominant instrument for measuring SL at the organizational level (Irving & Longbotham, 2007).

When it comes to scoring, initially, negatively stated items were reverse scored. That is, items 2 and 10 on the OLA scale, items 3, 4, and 6 on the AC scale, and items 3 and 4 on the TI scale were reverse scored.

After reverse coding the negatively stated items, the scores of all the dimensions of OLA were aggregated to provide a single score of SL; this is because the overall score is recommended for research purposes. That is, the six dimensionality of the measure was questioned given the strong correlations between the mean scores on the dimensionality of the measure of SL. Laub came to the conclusion that the overall score should be suggested for investigation (Rachmawati & Lantu, 2014). Of course, earlier researchers by (Kashyap & Rangnekar, 2016; Thompson, 2015; Zhang et al., 2012) have also followed this approach. Similarly, the sub-scales were not used for further analysis in the current study.

To score and interpret the OLA scores, this study used descriptive statistics such as the mean and standard deviation. Mainly to determine the level of SL in the selected Ethiopian PUs, mean scores were computed. According to Laub (2003), the person who developed the scale, the average score on the OLA is 3.64.

Affective commitment (AC) scale: The AC scale, developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) and containing six items, was used to measure the respondents' emotional attachment and feelings of belongingness to their respective universities. According to Jaros (2007) this measure has become a dominant tool to assess workplace commitment across various settings. The original Cronbach's alpha for these items was ( $\alpha = 0.85$ ), indicating a high degree of internal reliability.

To determine the levels of AC, the scores of the six items of the scale were averaged to provide a single score of AC. In interpreting the mean scores, a widely accepted cutoff point between high and moderate levels of organizational commitment and its components has not been defined. But existing research on the issues has used either the mean or the median scores.

For instance, previous research Malik, Nawab, Naeem, and Danish (2010), Missaye (2016) and Tesfaye (2011) used the scale's mean, or median, as a cut-off point. Relatedly, Kassaw and Golga (2019) used the range of average scores of 1–2.49 as “low level”, 2.5–3.49 as “moderate level”, and 3.5–5 as “high level” in their study at Haramaya University, Ethiopia. Generally, higher scores on AC indicate that participants are more likely to be emotionally attached to their organization, and vice versa.

Turnover intention (TI) Scale: A 5-items measure, which was originally developed by Harrington, Bean, Pintello, and Mathews (2001), was employed to assess the level of TI of participants. The responses were given on a five-point Likert-type scale on which 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree. The mean response to the five statements was used to measure the level of participants' intention to leave. The scores of the five items were averaged to provide a single score of TI. The results of earlier studies have supported a high reliability and validity of these statements as a proxy for measuring intention to leave (Harrington et al., 2001). The statements were modified by replacing the original term “this company” with “this university.” The original Cronbach's alpha, the reliability of the original study, for these items was .89, indicating a high degree of internal reliability (Kim et al., 2012).

Similar to that of the organizational commitment scale, the turnover intention(TI) scales have no cutoff scoring points. Prior researchers Missaye (2016) and Tesfaye (2011) used the scale's mean as a cutoff point to determine high and low levels of TI. Similarly, the mean of the scales was also used to categorize participants into low and high levels, in the current study. Scores below the mean (3) indicate a low level of TI, whereas scores above or equal to the mean suggests a high level. The next section deals with validation of the scales.

## **3.7.2 Validation of Tools (Pilot Study)**

### **3.7.2.1 Content Validity of the Tools**

Validation of the instrument is one of the essential components of a valid outcome. The validity and reliability of a tool can be assured using statistical techniques. Examining the content and construct validity are two of these.

The content validity of the scales was examined by a group of panelists consisting of five members. All the panelists have either researched in the area or engaged in teaching various leadership and related courses at universities. The panelists were given the questionnaire, together with the operational definition of the constructs and open-ended spaces to give comments about the items. The panelists were requested to rate each item based on three options: “not clear (1), clear (2), and very clear (3),” respectively. After the raters filled out and returned the questionnaire, inter-rater agreement analysis was made using the content validity ratio computed using Lawshe's formula ( $CVR = (N_e - N/2) / (N/2)$ ) (Lawshe, 1975). Then, the content validity index (CVI) was found to be 0.78, which is a good index according to Lawshe (1975).

After the experts evaluated the clarity and relevance of the items and the inter-rater agreement coefficients, modifications were made accordingly, and then a pilot study was conducted. The details of the pilot study are presented in the following section:

### **3.7.2.2 Pilot Test**

A pilot test was conducted to test the feasibility of techniques, methods, and data gathering tools. The pilot study was conducted on a total sample of 60 faculty members (females = 16 and males = 44). Then, the questionnaires were modified and organized with the help of feedback obtained from the researcher's supervisor and examiners during the proposal defense.

Thereafter, the final version was developed through piloting and testing by distributing the instruments to a randomly selected faculty of the pilot institution (Debrebrihan University), informal discussion with colleagues, and feedback from experts in the area of leadership. The pilot institution was selected because of its proximity. Then, the results of the pilot study were used to validate the psychometric properties of the instruments, as follows:

First, principal components analysis (PCA) was conducted to check the construct validity of the data gathering instruments. Then, the internal consistency of the scales and items was checked through Cronbach's alpha. Before the factor analysis was conducted, the assumptions of the factor analysis were checked. Besides, the data were checked for outliers, and then one extreme outlier was detected and removed from the analysis. So an analysis was made based on the remaining 59 cases. A P-value of 0.05 was used as a cut-off to determine statistically significant variables. The details of each result are presented as follows:

### **3.7.2.3 Factor Analysis**

Before conducting the factor analysis, the data was first checked for factorability. Then Bartlett's test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy were computed to test for the factorability of the data and determine sampling adequacy. An oblique analysis was first computed using oblique with oblimin rotation. Finally, to determine the construct validity of the latent variables in the output of factor analysis, the rotated component matrix was employed. The detailed report is presented as follows:

#### **Principal Components Analysis for Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) Scale**

The adequacy of the sample size was checked. In this case, there are two different approaches to determining the adequacy of sample size for factor analysis: examining the ratio of

subjects to variables and determining the minimum total sample size, as in multiple regression. However, there is no consensus as to which is the more effective criterion.

Regarding this, Guadagnoli and Velicer (1988) reviewed numerous studies that concluded that absolute minimum sample sizes are more important than subject-to-item ratios and they found that these studies range in their recommendations from an N of 50 (Barrett & Kline, 1981) to 400 (Aleamoni, 1976). In the case of this study, it is believed that a sample size of sixty (60) was found adequate for the factor analysis.

Furthermore, Bartlett's test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy were computed to test for the factorability of the data and determine sampling adequacy (see Appendix C on *Table 15*). Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's value for the OLA scale was found to be 0.656, which is above the recommended minimum value of 0.6 (*Fidell, Tabachnick, Mestre, & Fidell, 2013*). Moreover, Bartlett's test of Sphericity yielded a statistically significant value at  $p=.656$  (see Appendix C, *Table 15*). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity tests the adequacy of the correlation matrix and yields a value of 4710.27, and the associated level of significance is smaller than 0.001. This suggests that the FA meets the necessary criteria to proceed.

Moreover, the commonality of the variables was also checked. According to Ho (2006), low values (less than 0.33) could indicate that the item will contribute less to the factors or that it does not fit well with the other items in its component and needs the researcher to discard it. In this regard, items 8 and 26 of the OLA scales have the lowest communality value of 0.212 and 0.287, respectively, for the six-factor solution (see Appendix C, *Table 19*). Thus, they were not included in the analysis. Furthermore, one item, item number 37 of the OLA scale, was not also included in the analysis because respondents repeatedly complained that the item was vague.

In the current study, the oblique rotation extraction method of principal components analysis (PCA) was computed. This is because the rotated factors are assumed to be correlated, for they are psychological factors and are assumed to be interrelated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

The initial principal components analysis (PCA) extracted 15 factors, which explained 74.35% of the variance with an eigenvalue above 1. Kaiser Criterion was lenient, which dictates to consider all factors with Eigenvalues above 1. Since the purpose was to reduce the factors, the stricter Scree plot was used to determine the number of factors extracted. As a result, the scree plot indicated that the graph dropped after six eigenvalues. Then, six components are extracted (see Appendix in Figure 3). Of course, this is also supported by the theoretical explanations of Laub's (1999) OLA model, which has conceptually six underlying constructs.

As indicated in Appendix C, *Table 17*, 52.70 % of the variance in the data matrix is explained by the six factors (components) of the OLA scale, with components contributing 14.78%, 11.65%, 8.56%, 6.65%, 6.16 %, and 4.86% of explained variances, respectively. In the interpretation of these six components, the oblique rotation solution revealed the presence of a simple structure, with both components showing several strong loadings and all variables loading substantially on only one component.

The naming of these factors was made based on critical analysis of each variable that loaded on the same components. So, the variables or items are pulled under one. The six factors are measuring the following underlying constructs respectively: providing leadership, sharing

leadership, displaying authenticity, building an academic community, valuing the faculty, and developing the faculty.

In determining the construct validity of the latent variables, the output of the factor analysis is the rotated component matrix; this final solution is presented in Appendix, *Table V*. The Rotated Component Matrix presents only six rotated factors of the metrics, together with their corresponding items are presented as follows:

Factor I contains nine items (22, 33, 28, 27, 34, 13, 23, 15, & 25) that reflect leadership characteristics such as foreseeing the future, taking initiative, and establishing goals, leveled as provides leadership.

Factor II contains eight items (52, 51, 50, 53, 42, 41, 54, & 44) that reflect the facilitation, power sharing, and status for the common good of each staff, leveled ‘shares leadership.’

Factor III contains eight items (3, 6, 9, 10, 16, 18, 19, & 20) that reflect organizational leadership characteristics such as being open, accountable, and willing to learn from others, leveled as ‘displays authenticity.’

Factor IV contains four items (47, 1, 36, & 17) that purely reflect the delivery of learning, growth, encouragement, and affirmative acts. This factor is leveled as ‘develops the academic staff.’

Factor V contains four items (57, 60, 59, & 55) that reflect serving, and nonjudgmental handling of the staff by the leadership, leveled as ‘values the academic staff.’

Factor VI contains four items (32, 7, 12, & 35) that reflect a sense of affective attachment and belonging to the university and collaborative and personal relationships created in it. This factor is leveled as ‘builds an academic community.’

Finally, the analysis of the organizational leadership assessment (OLA) scale was made based on the above strong loading and adapted 37 items of the scale.

Similarly, validation of the other two scales- affective commitment and turnover intention scales was also conducted. The report of the result is presented as briefly as follows:

#### **Principal Components Analysis (PCA) for the Affective Commitment**

First, the data were checked for the factorability and adequacy of the sample size. the Principal Components Analysis (PCA) extracted one factor, which explained 41.21% of the variance with an eigenvalue above 1 (see appendix C, *Table 21*). The oblique rotation solution revealed the presence of a simple structure, showing several strong loadings and all items loading substantially on only one component (affective commitment).

#### **Principal Components Analysis (PCA) for the Turnover Intention Scale**

A similar procedure was followed before running the PCA on the turnover intention scale. Then, the Principal Components Analysis (PCA) extracted one factor, which explained 51.029% (see Appendix C, *Table 22*) of the variance with an eigenvalue above 1, which dictates considering all factors with an eigenvalue above 1. The oblique rotation solution revealed the presence of a simple structure, showing several strong loading and all five items loading substantially on only one component (turnover intention).

As indicated earlier, validation of the instrument is one of the essential components of a valid outcome. Thus, as part of the validation process, the internal consistency of the three data collecting scales—OLA, AC, and TI—was also checked through Cronbach’s alpha coefficients, and the results are presented as follows:

### 3.7.3.4 Reliability of the Scales

Before the results of the factors were computed and used in subsequent analyses, the internal consistency of each tool was tested to ensure its reliability. Accordingly, the reliability of organizational leadership assessment, affective commitment, and turnover intention scales was checked by Cronbach’s alpha. The following table shows the reliability coefficients of the original, pilot, and final studies on the three scales.

*Table 2* Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficients of the Data Collecting Instruments

Constructs Value	<i>Original</i>		<i>Pilot</i>		<i>Final</i>	
	<i>No. of items</i>	<i>Alpha value</i>	<i>No items</i>	<i>Alpha value</i>	<i>No items</i>	<i>Alpha value</i>
Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA)	60	0.98	37	0.90	37	0.91
Affective Commitment (AC)	6	0.85	6	0.82	6	0.86
Turnover Intention (TI)	5	0.89	5	0.76	5	0.84

As shown in the above table, both the original (reported by the authors), pilot, and final studies indicated acceptable Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for all the three scales. In this case, while different levels of reliability are required, reliability coefficients >0.75 are excellent (Shoukri & Cihon, 1998). Thus, the reliability of all three data gathering scales—organizational leadership assessment, affective commitment, and turnover intention is excellent.

After the validation of the scales, the next step was to modify the tools based on the results of the pilot study and the panelists' comments.

### **3.8 Procedures of Data Collection**

Once the scales had been modified and contextualized, the next phase was gathering the data. First, a support letter was collected from Addis Ababa University, School of Psychology, and taken to the sample universities. Then contact was made with the concerned bodies of the sampled universities. The authorities contacted were informed about the objectives of the research and its participants. Then permission to collect data was secured. Once permission was secured, the questionnaires were distributed by the researcher and research assistants. The questionnaires were distributed by hand.

To make the participants feel comfortable while filling out the survey, a cover letter was attached explaining that their participation is voluntary and that individual responses and personal information remains confidential and be used only for research purposes. To maximize the rate of return, a reminder was used by contacting those who were late to return the questionnaire. Then, this helped in collecting lately filled questionnaires. Once the questionnaires were collected, they were screened to see if they were properly completed or not. The next step was scoring and analyzing the collected data.

The next part of the dissertation deals with analysis of the data.

### **3.9 Data Analysis**

The data collected from the respondents was first fed into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24. Then, it was analyzed using both descriptive (frequency,

percentage, mean, and STD) and inferential statistics, including independent sample t-test, one-way ANOVA, factor analysis, multiple regression, and mediation analysis.

Mainly mean scores were computed to determine the levels of servant leadership, affective commitment, and turnover intention. Pearson's product-moment correlations were computed to examine the significance of relationships between the study variables—servant leadership, affective commitment, and turnover intention.

Besides, to examine if sociodemographic factors, such as sex and academic position, affect the level of turnover intention among participants, a one-way ANOVA and an independent samples t-test were employed. Furthermore, to determine the predictive role of the set of predictor variables (sociodemographic variables, affective commitment, and servant leadership) on the outcome variable (turnover intention), hierarchical multiple regression was employed.

Besides, to examine the mediating role of affective commitment in the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intention, a mediation analysis was conducted. At this point, before conducting all the tests, all the assumptions of the statistical tests were checked. On this point, in conducting the multiple regressions, the assumption of normality of the residuals was checked by examining normal probability plots, and histograms, homoscedasticity, and the linearity of the residuals (see in appendix, Fig. 2). Furthermore, the presence of multicollinearity among independent variables was checked by examining the variance inflation factor (Vif), the coefficients of tolerance and Pearson's correlation (see Appendix 23).

Additionally, the independence of each predictor variable was also checked by Durban Watson. And, the assumption of homogeneity of variance for the independent samples t-test was

examined by Leaven's test. Lastly, the outlier scores were checked through the Mahalanobis distance measure test (see in appendix, Figure 4).

Furthermore, the data collected through the semi-structured interview and open-ended questions were analyzed through thematic analysis and used to consolidate the quantitative results.

### **3.10 Ethical Considerations**

Before the beginning of data collection, written informed consent was obtained from the universities and verbal consent from the study participants. Participants were assured that the information they provided would be kept confidential and used only for academic purposes. And they were informed that they have the right to participate or refuse to take part in the study, and all the records of this study would be kept confidential. And in any kind of report, it would not contain any information that would make it possible to identify a subject. The following section deals with the results of the study.

## **Chapter Four: Results**

In this part of the study, results of the study based on descriptive analysis, correlation analysis, ANOVA, independent t-test, mediation, and regression analysis are presented.

### **4.1 Participant Characteristics in Terms of Socio-demographics**

The extent of servant leadership and the affective commitment of faculty may be influenced by sociodemographic factors. The sociodemographic characteristics of the study participants, including their sex, age, level of experience, and educational status, are shown in the following table.

*Table 3 Sociodemographic Characteristics of Respondents*

Variable		Frequency	Percent
Sex	Males	86	84.3
	Females	16	15.7
	Total	102	100.0
Academic position	BA	27	26.5
	MA	67	65.7
	PhD & above	8	7.8
	Total	102	100.0
University	Semera	34	33.3
	Mekelle	48	47.1
	Addigrat	20	19.6
	Total	102	100.0

*Table 3* shows that there were more male participants (84 %) than female participants (15.7%). This can be a manifestation of the extreme disparity in sex that prevails in Ethiopian higher education institutions. In this case, the data secured from MoE (2017/18) indicate that out of the total of 29, 595 Ethiopian full-time faculty in the Ethiopian PUs, only 14.1% (4173) of them were females in the year 2010 E.C and this is a mere half of the overall low 22.2% average for Sub-Saharan Africa (World Bank, in Yallew, 2020). This might suggest that the University is male-dominated and females are hired disproportionately. This may imply that it is vital for the PUs to empower, recruit and retain more female faculty.

As far as the educational position of participants is concerned, the majority of them (65.7%) are MA/MCS holders, the other (26.5 %) are BA/BSC holders, and only 7.8% of them

are Ph.D. holders. This result is congruent with the statistics secured from the Ethiopian Ministry of Education for the academic year 2015–2016, which indicate that 53% of university faculty hold master’s degrees, while 35% have first-degree qualifications. The percentage of Ph.D. holders was only 11 % (MOE, 2017).

*Table 4* The Mean of Age and Experience of the Respondents

	Mean	STD	N
Age	30.86	6.29	102
Experience	4.27	3.49	102

The result in *Table 4* indicate that the participants' average age was 30.86 years, and their average experience was only 4.27 years. This is somewhat consistent with Tesfaye's (2011) earlier assertion that numerous Ethiopian PUs employ academic staff that is inexperienced, young, and less competent (Ayalew, Dissasa, Tesfaye, & Yalew, 2009). As Mulatu (2019) stated, the fact that there are few experienced staff members in this situation suggests that some may not be drawn to these institutions for a variety of reasons or that they may have left these institutions and joined others. Relatedly, when it comes to the results of the sociodemographic characteristics of the interviewees, five of the nine (56%) former faculty members are currently working at other northern Ethiopian public universities. This situation could partly suggest that employees leave their boss rather than their job and implying the importance of leadership practices in the faculty's turnover intentions.

## 4.2 Levels and relationship among Servant Leadership, Affective Commitment, and Turnover Intention

### 4.2.1 Levels of Servant Leadership, Affective Commitment, and Turnover Intention

Determining the extents of servant leadership, affective commitment, and turnover intention, was one of the objectives of the present study. To this end, the mean and standard deviation of each was calculated. Then, the results are presented in the table below.

*Table 5 Mean & STD of Servant Leadership, Affective Commitment & Turnover Intention*

Descriptive Statistics						
Variable	<i>N</i>	<i>Number of Items</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>STD</i>
Servant leadership	102	37	71.00	174.00	115.1961	20.39852
Affective commitment	102	6	6.00	30.00	19.9412	5.00262
Turnover intention	102	5	5.00	25.00	15.8137	4.00675

Results in *Table 5* showed that the average calculated mean of SL was found to be (Mean = 115.196 and STD =20.399) lower than the mean of the SL scale Mean=111. The same table demonstrates that the average level of affective commitment (Mean =19.94 and STD=5.003). Furthermore, data in the same table also shows that the level of turnover intention was higher (Mean: 15.814, STD=4.007) than the mean of TI scale (Mean=15).

Furthermore, to further examine whether the calculated mean is significantly higher than the scale mean of turnover intention, a single mean t—test was computed and the results are presented in the following table, *Table 6*.

Table 6 One Sample T-Test for Turnover Intention

<b>One-Sample Statistics</b>										
Test Value = 15										
	N	Mean	STD	Std. Error Mean	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower Upper	
Turnover Intention	102	15.814	4.0068	.3967	2.051	101	.043	.8137	.0267	1.6007

As shown in *Table 6* above the calculated mean of turnover intention (TI) was significantly higher (Mean =15.814), STD=4.007) than the average score of SL scale  $t(101) = 2.051, p = .043$ .

#### 4.2.2 Relationship among Servant Leadership, Affective Commitment, and Turnover Intention

One of the goals of the current study was to investigate the relationships between affective commitment, servant leadership, and turnover intention. A Pearson Correlation was performed for this purpose. The result is then displayed in the following table:

Table 7 *Pearson Correlation Coefficients among Servant Leadership, Affective Commitment, and Turnover Intention*

		1	2	3
1	Servant Leadership (SL)	1		
2	Affective Commitment (AC)	.225*	1	
3	Turnover Intentions(TI)	-.214*	-.595**	1

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

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

As shown in *Table 7*, depicts that a significant positive correlation was found between SL and AC ( $r = .225^*$ ,  $p = .05$ , *two-tailed*). On the other hand, data in the same table shows that an inverse and significant relationship was found between AC and TI ( $r = -.595^{**}$ ,  $p = .01$ , *two-tailed*). Besides, a significant and negative relationship was found between SL and TI ( $r = -.214$ ,  $p = .01$ , *two-tailed*).

#### 4.2.3 Levels of Servant Leadership, Affective Commitment, and Turnover Intention by Sociodemographic Factors

One of the research questions raised in this study, was whether there is significant relationship between participants' sociodemographic variables (sex, age, academic position, and experience) with their level of SL, AC, and TI. Hence, to deal with this question, one-way ANOVA, and independent-samples t-tests were computed and the results are presented in Tables (8-108) below.

An independent-samples t-test was employed to examine if there is a significant difference in the levels of servant leadership, affective commitment, and turnover intention between female and male respondents. The results are presented in the following table.

*Table 8* Independent-Samples t-Test on Servant Leadership, Affective Commitment and Turnover Intention Variables by Sex

	Group Statistics				t	df	p-value
	sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation			
Servant Leadership	M	86	108.5465	20.74192	-.583	100	.099
	F	16	111.6875	13.20969			
Affective Commitment	M	86	20.0698	5.02884	.600	100	.820
	F	16	19.2500	4.95984			
Turnover intention	M	86	15.6512	4.09237	-.950	100	.513
	F	16	16.6875	3.49702			

As depicted in *Table 8* above, no statistically significant difference was found in the level of servant leadership between male participants ( $M = 108.55$ ,  $STD = 20.547$ ,  $N = 86$ ) and female participants ( $M = 111.69$ ,  $STD = 13.21$ ). This test was found to be statistically non-significant,  $t(100) = -.583$ ,  $p = .099$ . Similarly, the same table (*Table 8*) shows that no statistically significant difference was found in the level of AC between male participants ( $M = 20.07$ ,  $STD = 5.029$ ,  $N = 86$ ) and female participants ( $M = 19.52$ ,  $STD = 4.96$ ,  $N = 16$ ). This test was found to be statistically non-significant ( $t(100) = -.600$ ,  $p = .820$ ). Moreover, data in the same table indicates that no statistically significant difference was found in the TI of male ( $M = 15.65$ ,  $STD = 4.09$ ,  $N = 86$ ) and female participants ( $M = 16.69$ ,  $STD = 3.50$ ,  $N = 16$ ). This test was found to be statistically non-significant,  $t(100) = -.950$ ,  $p = .513$ . This result indicates that sex has no significant relationship with both SL, AC and TI.

Furthermore, to examine if there is a significant difference in the level of SL, AC and TI of the faculty, by their academic position, a one-way ANOVA was computed. The results are summarized and displayed as follows.

Table 9 One-Way ANOVA on Servant Leadership, Affective Commitment and Turnover Intention across Academic Position

<i>Descriptives</i>		<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>		<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P-value</i>
	<i>Academic position</i>									
<i>Servant Leadership</i>	<i>BA</i>	27	117.2593	16.61693	<i>Between Groups</i>	157.272	2	78.636	.186	.831
	<i>MA/ MSc</i>	67	114.4925	21.95959	<i>Within Groups</i>	41868.806	99	422.917		
	<i>PhD &amp; above</i>	8	114.1250	20.22331	<i>Total</i>	42026.078	101			
	<i>Total</i>	102	115.1961	20.39852						
<i>Affective commitment</i>	<i>BA</i>	27	18.5926	4.26307	<i>Between Groups</i>	101.277	2	50.638	1.903	.155
	<i>MA/ MSc</i>	67	19.3134	5.57921	<i>Within Groups</i>	2634.811	99	26.614		
	<i>PhD &amp; above</i>	8	22.6250	3.92565	<i>Total</i>	101.277	2			
	<i>Total</i>	102	19.3824	5.20480						
<i>Turnover intention</i>	<i>BA</i>	27	17.2222	3.89609	<i>Between Groups</i>	123.468	2	61.734	3.735	.027***
	<i>MA</i>	67	16.2388	4.16730	<i>Within Groups</i>	1636.346	99	16.529		
	<i>PhD &amp; above</i>	8	12.7500	3.69362	<i>Total</i>	123.468	101			
	<i>Total</i>	102	16.2255	4.17419						

\*\*\*  $P < 0.001$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.01$ ; \*  $p < 0.05$

As shown in *Table 9*, the ANOVA result ( $F = .186, df= 2, 99; p > .05$ ) tested at the alpha 0.05 level of significance suggested that the resulting difference among the groups based on their educational status regarding their perception of SL was not found to be statistically significant. This indicates that the academic position of the faculty does not affect their level of servant leadership.

On the same table (*Table 9*), the ANOVA result  $F (2,99) = 1.507, p > .05$ , tested at the alpha 0.05 level of significance, shows that the resulting difference among the groups, based on their qualification regarding their AC, was not found to be statistically significant. This indicates that the academic position of the staff does not affect the level of AC of the faculty.

On the contrary, the ANOVA was significant at the .05 level,  $F (2,99) = 3.735, p = .027$ , which revealed the groups' intentions to quit their organization differed depending on their educational position or status. According to the mean values of TI, there was a statistically significant difference between the faculty members' levels of TI due to their educational rank/position (BA;  $M = 17.22$ ; MA;  $M = 16.24$ ; Ph.D. & above;  $M = 12.75$ ;  $STD = 3.69$ ). This result demonstrates that the educational position of the faculty significantly influences their level of TI.

The highly significant F-ratio ( $p < .05$ ) in *Table 9* above reveals that the staff's mean score for the intention to leave the organization varies significantly based on their level of education. However, it does not specify where this discrepancy is located. For that reason, post-hoc comparison procedures, notably Hochberg's GT2 test, were computed to identify whether the total difference is mostly due to the difference between first-degree holders and Masters holders,

between Masters holders and Ph.D. holders, or between first-degree holders and Ph.D. holders. The following table displays the findings of the post-hoc comparison.

Since the group size was unequal, as recommended by Pallant (2007), Hochberg’s GT2 test was employed in the present study. Levene’s statistic for homogeneity of variance was found to be .068, which is not statistically. Therefore, homogeneity was not a problem for running the post hoc tests and the results are presented in *Table 10* below.

*Table 10* Post-Hoc Tests on Turnover Intention by Academic position

Multiple Comparisons				
Dependent Variable: turnover intention				
Hochberg				
(I) Academic position	(J) Academic position	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
BA	MA	.98342	.92675	.641
	PhD & above	4.47222*	1.63654	.022
MA	BA	-.98342	.92675	.641
	PhD & above	3.48881	1.52079	.070
PhD and above	BA	-4.47222*	1.63654	.022
	MA	-3.48881	1.52079	.070

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

*Table 10* shows that faculty with a rank of BA and MA/MSC showed a significantly higher level of TI than faculty with a higher educational rank, Ph.D. & above ( $p = .027$ ). According to this finding, faculty members with BA/BSC degrees revealed a considerably higher degree of TI than faculty members with an advanced level of education (Masters & Ph.D.). However, there were no significant differences between the mean TI of Masters holders and BA/BSC holders ( $p = .641$ ) or Masters holders & Ph.D. holders ( $p = .070$ ).

### 4.3 Prediction of Turnover Intention from Servant Leadership, Affective Commitment, and Socio-Demographic Variables

One of the objectives of this study was to determine the extent to which the presumed predictor variables of servant leadership and affective commitment predict turnover intentions. To this end, Hierarchical Multiple Regression analysis,  $\alpha = .05$  (two-tailed) was conducted. The results of the hierarchical multiple regressions are presented in the following table.

Table 11 Hierarchical Multiple Regressions for Socio-demographic Variable Affective Commitment, and Servant Leadership for Turnover Intention as Dependent Variable

Model Summary										
Model	<i>R</i>	<i>R Square</i>	<i>Adjusted R Square</i>	<i>Std. Error of the Estimate</i>	<i>Change Statistics</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>Sig. F Change</i>
1	.267 <sup>a</sup>	.071	.033	3.94045	.071	1.857	4	97	.124	
2	.474 <sup>b</sup>	.225	.176	3.63812	.153	9.396	2	95	.000	

a. Predictors: (Constant), experience in years, sex, academic position, age

b. Predictors: (Constant), experience in years, sex, academic position, age, servant leadership, affective commitment

In the Model Summary in *Table 11*, Model 1 represents the entry of the first set of socio-demographic variables alone (yielded a non-significant prediction equation,  $F(4, 96) = .124, p > .001$ ). *Model 2*: entry of the 2<sup>nd</sup> set of variables-servant leadership & affective commitment-resulted in an overall significant prediction equation,  $F(2, 95) = 9.396, p .000, p < .001$ . This suggests that servant leadership and affective commitment represent a significantly more powerful set of predictors than the set of sociodemographic factors (sex, experience, age & educational position/rank).

#### 4.4 Predicting Servant Leadership and Affective Commitment from Demographic Factors

The other objective of this research was to examine if sociodemographic factors significantly predict servant leadership and affective commitment. To this end, standard multiple regressions were computed. The results of which are presented in the following two consecutive tables (Tables 12 and 13).

Table 12 Standard Multiple Regression for Servant Leadership as Dependent Variable

ANOVA <sup>a</sup>						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1232.515	4	308.129	.733	.572 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	40793.564	97	420.552		
	Total	42026.078	101			

a. Dependent Variable: Servant Leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), experience, sex, academic position, age

In the Model Summary in *Table 12*, the set of sociodemographic variables (sex, age, experience, and academic position) yielded a non-significant prediction equation ( $F(4, 97) = .733, p > .001$ ).

Likewise, a standard multiple regression was computed to examine if sociodemographic factors significantly predicted the affective commitment of the participants. The result of which is displayed in the following table (*Table 13*).

Table 13 Standard Multiple Regression for affective commitment as Dependent Variable

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	247.180	4	61.795	2.408	.055 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	2488.908	97	25.659		
	Total	2736.088	101			

a. Dependent Variable: Affective commitment

b. Predictors: (Constant), sex, age, experience in years, and academic position

In the Model Summary in *Table 13*, the set of sociodemographic variables yielded a non-significant prediction equation,  $F(4, 97) = 2.408, p > .001$ .

#### 4.5 The Mediating Role of Affective Commitment between Servant Leadership and Affective Commitment

Examining the mediating role of affective commitment in the relationship between SL and TI was one of the major objectives of the present study. To this end, simple and multiple regressions were run. First, a simple regression between one predictor variable (servant leadership) and the outcome variable (turnover intention) was run. Then, a second predictor variable (affective commitment) was added. After the second predictor was added to the simple regression between one predictor variable (servant leadership) and one outcome variable (turnover intention), multiple regressions were run between the two predictors and the outcome variable. Then, the results are displayed in the following table 14.

Table 14 The Mediating Role of Affective Commitment in the Relationship between Servant Leadership and Turnover Intention

Coefficients <sup>a</sup>		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
Model		<i>B</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	Beta ( $\beta$ )			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	21.290	2.338		9.107	.000	16.214	25.118
	Servant Leadership	-.044	.020	-.214	-2.200	.030	-.080	-.004
2	(Constant)	27.189	2.100		12.945	.000	20.357	29.671
	Servant Leadership	-.017	.017	-.085	-1.035	.303	-.064	.008
	Affective Commitment	-.462	.066	-.576	-6.985	.000	-.449	-.154

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

The first model in *Table 14* uses servant leadership (SL) as the sole predictor, while the second model adds the variable AC as a predictor variable. Here, we can see that when AC is added to AL, the previously significant beta-value ( $t = -1.035, p = .030$ ) when used alone becomes no longer statistically significant ( $t = -1.035, p = .303$ ).

- i. As displayed in *Table 14*, the variation in the levels of SL (IV) significantly account for the variation in turnover intention (DV) in the absence of AC (mediator), with a value of  $\beta$  coefficient =  $-.214^*$ .
- ii. The IV is significantly related to the mediator. As indicated in an earlier table (*Table 7*), servant leadership (the IV) was significantly related to AC (mediator) and the value of  $r = .225^*$

- iii. As displayed in *Table 14*, the variation in the levels affective commitment (mediator) significantly account for the variation in the turnover intention (the DV), with the value of  $\beta = -.576^*$ .
- iv. The effect of the independent variable (the IV) on the dependent variable (DV) becomes statistically non-significant upon the addition of the mediator in the equation. As indicated in *Table 14* above, when AC is added into the equation of SL-TI, the beta ( $\beta$ ) coefficient is reduced from a significant value ( $-.215^*$ ) into a non-significant value ( $-.085$ ). The details of the standard regression coefficients for the relationship between SL, TI, and AC are presented diagrammatically in the following figure.

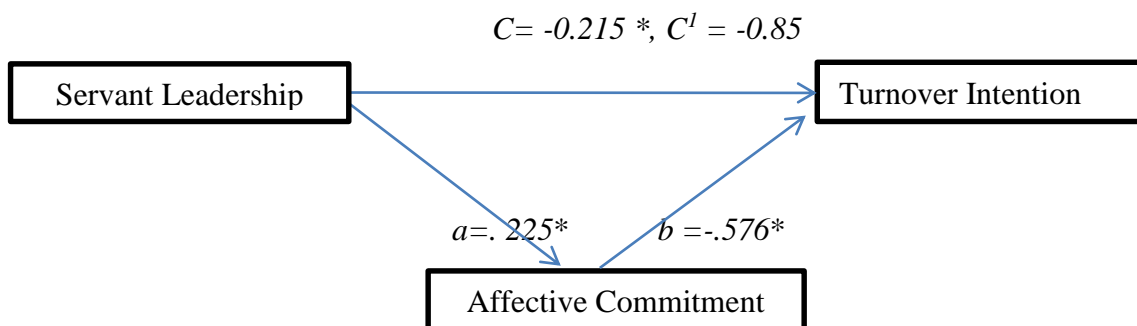


Figure 2 *Standard Regression Coefficients for the Relationship between Servant Leadership and Turnover Intention as Mediated by Affective Commitment.*

NB. The standardized regression coefficient between servant leadership and affective commitment and, controlling for affective commitment was found significant at ( $P < 0.05$ ).

As can be seen from the above figure, the regression weight between one predictor (SL) and one dependent variable (TI) was significant, and the beta value (Path C) was  $-.214^*$ . But, after AC (the second predictor) was added into the equation and multiple regressions were run

between two predictors (SL and AC) and one outcome variable (TI), the previously significant beta (-.214\*) was reduced to a non-significant beta (-.0.85).

The following section of the thesis deals with the results of the open-ended questions and the results of the interview. To consolidate the responses of the quantitative data (results of the closed-ended items), three open-ended items were added to the Likert scale items of the questionnaire and distributed to the respondents.

The responses to the open-ended items were analyzed through thematic analysis. That is, major themes and sub-themes were extracted from the responses to the open-ended items. The responses of the participants were tallied, counted, and ranked based on their frequency. The participants' responses were totaled, numbered, and ranked in order of frequency. The results are presented as follows:

One of the questions presented to the respondents was, “Do you have the intention to quit working at this university?” (Item number 1). Thirty-one (30%) of the respondents stated that they have the intention to leave the organization shortly for various reasons, while forty-five (44%) of the respondents indicated that they have no intention to leave their university shortly, either in the hopes that things will be better, in the belief that they must make some sacrifices to change the problems that are currently present, or because they are more or less comfortable with it. The remaining twenty-seven (26%) of them were undecided about whether they would leave.

When it comes to the results of the major reasons cited for intending to leave their current organization include:

- The first set of primary factors they cited had to do with organizational leadership issues and included things such as leadership practices that do not value and treat staff equally and which benefit only it and its close allies, are highly centralized, lack communication with and participation from the staff in decision-making, are not staff-friendly, and are overly preoccupied with receiving requests from and reporting.
- The second major reason they cited is related to the search for better jobs and opportunities in other institutions, which is related to an economic problem (inadequacy of salary and fringe benefits to meet personal needs in the current organization);
- The third major reason is related to family factors (distance from family);
- The fifth main reason is related to personal factors (such as health issues); and the sixth major reason is related to unhappiness with the area.

The respondents were also requested to provide ideas they had for reducing faculty turnover. The recommendations include increasing the faculty staff's benefits and salary as well as reforming the leadership approaches of the university, valuing and treating all staff members fairly, and communicating with and involving them in major decisions.

The selected former faculty members indicated the following reasons in order when asked to describe the primary reasons they left their former organization: financial (in search of higher-paying jobs, benefits, and housing conditions), as well as personal and familial considerations. Although not the primary cause, issues with organizational leadership at the university were also mentioned.

## **Chapter Five: Discussion**

This chapter presents a discussion of the results of the study. The chapter is organized in line with the objectives of the study. Thus, it consists of four sections: (1) levels of servant leadership, affective commitment, and turnover intention; (2) relationships among servant leadership, affective commitment, and turnover intention; (3) predicting turnover intention (4) the mediating role of affective commitment in the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intention. In this case, attempts have been made to explain the results and elaborate on the extent to which the findings were consistent with or contrary to previous empirical results and theoretical explanations.

### **5.1 The extent of Servant Leadership, Affective Commitment, and Turnover Intention of Faculty in Ethiopian Public Universities**

Concerning the level of SL, the result revealed that the average-mean score of SL was found to be below the mean score of the organizational leadership assessment scale (OLAs). The score of 4.0 the cutoff point score for classifying an organization as "servant" and those institutions that have an overall score of  $\geq 4.0$  will be considered servant organizations (Laub, 2003). In this study, the average SL mean score of the Pus was found to be (2.93), which is below the mean of the SL scale. This finding implies that the target universities seem not servant-oriented organizations. Demonstrating that the leadership approaches used in the universities place less value on the faculty, work less to empower them, don't seem that they promote teamwork, and share leadership. In this case, prior studies found inconsistent results on the issue.

Consistent with the result of the current study, Zeleke (2014) compared the existing leadership practices at Ethiopian HEIS with the SL practice, which he asserts is the ideal

leadership approach for Ethiopian HEIs, and came to the conclusion that the two are different. Furthermore, Zeleke's (2014) finding, which discovered and argues that though leadership is 75 % about people and 25 % about others, the inability to work effectively with people is one of the major weaknesses of the leadership in Ethiopian HEIs, calls for the need to review the leadership practices of the PUs and to adopt and foster better leadership approaches, such as SL culture in combination with other leadership approaches, and to be role models in this case.

On the contrary, Alemayehu (2021) carried out his research at Kotebe Metropolitan University and found that servant leadership is effectively being practiced there. As a result, he came to the conclusion that the institution may be categorized as a servant-oriented organization. This could be because servant leadership practice was assessed from the perspective of senior leaders and other staff members in Alemayehu's study, while servant leadership was assessed only from the perspective of the faculty in the current study. This could be a result of the fact that leaders typically rate their own leadership practices better than they do their subordinates. Similarly, Feleke (2014) conducted his study, from this perspective, on a conveniently selected HEIs leaders and faculties and his own retroactive observations' of the leadership practices of the HEIS.

In general, with regard to the practice of SL, it is argued that since the PUs are significant providers of leadership education, it makes sense to assume that they will practice what they preach in terms of best leadership practices such as the SL and actively participate in fostering such leadership cultures, and exhibit these types of moral and people-centered leadership (Moll & Kretzschmar, 2017).

Concerning the extent of affective commitment (AC) of faculty, the average level of AC was found to be closer to the mean of the AC scale. In this case, Meyer, Stanley, and Parfyonova (2012) used the term “moderate commitment” to refer to the results that are closest to the mean score. Accordingly, in this study, the level of faculty AC with their respective universities was found to be moderate. Consistent with the present study, a recent local study by Kassaw and Golga (2019) found a moderate level of AC among faculty at both Haromaya University and Adama Science and Technology University.

When it comes to the extent of faculty turnover intention, the result of the one sample t-test shows that the calculated mean is significantly higher than the mean of the turnover intention scale. This suggests that faculty at the target universities have a higher level of intention to voluntarily leave their respective organizations. Somewhat similar to this result, local studies on a similar population by Binyam and Getahun (2020), and Yimer et al. (2017) found that Ethiopian HEIs are characterized by high level of faculty turnover. This calls for serious attention and intervention from all stakeholders.

## **5.2 Relationship among Servant Leadership, Affective Commitment, and Turnover Intention, and Sociodemographic Variables**

### **5.2.1 Relationship Among Servant Leadership, Affective Commitment, and Turnover Intention**

The results of the correlation analysis showed that the level of servant leadership (SL) was found to be inversely and significantly related to the level of turnover intention (TI) of the faculty of the sampled Ethiopian PUs. Consistent with this result, earlier researchers have found similar results in the context of HEIs and other settings. For instance, Harris, Hinds,

Manansingh, Rubino, and Morote (2016) and Brohi et al. (2018) found that SL is inversely related with intentions to quit among faculty working in the contexts of higher education, both private and public schools.

Besides the results of the correlation analysis revealed a significant positive relationship was found between the levels of SL and AC. Correspondingly, a recent empirical study by Aboramadan et al. (2020) also found a positive and significant relationship between the level of SL and AC in the context of higher education. This result suggests that when the faculty perceives that the leadership of their university is exhibiting servant leadership practices, they are more likely to be emotionally attached to it, and vice versa.

Furthermore, the result of the correlation revealed the presence of a significant and an inverse relationship between the level of AC and TI of the faculty. Similarly, a previous study on a similar population by Temesgen (2014) found a negative and statistically significant relationship between AC and TI, in the context of the faculty of Ethiopian PUs. This suggests that academic staff with a strong AC are less likely to quit their universities, and vice versa. Similarly, earlier studies outside higher educational settings have also found a statistically significant negative correlation between AC and TI (Kanwar et al., 2012; Toscano, 2015; Yücel, 2012).

All of the aforementioned studies highlight the value of the academic staff's AC, in reducing their TI and, ultimately, their departure.

### **5.2.2 Relationship between Levels of Servant Leadership, Affective Commitment and Turnover Intention and Sociodemographic Factors**

Investigating the possible effect of various sociodemographic characteristics (age, sex, experience, and academic position) on the levels of SL, AC, and TI was one the other goal of the current study. To this end, an independent-samples t-tests and one-way ANOVA were performed.

The outcome of the independent-samples t-test demonstrates that there is no correlation between servant leadership and sex. Similarly, an earlier research study by Jacobs (2011) found that sex was not associated with the level of SL, in the contexts of particular college educational centers. According to the study's findings, all members of the faculty, regardless of their sex, believe that the organizational leadership of the target universities lacks SL features.

Similarly, the result of the independent-samples t-test indicates that sex has no significant relationship with TI. In this case, prior studies found mixed results on the relationship between sex and TI. In in agreement with the result of the current study, earlier studies by Victoria and Olalekan (2016) & Yimer et al. (2017) found no significant relationship between sex and TI. By the same token, in his review of empirical studies, Belete (2018) found that sex was not significantly related to TI. This suggests that regardless of their sex, the academic staff's intention to leave the Pus is higher.

On the contrary, local studies by Meskerem (2010) & Mulu (2014) found that intention to leave was higher among the female faculty than among the male faculty in their studies at Addis Ababa and Haromaya Universities, respectively. A possible explanation for this difference might be that there could be some improvements in the institutional climate, which contributes to the

relative reduction of the turnover intention gap between males and females, in the Ethiopian PUs after these two studies, Meskerem's and Mulu's, were conducted some eleven and seven years ago, respectively.

Correspondingly, the result of the independent-samples t-test indicates that sex is not significantly related to the level of affective commitment of the faculty. In harmony with this result, an earlier study in a similar population and setting by Temesgen (2014) found that none of the sociodemographic variables (sex, age, and academic position, service years) showed a significant relationship with affective commitment.

Furthermore, to scrutinize if there is a significant difference in the level of servant leadership, affective commitment, and turnover intention of the faculty academic position, a one-way ANOVA was computed. The results of the ANOVA test revealed that the academic position of the faculty did not show a significant difference in the level of their SL. This finding is partly consistent with earlier research by Salameh, Al-Wyzinany, and Al-Omari (2012), which indicated that faculty members' levels of SL at two institutions, in Jordan and Saudi Arabia, were not significantly different by their educational backgrounds/position.

Similarly, the result of the one-way ANOVA shows that the qualification (academic position) did not show significant difference in the level of AC that the faculty have to their respective universities. In agreement with this result, previous studies by Temesgen (2014), Nkhukhu-Orlando et al. (2019), and Tilaye (2010) found no significant differences in the level of affective commitment by academic position in the contexts of Ethiopian PUs, University of Botswana, and Addis Ababa HEIs respectively. This demonstrates that academic position/status may not have a significant difference on the level of faculty AC.

However, the one-way ANOVA analyses showed the presence of a statistically significant difference between the faculty members' intentions to leave due to their educational status. Moreover, the results of the post-hoc comparison technique, specifically Hochberg's GT2 test, showed that faculty with first degree demonstrated a statistically significant higher level of TI compared to faculty with higher levels of education (second & third degree). The latter two groups did not significantly differ in terms of TI.

The above-mentioned result is congruent with the results of prior studies. For instance, Meskerem (2010) found that faculty with the rank of lecturer left Addis Ababa University more within five consecutive years, from 2005 to 2009. This may be the case because academics with a lecturer are relatively young and can adjust in other institution than those with Ph.D. & above.

### **5.3 Prediction of Turnover Intention from Servant Leadership, Affective Commitment, and Sociodemographic**

#### **5.3.1 Prediction of Turnover Intention from Servant Leadership, Affective Commitment, and Sociodemographic Factors**

One of the objectives of the study was to examine whether the level of servant leadership (SL), and affective commitment (AC) significantly predicted the turnover intention (TI) of the faculty in the target Ethiopian PUs. The result of multiple regressions revealed that SL and AC significantly predicted TI. It is thus expected that faculties who perceive that their university is engaged in servant leadership practices and who have a strong psychological bond with their university will be less likely to want to quit the organization, and vice versa.

The other objective of this study was to examine whether sociodemographic variables (sex, age, educational position/status, and experience) predict the TI of the faculty in Ethiopian

PUs. The results of the multiple regressions suggest that sociodemographic variables as a group (sex, age, educational position/level, and experience) did not significantly predict the TI of the staff.

But, in this study, it was found that educational position is significantly related to TI. This indicates that there is a significant mean difference in the level of turnover intention among the faculty due to their academic position. That is, it was found that faculty with a BA degree have significantly higher turnover intentions than those who hold Ph.D. and master's degrees. In this case, previous studies found inconsistent results. For instance, Hilina (2011) found no statistically significant relationship between teachers' level of academic position and TI in her study on teachers in Addis Ababa schools. On the contrary, Islam, Ahmad, and Ahmed (2013) found that as the employees' level of education and marketability increased, turnover intentions increased. Thus, it calls for further investigation.

### **5.3.2 Prediction of Servant Leadership and Affective Commitment from Sociodemographic Factors**

The other objective of this research was to examine if sociodemographic factors significantly predict servant leadership and affective commitment. To this end, standard multiple regressions were computed. Results of the multiple regressions portray that sociodemographic factors (sex, age, experience, and academic position) do not significantly predict the level of SL of the faculty. Relatedly, finding, an earlier study by Jacobs (2011) discovered that the sociodemographic factors (sex, experience, age, and academic position) were not significantly associated to the level of SL.

Correspondingly, the result of the multiple regressions reveals that the above mentioned sociodemographic factors did not significantly predict the level of AC of the faculty. Similar to the findings of the study, an earlier study on a similar population by Temesgen (2014) found that none of the sociodemographic variables of sex, age, qualification, and service years showed a statistically significant relationship with AC.

#### **5.4 Mediating Role of Affective Commitment in the Relationship between Servant Leadership and Turnover Intention**

The other major objective of the current study was to examine if affective commitment mediates the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intentions.

According to Baron and Kenny (1986), a variable functions as a mediator when it meets the following four conditions: first, the IV is significantly related to the DV in the absence of the mediator. Second, the IV must be significantly related to the mediator. Third, the mediator variable must be significantly related to the outcome, and last, the effect of the IV on the DV must become statistically not significant upon the addition of the mediator in the equation.

The results of the mediation analysis revealed all four conditions set by Baron and Kenny (1986) were met. That is, the IV (servant leadership) was found to be significantly related to the DV (turnover intention) in the absence of the suspected mediator variable (affective commitment). Second, the IV (servant leadership) was found to be significantly related to the suspected mediator variable (affective commitment). Third, the suspected mediator variable (affective commitment) was found to be significantly related to the outcome variables (turnover intention). Fourth, the effect of the IV (servant leadership) on the DV (turnover intention) has

become statistically not significant upon the addition of the suspected mediator variable (AC) in the equation.

Thus, in the case of the current study, all four conditions stated by Baron and Kenny (1986) and the criteria stated by Field (2017) and Howell (2016) are met. This evidence shows that affective commitment partially mediates the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intention.

Additionally, the significance of the mediating effect could also be tested through a bootstrapping technique— a resampling strategy used to estimate population parameters and their confidence intervals—especially in situations where the assumptions of the parameter are not met or violated (Hayes, 2018). Thus, in this study, the significance of the mediating effect of AC was tested on 5000 iterations of the bootstrap procedure. The upper limit of the bootstrap (BootLLCI) was -0.518, and the upper limit of the bootstrap (BootULCI) was found to be -0.002. Thus, the mediating effect of AC was found to be significant, for there is no zero in between the upper and lower limits of Bootstrap.

Both tests evidence that affective commitment partially mediates the relationship between SL and TI. In agreement with the result of the current study, earlier research findings by Yavas, Jha, and Babakus (2015), Kashyap and Rangnekar (2016), & Jang and Kandampully (2018) found that the relationship between SL and TI is partially mediated by AC. These results show that SL has a direct influence on AV, but it is related indirectly TI, through AC. This indicates that when the faculty feels that the leadership practice at the university serves their needs, they may feel obligated to reciprocate that treatment. One way to do so is to develop a

sense of belongings and be emotionally committed to the organization, which can lead to lower turnover intentions (TI).

In line with the above-stated result, Timiyo (2016) showed that SL has a trickle-down effect on followers' attitudes toward work that eventually translates to a productive workforce in the long run. This empirical finding is consistent with the social exchange theory, which explains how servant leadership encourages positive attitudes and behaviors at work (Blau, 1964).

When it comes to the results of the open-ended item section of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to indicate if they have the intention to leave their current university shortly. Besides, they were asked to indicate the major reasons if they intended to do so. A significant number (30) of the respondents stated that they had the intention to leave the organization shortly. The major reasons they mentioned were a combination of economic reasons (in search of better jobs and benefits), family factors, unhappiness with the area, a lack of fair educational opportunities, personal factors, and organizational leadership problems.

Somehow different from the results of the open-ended items in the responses of the faculty of the sampled university, the result of the interview with the selected former faculty members of the sampled universities indicates that the major reasons they mentioned for leaving their former organization include a combination of various factors such as economic reasons (in search of better living, jobs, and benefits), personal, and family factors.

Though the degree varies, in the results of both the above open-ended items and the interview questions, problems related to organizational leadership practices were among the most consistently cited reasons, for the turnover and turnover intention of the former and current faculty of the sample universities, respectively. Somehow consonant with the results of the

current study, local studies by Bayissa and Zewdie (2010) and Yimer et al. (2017) found that poor organizational leadership was one of the most frequently cited reasons for staff leaving, preceded by a bad work environment and followed by inadequate salary, in their study at Jimma and Madda Walabu Universities, respectively. Similarly, an earlier study by Tesfaye (2011) found that respondents' "dissatisfaction with the college administration" ranked third next to "bad salary scale", and "unfavorable working conditions" in his study of the push factors that discourage faculty from staying in Ethiopian HEIs.

Correspondingly, a recent study by Kalayu et al. (2020) found that the push factors, which are internal to the organization and which can be controlled, have a greater positive and significant contribution than the pull factors—external and uncontrolled factors—that attract the employee to a new place of work. All the identified push factors, except the salary issue, are related in one way or another to the organizational leadership practices of the PUs. These include an inadequate salary, inadequate fringe benefits, inadequate motivation and encouragement, the existence of unfair treatment, and a less comfortable working environment for the faculty. Somewhat similar, an empirical study conducted by MoE has also found that undemocratic leadership practices are among the major challenges in Ethiopian higher education institutions (MoE, 2017).

## **VI Summary, Conclusion, Recommendations, Research Limitations and Implication for Future Studies**

### **6.1 Summary**

This study was intended to examine the level and the relationship between servant leadership (SL), affective commitment (AC), and turnover intentions (TI) among faculty at selected Ethiopian PUs. Moreover, the study investigated the mediating role of AC in the relationship between SL and TI. To this end, both a descriptive, and a correlational study design was employed.

A sample of 153 faculty members from three Ethiopian PUs, which were selected through a stratified random sampling technique, was used as a data source. Besides, to consolidate the evidences, data were collected through a semi-structured interview with nine ex-faculty members of the sampled universities, which were selected through a snowball sampling method.

Three standardized scales—Laub's (1999) organizational leadership assessment scale (containing sixty items), Allen and Meyer's (1990) affective commitment scale (having six item), and Harrington et al. (2001) turnover intention scales (having five items)—were adopted to measure the levels of SL, AC, and TI, respectively.

When it comes to validation of the instruments, construct validity, and reliability of the data gathering instruments were checked. The content validity of the scales was examined by a group of panelists consisting of five members. Following experts' evaluation of the clarity and relevance of the items, the inter-rater agreement coefficients were determined, modifications were made accordingly, and then a pilot study was conducted to test the feasibility of techniques,

methods, and data gathering tools. The pilot study was conducted on a total sample of sixty faculty members. Then, their responses were used to validate the psychometric properties of the instruments, as follows:

First, the internal consistency of the data gathering tools and items was checked through Cronbach's alpha and was found to be above the acceptable value. Then, factor analysis was conducted to determine the reliability, data quality, and construct validity of the items of the data gathering instrument.

Coming to the data analysis, the collected data were analyzed using Statistical Package. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the quantitative data. Thematic analysis was applied to analyze data secured by the three opened items of the questionnaire and from the interview.

Besides, the results of the descriptive analysis indicated that the levels of SL, AC and TI were found to be low, moderate, and high, respectively. Moreover, both servant leadership and affective commitment were found to be positively and significantly related to each other and they both are significantly and inversely related to turnover intention.

The result of multiple regression analysis has also revealed servant leadership and affective commitment significantly predicted turnover intention, while the sociodemographic variables did not.

Moreover, the mediation analysis unveils that affective commitment partially mediates the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intention. That is, servant organizational leadership influences turnover intention indirectly through the mediating variable, affective commitment. This implies that the greater the tendency for faculty to report that the

leadership practices of the university are primarily servant-oriented, the greater the tendency for them to be emotionally bonded to their organization and the less likely they are to intend to leave it.

Besides, the results of the open-ended and interview questions indicate that poor leadership practices appear to be one of the main issues in the target PUs, negatively affecting faculty turnover and intention to leave the department.

## **6.2 Conclusions**

The conclusions of this study are as follows:

The result of the current study has revealed that there is a higher faculty turnover intention in Ethiopian PUs. This would definitely damage both the reputation of the institutions and the quality of education and service provided. So, it is concluded that the issue of faculty turnover intention and turnover calls for serious attention and immediate intervention, by the PUs and all stakeholders.

To assure their quality, maintain their reputation, become competent, and above all, to enhance the scope of knowledge production and dissemination, the PUs needs to intervene to reduce faculty turnover.

The other most obvious conclusion that comes out of this study was that strengthening the affective organizational commitment (psychological bond) of the academics in northern Ethiopian public universities will lower their intention to leave their respective organizations. Moreover, promoting servant leadership would directly enhance the psychological bond that the faculty have and indirectly reduce their turnover intention in the context of Ethiopian PUs.

Furthermore, this study show that the target northern Ethiopian public universities do not seem servant-oriented organizations. This calls for the PUs to review their leadership practices, adopt and foster the SL culture, and be role models for other institutions, in this respect.

### **6.3 Recommendations**

Based on the results, the study forwarded the following recommendations.

To reduce the turnover of their faculty, the northern Ethiopian public universities, need to create a reliable academic environment and design and implement strategies that could enhance affective organizational commitment of the academic staff.

Besides, to enhance the affective organizational commitment of the faculty and thereby reduce their turnover intention and turnover, the public universities need to consider the needs and concerns of the faculty and practice and cultivate SL organizational values. That is, the sample PUs and others must make significant efforts to create a strong academic community (promote a work environment that values collaboration, partnerships, relationships, and teamwork among coworkers), value and develop their faculty (listen, trust, serve, provide learning opportunities, involve them in decisions that directly or indirectly affect them, and assist them to become better at what they do), share leadership (resources, knowledge, and information), and promote an open communication.

### **6.4 Research Limitations and Implication for Future Studies**

Although the paper could provide empirical and theoretical implications, it still has some limitations that need to be considered while interpreting the results. The first limitation is related to generalizability; as the evidence for this study is only from three selected Ethiopian PUs, the

results may not apply to all Ethiopian HEIs. Future studies should, therefore, be extended to other HEIs, both private and government.

Besides, this study has employed mainly a quantitative method and a cross-sectoral design. Thus, future studies need to incorporate qualitative methods and longitudinal data to validate the findings.

Additionally, this study has attempted to examine the relationship between leadership practices, affective commitment, and turnover intention only from the perspective of faculty. Hence, future research should also consider the perspectives of other stakeholders. The population for this study was limited to the faculty of three selected northern Ethiopian public universities. Thus, it would be helpful to validate the findings at other HEIs, both private and public.

Moreover, future studies need to examine the roles of other important factors (such as pay and benefits, job satisfaction, and important sociodemographic variables such as ethnicity, etc.) on turnover intention. Furthermore, this study focused on servant leadership. Other types of leadership such as transformational laissez-faire, and transactional leadership styles were not investigated. These types of leadership practices may also affect the turnover intention of employees.

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## Appendixes

### Appendix- A- Appendix- Data Collecting Instruments from Academic Staff members

Addis Ababa University

College of Education and Behavioral Studies

School of Psychology

A questionnaire to be filled by academic staff of selected Ethiopian Public Universities. The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather data about the level of faculties' intention to leave their university and its relationship with their level of affective organizational commitment and organizational leadership practices among faculty in selected Ethiopian Public Universities. The data gathered will be used only for academic purposes and kept confidential. Your real and genuine response to each item has an essential role in the accuracy and reliability of the study. Hence, you are kindly requested to go through all the questions and respond appropriately.

Thank you! For your cooperation in advance!

#### I. Background information of participants

Note: please, before you get ahead of the questions, please fill in the following biographical information

- |                             |  |
|-----------------------------|--|
| 1. Organization name: _____ | 4. Academic position _____               |
| 2. Age: _____               | 5. Faculty/College _____                 |
| 3. Sex: _____               | 6. Service in years, in the university__ |

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#### General direction:

- Please provide your response to each statement of the close-ended questions by placing a "√" mark in one of the five boxes, for the following sections of the questionnaire.
- Make sure that the questionnaire contains 6 pages and five parts

- No need of writing your names

## II. Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) Scale

This section measures your perception of academic leadership practices in the University you are working in. You are kindly requested to give your response to each question based on the following scale.

Sn	The academic leadership in this university ....	Responses				
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Facilitates and encourages working together, to build a strong academic community	1	2	3	4	5
2	doesn't relate well to each other as members of an academic community	1	2	3	4	5
3	Encourages and work to maintain positive working relationships	1	2	3	4	5
4	Facilitates the building of community and team	1	2	3	4	5
5	does not promote itself	1	2	3	4	5
6	listens staff that need to be listened tries to address their issue	1	2	3	4	5
7	provides encouragement and affirmation for those who deserves	1	2	3	4	5
8	Views the faculty as a partner	1	2	3	4	5
9	Builds people up through encouragement and affirmation	1	2	3	4	5
10	does not value the presence and contribution of every single staff	1	2	3	4	5

11	Provides opportunities for all staff to develop to their full potential	1	2	3	4	5
12	Provides mentor relationships in order to help people grow professionally	1	2	3	4	5
13	is open and non-judgmental	1	2	3	4	5
14	advocates and model high ethical values	1	2	3	4	5
15	Practices the same behavior they expect from others	1	2	3	4	5
16	demonstrates high academic integrity and honesty	1	2	3	4	5
17	Honestly evaluates is self before seeking to evaluate others	1	2	3	4	5
18	works to maintain reliable working environment	1	2	3	4	5
19	accepts people as they are	1	2	3	4	5
20	view conflict as an opportunity	1	2	3	4	5
21	seeks to influence others from a positive relationship rather than from the authority of its position	1	2	3	4	5
22	Attempt to deliver opportunities for all staff to develop their full potential	1	2	3	4	5
23	Tries to use the position and authority to support the personal and professional development of the staff	1	2	3	4	5
24	provides guidance, relationships in order to help people grow professionally	1	2	3	4	5
25	is accountable & responsible to others	1	2	3	4	5
26	is receptive listener	1	2	3	4	5
27	does not look for special advantages of leadership	1	2	3	4	5
28	puts the needs of the staff ahead of its own	1	2	3	4	5
29	Encourages people to take risks even if they may fail	1	2	3	4	5

30	is aware of the needs of the staff	1	2	3	4	5
31	communicates a clear vision of the future of the university	1	2	3	4	5
32	is open to learn from others regardless of their Academic position or position	1	2	3	4	5
33	Takes appropriate action when it is needed	1	2	3	4	5
34	doesn't hesitate to provide the leadership that is needed	1	2	3	4	5
35	promotes open communication and sharing of information	1	2	3	4	5
36	gives staff the power to make important decisions	1	2	3	4	5
37	encourages each person in the university to exercise leadership	1	2	3	4	5

### III. Affective commitment Measure

The following items measure your commitment to your university. You are kindly requested to give your response on a five-point scale as follows.

Sn	Item	Response				
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I am very happy being a member of this university.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I enjoy discussing about my university with people outside it.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my university.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this university.	1	2	3	4	5

5	This university has a great deal of personal meaning to me.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my university.	1	2	3	4	5

#### IV. Turnover Intention Measuring Scale

The following items measure the extent to which you intend to quit your current job at the university you are working in. You are kindly requested to give your response based on the following scale.

S n	Items	Responses				
		Strongl y Disagre e	Disagre e	Undecide d	Agre e	Strongl y Agree
1	I am very interested in job announcements or job opportunities outside of this university	1	2	3	4	5
2	I am actively looking for a position outside of this university	1	2	3	4	5
3	I think it is helpful for my career to work at this university	1	2	3	4	5
4	I don't think that it would be better to quit this university and move to another job.	1	2	3	4	5
5	If other conditions allow, I will quit this university immediately	1	2	3	4	5

## V. An Open-Ended Items

1. Do you have the intention to quit working at this university, in the near future?

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2. If so, why? Could you please indicate some of your major reasons?

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3. What do you recommend your university to reduce the turnover and turnover intention the academic staff and retain its faculty?

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### Appendix- B- Semi-Structured Interview -Guide Questions for Ex- faculty members of the Sampled Universities

The goal of this interview is to collect information about how the staff perceives the likelihood of turnover and the factors that may influence it. You were chosen to take part in this study as a former member of the academic faculty at one of Ethiopia's Public Universities, using the snowball selection method. The information gathered will be kept private and used only for academic reasons. Your honest and sincere responses to each question play a crucial part in the study's accuracy and dependability. As a result, we respectfully ask that you answer each question accurately.

Thank you! For your cooperation in advance!

1. The name of the pervious university that you were working at?
2. How many years have you served in that university?
3. The organization you joined after leaving that your previous organization (university?)
4. Could you please indicate the major reason (s) that made you leave that university (your previous working place)?
5. What do you recommend the leadership, of the university you were working at, to reduce academic staff turnover and retain its talented and experienced faculty?

Appendix-C- Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

Table 15 KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity of Statistical Significant of the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) Scale

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KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.656
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4710.274
	Df	1770
	Sig.	.000

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Table 16 KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Statistical Significance of the Affective Commitment Scale

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Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.758
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	268.504
	Df	28
	Sig.	.000

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Table 17 Total variance explained by the six factors of Organizational Leadership Scale

Total Variance Explained													
Component	Initial Eigenvalues				Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings				Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings				
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	
1	16.323	27.204	27.204	.323	27.204	27.204	8.866	14.77	14.777				
2	3.962	6.603	33.807	3.962	6.603	33.807	6.993	11.654	26.431				
3	3.631	6.051	39.859	3.631	6.051	39.859	5.138	8.563	34.993				
4	2.880	4.799	44.658	2.880	4.799	44.658	3.991	6.651	41.645				
5	2.530	4.216	48.874	2.530	4.216	48.874	3.698	6.164	47.809				
6	2.277	3.795	52.669	2.277	3.795	52.669	2.916	4.861	52.669				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 18 Rotated Component Matrix of Organizational Leadership Assessment Scale, Based on its Six Dimensions

Items	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	.750					
33	.738					
40	.635	.430			.562	
28	.633					
27	.608					

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5	.595	.379	
34	.589		
49	.550	.402	
13	.547		
23	.546		
15	.546		
14	.546	.340	.372
25	.543		
45	.540		.433
24	.540		.346
11	.529	.456	
21	.527	.363	.334
43	.520	.487	
46	.497	.407	.333
31	.478		.433
37	.477	.403	
29	.476		
30	-.441		.393
26	.377		
52		.795	
51		.731	
50		.715	
53		.681	

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42	.670			
41	.666			
54	.562			
44	.471			.391
39	.463	.366		-.412
38	.389	.390	.383	
18		.790		
10		.675		
4	.365	.367	.641	
3		.614		
6		.595		
19		.594		
9		.588		
16		.423		
20		.336		
47			.633	
1			.627	
36			.567	
17			.510	
58	.347		.447	
2		.346	.413	
8			.382	
56				.777

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57			.732
60			.591
59			.495
55			.482
48	.355	.410	.409
32			.687
7			.611
12			.66
35			.56

Component Matrix<sup>a</sup>

Table 19 Factor Loadings Based on Principal Components Analysis with Oblique Rotation for Organizational Leadership Assessment Scale

Item	Communalities	
	Initial	Extraction
1	1.000	.60
2	1.000	.387
3	1.000	.441
4	1.000	.617
5	1.000	.514
6	1.000	.420
7	1.000	.494
8	1.000	.212
9	1.000	.463
10	1.000	.635
11	1.000	.582
12	1.000	.423
13	1.000	.501
14	1.000	.667
15	1.000	.346
16	1.000	.380
17	1.000	.492
18	1.000	.666

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19	1.000	.461
20	1.000	.334
21	1.000	.561
22	1.000	.653
23	1.000	.458
24	1.000	.578
25	1.000	.480
26	1.000	.287
27	1.000	.563
28	1.000	.659
29	1.000	.471
30	1.000	.395
31	1.000	.513
32	1.000	.513
33	1.000	.572
34	1.000	.527
35	1.000	.451
36	1.000	.624
37	1.000	.423
38	1.000	.494
39	1.000	.554
40	1.000	.721
41	1.000	.549
42	1.000	.585
43	1.000	.597
44	1.000	.582
45	1.000	.577
46	1.00	.593
47	1.000	.558
48	1.000	.425
49	1.000	.555
50	1.000	.718
51	1.000	.743
52	1.000	.671
53	1.000	.507
54	1.000	.435
55	1.000	.568
56	1.000	.702
57	1.000	.644
58	1.000	.444
59	1.000	.474
60	1.000	.539

Extraction Method: Principal  
Component Analysis.

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N.B This table presents the communality of each variable (i.e., the proportion of variance in each variable accounted for by the common factors).

Table 20 Factor Loadings Based on Principal Components Analysis, with Oblique Rotation for Affective Commitment Scale

Item No	Communalities Initial	Extraction
1	1.000	.587
2	1.000	.384
3	1.000	.579
4	1.000	.472
5	1.000	.549
6	1.000	.532

Extraction Method: Principal component Analysis

Table 21 Variance Explained by One Component of Affective Commitment Scale

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.297	41.212	41.212	3.297	41.212	41.212
2	1.499	18.737	59.949			
3	.531	6.640	86.924			
4	.464	5.804	92.728			
5	.346	4.331	97.060			
6	.235	2.940	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

*Table 22 Total Variance Explained by One Component of Turnover Intention Scale Total Variance Explained*

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.551	51.029	51.029	2.5	51.029	51.30
2	1.012	20.241	71.269			
3	.616	12.321	83.590			
4	.487	9.734	93.324			
5	.334	6.676	100.000			
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.						

List of figures

Figure 3 Scree Plot of the Eigenvalue Showing the Amount of Variance in the Data Matrix Explained by the Six Components of the OLA Model

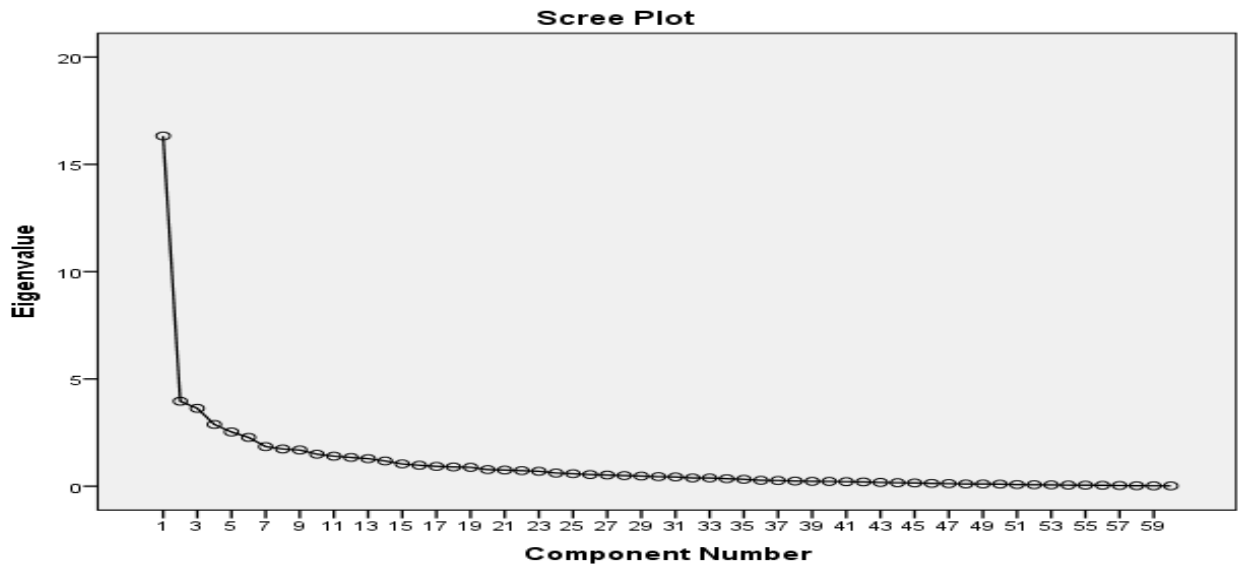


Figure 4 Scree Plot of the Eigenvalue Showing the Amount of Variance Explained by One Component of Affective Commitment Scale

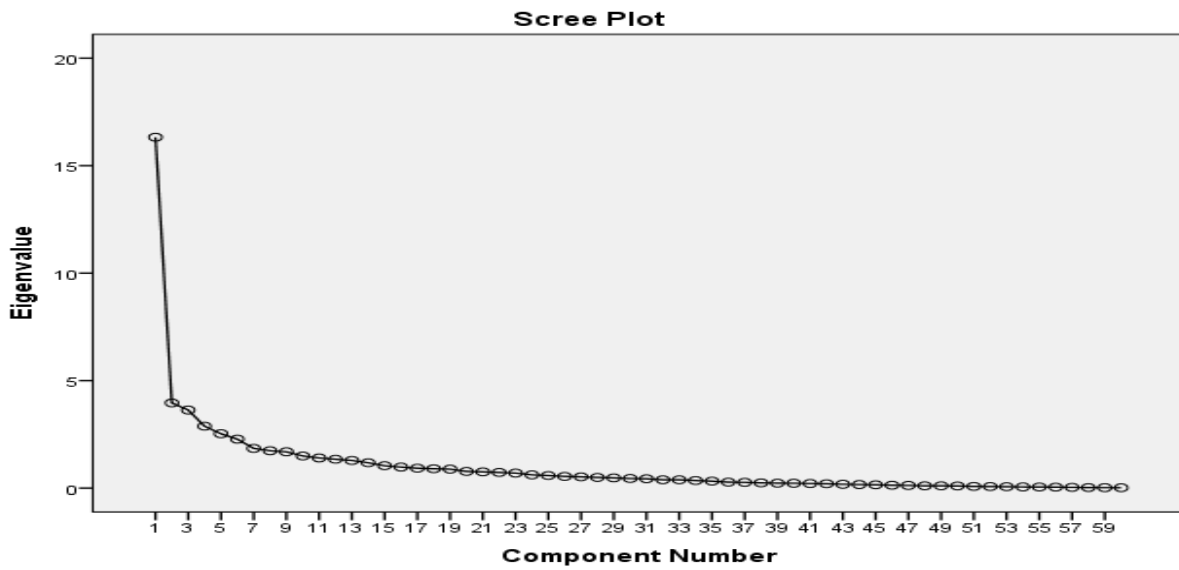
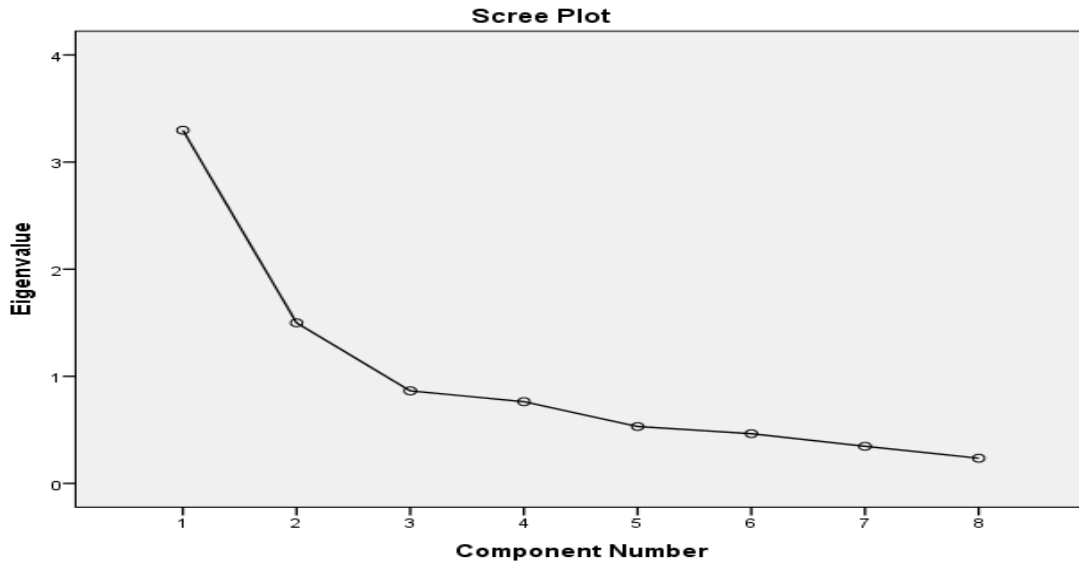
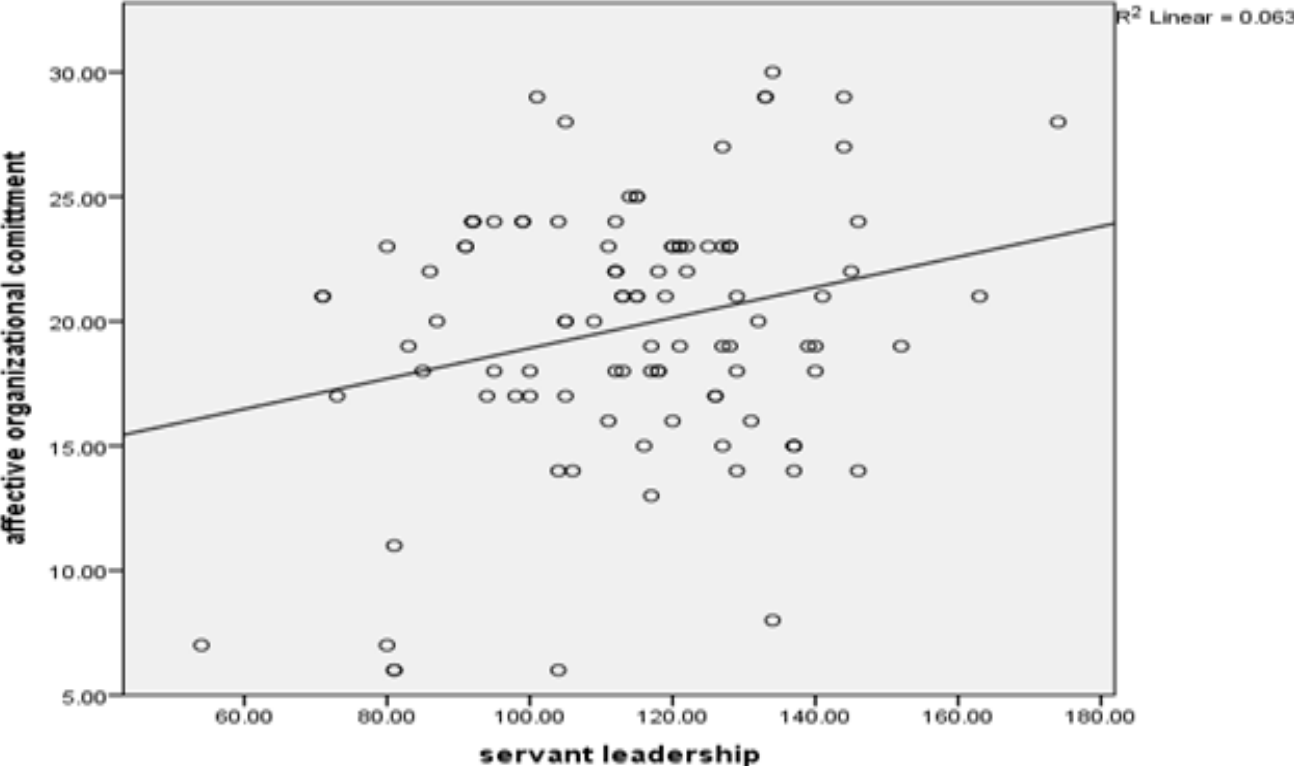


Figure 5 Scree Plot of the Eigenvalue Showing the Amount of Variance Explained by One Component of Turnover Intention Scale

Appendix- D -Assumptions of the Regression Analysis

Figure 1: *Test of homogeneity: Equality of covariance metrics (Box's M Test)*



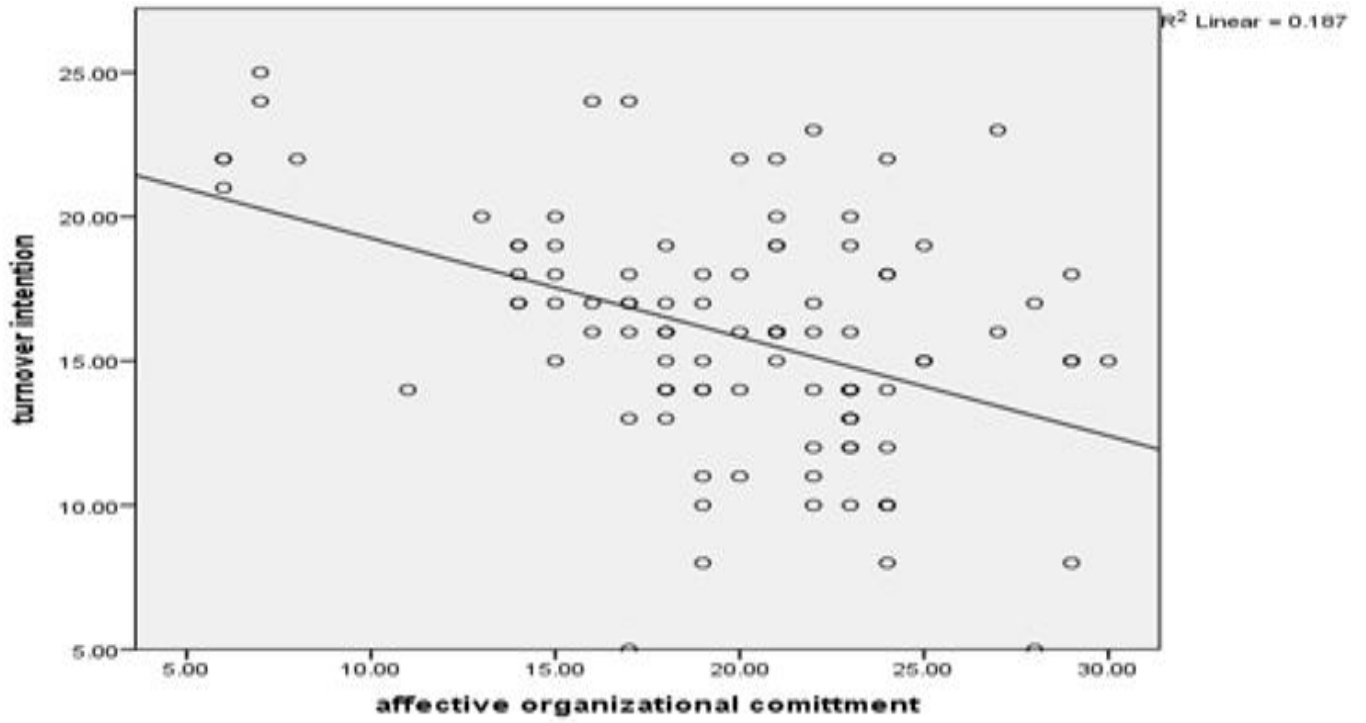


Figure 2: Residual scatter plot for homoscedasticity

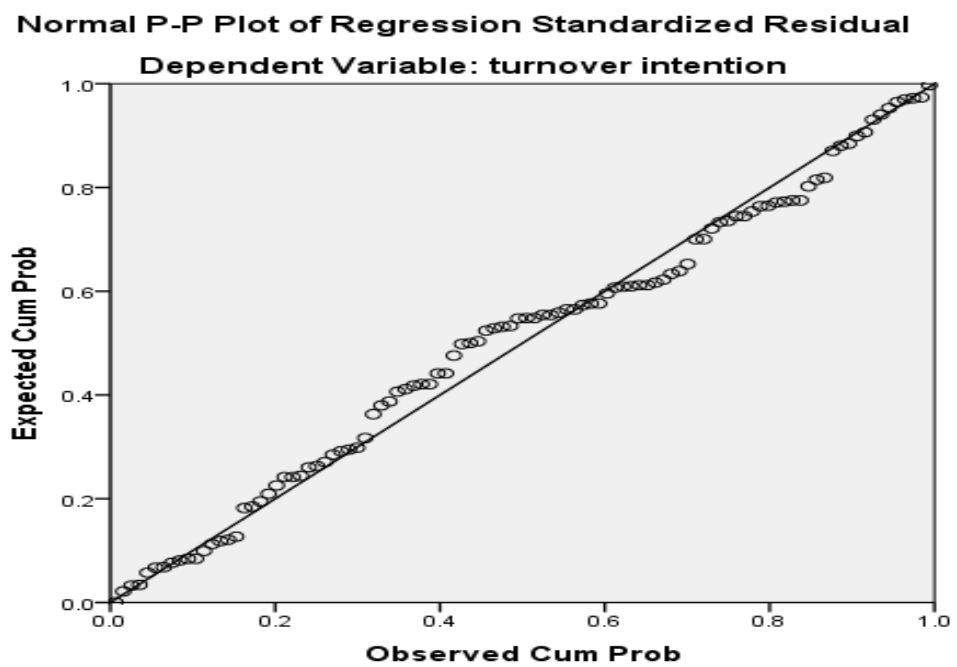
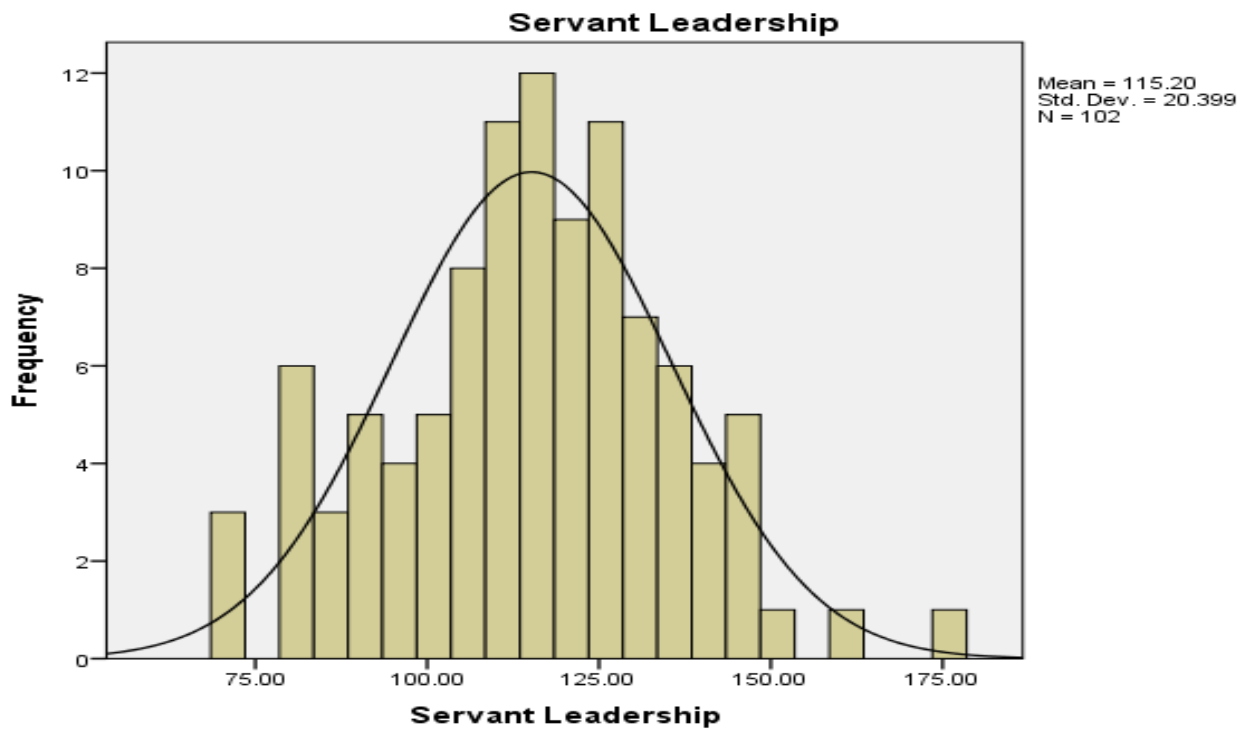
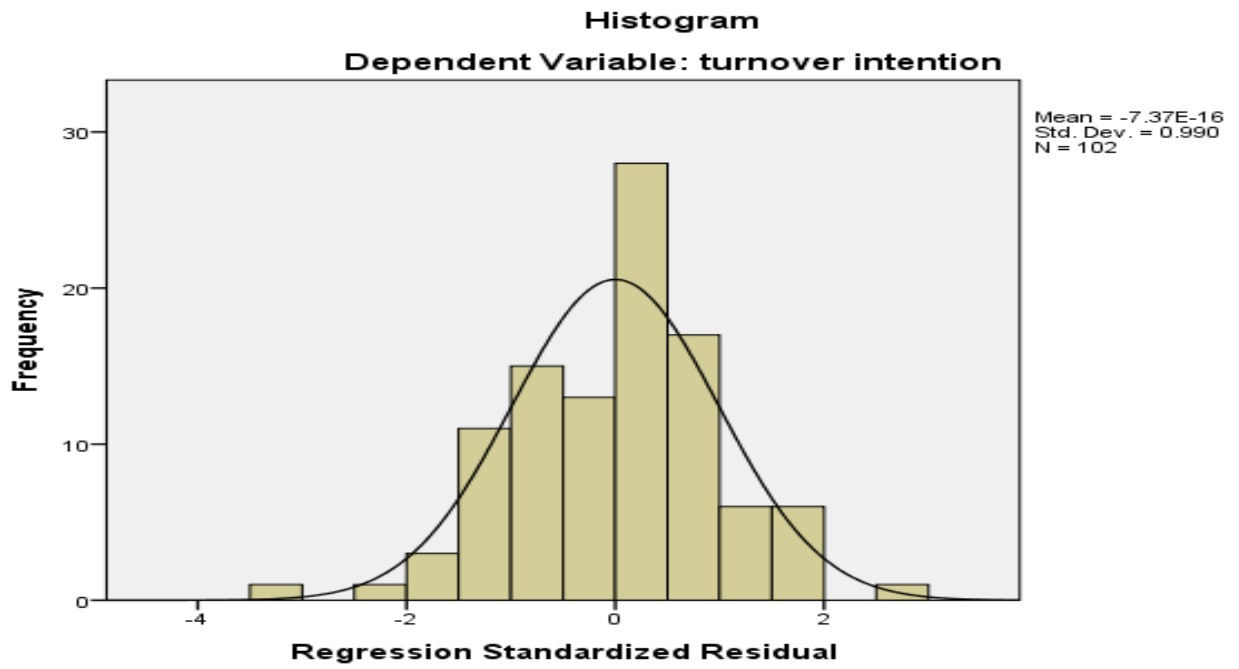


Figure 3: Test of normality: Normal probability plot for turnover intentions



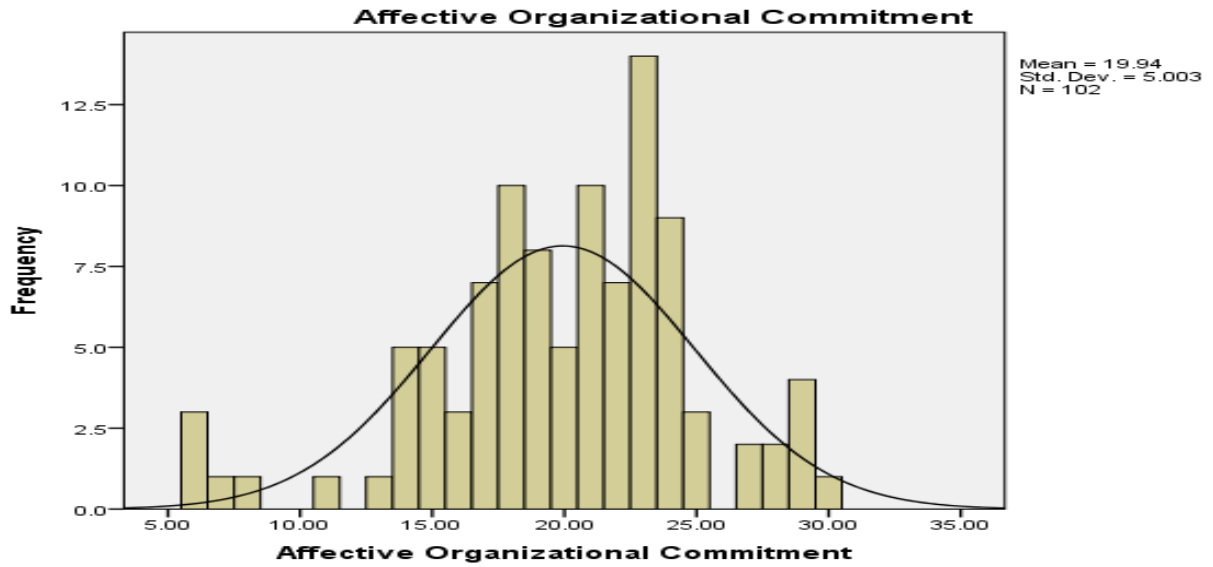
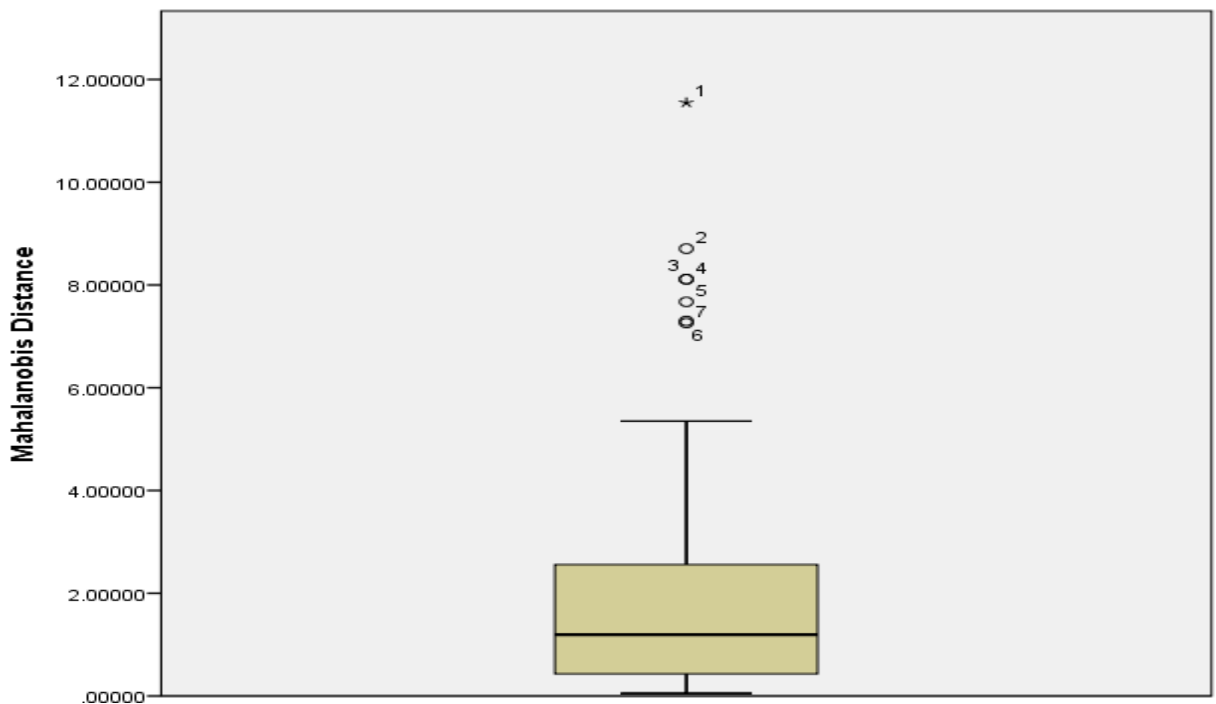


Figure 4: *Detection Multivariate Outliers through Mahalanobis Distance*



Nb. In the above graph, the star (\*) indicates a severe multivariate outlier case, and which should be removed. Accordingly, cases number 1 was not included in the analysis

Appendix –D-

Table 23 Test of Multicollinearity: Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) Scores

Coefficients <sup>a</sup>							
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	<i>B</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Beta</i>			<i>Tolerance</i>	<i>VIF</i>
1 (Constant)	18.847	2.921		6.453	.000		
Sex	.414	1.126	.038	.367	.714	.907	1.102
Academic position	-1.373	.794	-.191	-1.730	.087	.783	1.277
Age	-.019	.087	-.030	-.224	.823	.517	1.933
experience	-.099	.145	-.087	-.681	.497	.594	1.685
2 (Constant)	25.280	3.771		6.703	.000		
Sex	.375	1.095	.034	.343	.733	.907	1.102
academic position	-1.321	.772	-.184	-1.712	.090	.783	1.278
Age	-.044	.085	-.070	-.525	.601	.511	1.959
experience	-.111	.141	-.097	-.785	.434	.593	1.686
servant leadership	-.049	.019	-.250	-2.590	.011	.971	1.030
3 (Constant)	26.221	3.594		7.296	.000		
Sex	.547	1.041	.050	.525	.600	.905	1.105
Academic position	-1.316	.733	-.183	-1.795	.076	.783	1.278
Age	.023	.083	.037	.281	.779	.481	2.081
experience in years	-.076	.135	-.066	-.563	.574	.589	1.697
servant leadership	-.032	.019	-.164	-1.720	.089	.900	1.111
affective commitment	-.268	.080	-.335	-3.370	.001	.828	1.208

a. Dependent Variable: turnover intention

**Total Correlation of the Measures**

Table 24 Inter- Item Correlation between the Six Dimensions of Servant Leadership

Correlations		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Provides leadership	1					
2	Shares leadership	.550**	1				
3	Displays authenticity	.447**	.394**	1			
4	Builds academic community	.450**	.569**	.363**	1		
5	Values the academic staff	.501**	.445**	.273**	.504**	1	
6	Develops the academic staff	-.002	.049	-.118	.012	-.034	1

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)  
 \* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 25 Inter-Item Correlation of Affective Commitment Scale

<i>correlation</i>		1	2	3	4	5	6
1							
2	.733**						
3	.374**	.192					
4	.323**	.210*					
5	.571**	.390**	.363**				
6	.400**	.197*	.533**	.442**	.533**	.442**	

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)  
 \* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 26 Inter-Item Correlation of Turnover Intention Items Correlations

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*Correlations*

	1	2	3	4.
2	.639**			
3	.298**	.322**		
4	.198*	.202*	.457**	
5	.418**	.496**	.261**	.290**

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).  
 \* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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